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An Economic Study of Elementary Education in County Durham

In the Early Part of the 19th Century. by R. Pallister.

(Abstract of Thesis)

In the early years of the century the funds for public elementary education came principally from the charities which had been established in the previous centuries, the best local examples being those associated with the Blue Coats and with Lord Crewe. Crewe's work in County Durham was continued and surpassed in value by Bishop Barrington's efforts in the first two decades of the 19th Century, especially in his relationship with the Barrington Schools, the Weardale Schools Committee and the Diocesan School Society. Between 1810 and 1850 the National Society became predominant in the public sector of elementary education in County Durham, the other societies being dwarfed by its efforts. But by 1850 the State was beginning to accept the leading position as a provider of funds for elementary education. Of less significance in money value was the philanthropic work of industry, such as that of the lead companies, the Londonderry family, the coal-owners and the iron-masters. The poor children in the workhouses, were either educated in workhouse schools if these existed or at schools nearby. Supplementing these efforts was the private sector of education where large numbers of small schools educated, at times, as many children as were to be found in total in other schools.

An estimate of the amount spent on elementary education out of National Income in 1851 gives about 0.3 per.cent. as compared with approximately 1.3 per.cent. today. In the context of disease, poverty, malnutrition and inadequate sanitation such as existed in the mid-19th Century the 0.3 per cent seems to represent a greater sacrifice in economic terms than the 1.3 per.cent. does today.

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I

AN ECONOMIC STUDY OF ELEMENTARY.
EDUCATION IN COUNTY DURHAM IN
THE EARLY PART OF THE
NINETEENTH CENTURY.

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c. 1800

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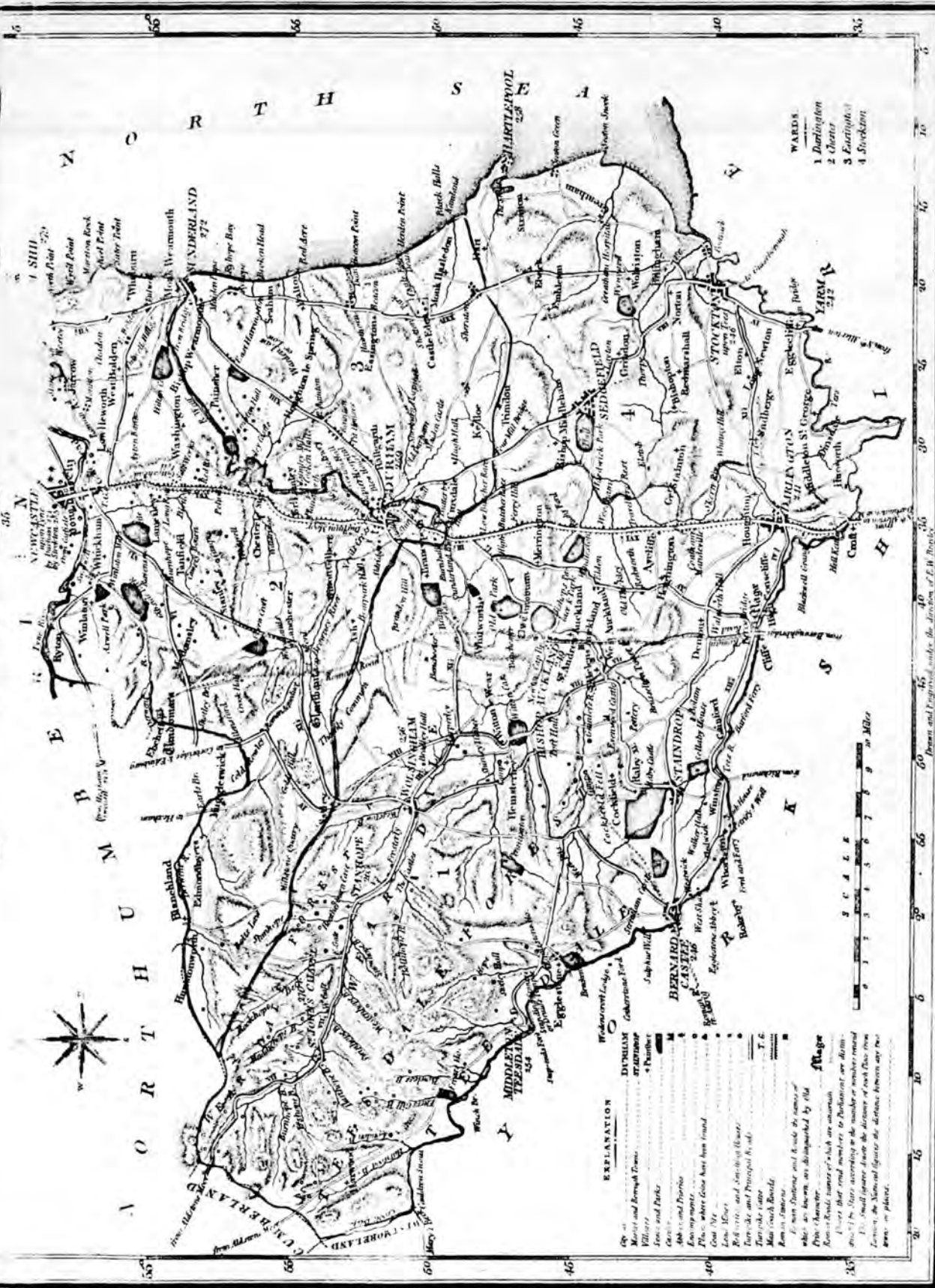
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EXPLANATION

City or Market and Borough Towns

Parishes

Manors and Parks

Rivers and Streams

Woods and Forests

Places where Coins have been found

Coal Pits

Low Meads

Roads and Carriage Roads

Wells and Principal Wells

Wells

Man of Arms

Woods and Forests

Wells

Man of Arms

Wards

1. Darlington

2. Chert

3. Easton

4. Stockton

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PART ONE.

Chapter 1.

Economic and Social Conditions.

Between 1750 and 1900 there was a remarkable increase in population in England. Gregory King's figure of about 5½ million in 1696 was increased to about 6 millions by 1750 from which date the growth of population was rapid. The first census of 1801 revealed a population of about 9 millions, a fifty per cent. increase having been made in the previous half-century. Similarly between 1800 and 1850 we have about a 50 per cent rate of growth. This can be largely attributed to the sharply declining death rate than to any extraordinary increase in birth rate.¹ After 1815 even in bad times there was no return to the high death rate of the previous century and during this period 1815 to 1850 the birth rate declined.² The decline in the death rate was due primarily to greater personal hygiene and more efficient public hygiene, besides the steady progress in medical science. In this latter field, improved knowledge and techniques in midwifery played no insignificant part in the declining death rate. Inoculation and vaccination were introduced; scurvy, small-pox, typhoid and cholera were to some degree under control by 1850 and these had been some of the major killers in the 18th Century. Besides these, such diseases as tuberculosis, influenza, scarlet-fever, diphtheria, whooping cough and measles accounted for

1. A. Redford. The Economic History of England 1760-1860. p.71.
2. P. Gregg. A Social and Economic History of Britain 1760-1955. p.62.

large numbers of deaths in the 18th and 19th Centuries.¹ Despite the numerous killer illnesses, the crude death rate fell from over thirty per thousand in the 18th Century to 22.2 per thousand between 1851 and 1860. Although improvements were forthcoming during the 19th Century, the conditions of the working class did not improve much up to 1860. Wood suggests that "no simple sweeping statement of the condition of the poor in the towns and the country can safely be made"² but this is avoiding the making of any assessment. It is fair to say that in general the condition of the population was exceedingly bad unless measured against preceding centuries. To modern eyes and indeed to many contemporary eyes life was lived in a most unpleasant way by most of the working population in the early 19th Century.

The increasing population exerted demands on the economy. Many more mouths had to be fed, many more bodies to be sheltered and clothed. This stimulus called forth industrial and agricultural changes which have since been designated with the terms Industrial and Agricultural Revolutions and which have brought vast increases in wealth, due primarily to improvements wrought by the application of steam power to machinery in industry, and by the breaking down of antiquated and obsolete methods in agriculture. The handworker in industry saw the introduction of machinery

1. The Registrar General's Report for 1961 gives Index figures for these diseases.
2. A. Wood. Nineteenth Century Britain, p.15.

as an enemy, but as a more efficient method of production resulted and goods became cheaper, the initial unemployment was absorbed in a necessary realignment of employment to spheres of new demand.

The period 1760 to 1830 is essentially dependent upon the canals and new turnpikes for allowing industry to move its bulky goods, although the rivers and sea played a major part in transport when they were easily accessible, After 1830 the railways became the most significant means of transport and also provided a great stimulus to the feeder industries, coal and iron in particular, and also generated extra consumer power. The railways grew rapidly in the 1840s by which time confidence had been established in them. By 1843 the railway mileage of the United Kingdom was 2036¹ whereas in 1838 there were only about 500 miles in operation.² By 1855 there were 8280 miles of track and by 1870 there were 13,600 miles.³ Such was the pace of growth. "Between 1760 and 1830 there was an enormous general increase in production, by far the greatest in those industries which adopted iron machinery and steam power. But, great as were these increases, they were to be dwarfed by the figures of development subsequent to 1830."⁴ Yet it was not until the latter half of the century that

1. C.R. Fay. Great Britain from Adam Smith to the Present Day. p.195.
2. J.H. Clapham. An Economic History of Modern Britain. Vol.1. p.387.
3. J.H. Clapham. op.cit. Vol.II p.131.
4. P. Gregg. A Social and Economic History of Britain. p.49.

Britain ceased to be primarily an agricultural nation and became the world's leading industrial nation.

Not until the coming of the railways does County Durham really feel the impact of the economic changes taking place elsewhere. The development of the railroads led to the sinking of deeper pits "often at unprecedented cost."¹ The workable coalfield being in the west made railways or canals a necessity to transport the bulky goods. With the introduction of the means of transport and a great increase in the demand for coal, not only for the new growing industries but also for the ever increasing number of household fires, the coal industry began its great expansion. Output of coal rose from 11 million tons for the United Kingdom in 1800 to 22.4 million in 1830 and 80 million tons in 1860.² The peak product came in 1913 with 287 million tons. Some indication of the effects of this growth on the County can be seen in the estimated cost of sinking three shafts at Murton Colliery by the South Hetton Coal Company between 1838 and 1843 - £250,000 to £400,000.³ This was a large capital expenditure at that time. With this sort of expenditure on mining the Northumberland and Durham coalfield soon became prominent and by 1850 produced about one-quarter of the total output of the United Kingdom.⁴ Clapham goes so far as to say that

1. A. Redford. The Economic History of England p.126.
2. P. Deane and W.A. Cole. British Economic Growth p.142.
3. V.C.H. Durham. Vol.2. p.329.
4. A. Redford. op.cit. p.126.

such was the rapid rate of growth immediately after 1825 that the preponderance of the Northumberland and Durham coalfield must have been greater in the 1830s than it was in the 1840s.¹

A fair estimate of the pace of the Industrial Revolution can be gathered from the increase in demand for coal and also for pig-iron. Iron output stood at 250,000 tons in 1800 but by 1835 it had increased four times to one million tons.² In 1850 it was two million tons and in 1875 six million tons,³ by which time cheap steel from the new Bessemer process began to replace iron in many industries.

Figures for the consumption of raw cotton tell the same tale. From 25,000 tons in 1800⁴ it rose to 300,000 tons by 1850 and 600,000 tons by 1870.⁵ Thus this period of 1800-1860 is one of unprecedented growth although it seems paltry in relation to succeeding decades as the rate of growth increased. But the rate of growth in the economy was by no means regular. Despite the stimulus of war and the concomitant rise in prices the rate of growth of the National Product was far less between 1801 and 1821 than between 1821 to 1831. From a National Product of £138 million (at constant prices) there was an increase to £218 million in 1821 then an increase in ten years up to £312 million.⁶ The 1830s and 1840s then witnessed a declining

1. Clapham. op.cit. 2 p.433.

2. F. Gregg. op.cit. p.47.

3. *ibid.* p.297.

4. F. Gregg. op.cit. p.47.

5. *ibid.* p.297

6. P. Deane and W.A. Cole. British Economic Growth.p.282.

These estimates are extrapolations from C.H. Fernstein's figures.

rate of growth but it must be remembered that the absolute growth continued. Despite the rapidly increasing population, the per capita product of the population increased steadily throughout the century so that taking a general picture most people in 1830 would be better off than they had been in 1820 and those in 1840 better than those in 1830 and so on.

The rate of growth of the National Income does not reflect the rates of growth of individual sections of the economy. Agriculture, forestry and fishing lost their predominance in this period of 50 years. From a production of £75.5 million from these three in 1801 out of a total National Income of £232, there was a rise to £106.5 million in 1851 but out of a total National Income of £523.3 million. Thus where agriculture, forestry and fishing had contributed about one-third of the total National Income in 1801 it only contributed about 23% in 1851. Meanwhile manufacturing, mining and building, the growing industries, had increased their share from about one quarter to just over one-third. Thus the importance agriculture had had in 1801 was taken by the new industries of manufacturing, mining and building.¹ Trade and transport slightly increased their share in National Production. From a total product of £40.5 million towards the National Product of £232 million in 1801 its share rose to £97.8 million out of the 1851 National Product figures of £523.3 million - roughly up from 17 per cent to 19 per cent.

The trends in the economy have been clearly set out by

1. Deane & Cole, op.cit. p.166. Figures abstracted from Table 166.

Rostow. For the Napoleonic period i.e. 1790 to 1815 there was "a rapid rise in production, within both industry and agriculture; a substantially greater increase in exports than in imports; a falling tendency in real wages."¹ The aftermath of the Wars was a period of heavy investment both at home and overseas. Prices fell steadily, although not in the thirties and forties, and in the main wages increased steadily. Only agriculture failed to escape the threat of depression, although the hand-loom weavers felt the pinch of the Industrial Revolution when the power loom became a practical proposition in this period. Rostow blames the rise in prices of the thirties on excessive overseas investment.² The thirties and forties are noted as periods of frequent bad harvests, high unemployment and high food prices. The agricultural labourer, in particular, was in an unhappy position. Yet industrial growth was quite remarkable; the level of real wages was high outside of agriculture and the volume of imports and exports increased considerably. After 1850 prices began to rise as a result of unproductive outlays on war, gold mining and railways.³ Wood estimates a fall of about 5% in real wages from 1800 to 1855 and then an increase from 1855 to 1875 which is fairly steady.⁴

Such was the general background. But the real concern of the miner, the agricultural labourer and the iron-worker

1. W.W. Rostow. British Economy in the 19th Century.p.19.
2. ibid. p.18.
3. W.W. Rostow. British Economy in the 19th Century.p.23.
4. ibid. p.24.

was their environment, their homes, their health and their wages. Life was basic. The new demands of the Industrial Revolution brought many of the population into manufacturing and mining where conditions of work were far inferior to what was experienced in agriculture. Children and adults of both sexes were employed in factories and in mines, although Galloway says that in the North East coalfield no woman had been employed since before 1800. Children, however, continued to be put into the mines when they were still very young, despite the 1842 Mines Act. Halevy goes so far as to suggest that mining was a harder task in the early 19th Century than it had been a century earlier.¹ With the increasing demand for coal possibly outstripping the pace of technical advance, and leading to lack of caution in sinking shafts to far greater depths, this is possibly true that mining became more dangerous. In the North of England the miners were usually in the direct employ of a mining company and were subject to the yearly bond, a contract by which they agreed to work for the year without absence or strike. Occasionally the butty system was operated, the butty being a contractor who stood between the workers and the mineowner and who was responsible for getting the coal to the surface, often being very oppressive of his workmen in the process.² The truck system of paying wages was also occasionally found but this seems to have been rare in the Durham coalfield in the early 19th Century.

1. Halevy. England in 1815 p.260.

2. G.M. Young. Early Victorian England p.51.

The Report of the Children's Employment Commission of 1842 gives ample evidence of the working of children in mines. An eight year old tells of trapping without a light from four o'clock in the morning to half past five in the evening.¹ Up to 1850 descent of the shaft was usually by corf hooked on to a hempen rope or still more primitive by hooking one's foot through a loop in the rope, the children being carried down by holding on to the men chimpanzee-style. Various jobs were open to young children. Trapping, the opening of trap-doors to direct the air through the various passages, was done by very young children and they would be paid a few pence a day. The older children could draw the coal, with or without the help of ponies, while other jobs such as greasing of tubs could be managed by boys of about ten. There was certainly plenty of scope for the use of child labour in the mine and children were reported as having been sent to work down the mine as early as four years of age. The miner's life was reputed to be reckless, degrading and harsh. "There were tales current of the lawless debauchery which took place in the subterranean galleries where he spent so much of his life."² It is said that the miners lived like utter savages "absolutely cut off not merely from the middle class but also from the other sections of the labouring classes."³ The

1. Report of Children's Employment Commission XV. 71.
2. P. Gregg. A Social and Economic History of Britain p.140.
3. E. Halévy. England in 1815.p.262.

Newcastle Commission of 1858 also compares the coal-miner unfavourably with the neighbouring lead miner. Undoubtedly the tradition and customs of a settled populace, such as was found in the lead-mining areas, combined with a strong religious conviction would result in a better-living group of human beings. The Wesleyan movement did not really exert tremendous influence on social life until Victorian days although "Methodism had been the one really civilizing influence at work among the miners in Durham" from 1760 to 1820.¹ Good wages, a mobile population, religious apathy all led to waywardness - to beer drinking, to gambling, to debauchery.

To assess what the coal-miner's wage would be at any one point in time presents some difficulty for there were so many variables. The number of shifts per week varied as did piece rates from one colliery to another. These latter tended to fluctuate with trade too. Besides, most miners had free or cheap coal and usually a rent-free cottage. The Durham miner, like most men classified as being skilled, "generally had a tolerable house or section of a house and tolerable furniture, unless his trade was a dying one."² These houses, some of which we can still see in the pit-villages of Durham, must have been to contemporary eyes of a high standard, certainly when compared with the typical farm labourer's cottage. Compare the

1. *ibid.* p.263.

2. J.H. Clapham. *The Early Railway Age* p.39.

strong four-roomed house with outside earth-closet which was the coal-miner's dwelling around 1830 with the picture drawn by William Cobbett of the agricultural worker's home. "Look at these hovels, made of mud and straw, bits of glass or of old cast off windows, without frames or hinges frequently, but merely stuck on the mud-wall.

Enter them and look at the bits of chairs and stools; the wretched boards tacked together to serve for a table; the floor of pebble, broken brick or of the bare ground; look at the thing called a bed; and survey the rags on the backs of the wretched inhabitants."¹ An estimate

of the miner's wage in the 1790s is made by Eden for the Northumberland and Durham coalfield; he gives a wage of between 2/6d to 3/- a day. This, of course, would be the day worker's wage which was just less than the overman's.² By 1850 this had increased to between 3/6d and 4/-³

These wages would be about comparable with those received by mill mechanics and mule spinners while about 30 per cent more than builders' labourers and 20 per cent less than engineers.⁴ A miner's weekly wage of about 22/- in 1850 was considerably more than that of the power-loom weaver who was earning about half this amount at the same time.

The agricultural labourer in 1850 earned an estimated

1. W. Cobbett. Rural Rides. Vol.2.p.348.
2. Quoted in J.H. Clapham. op.cit. p.558.
3. For details see pay sheets of the Stella Coal Company in Durham County Record Office. Clapham quotes 5/9 a day in 1846 op.cit. p.559.
4. G.D.H. Cole. The British Working Class Movement p.133. Table 2.

average of 9/6d,¹ but this would probably be exceeded by the Durham labourer who had the alternative employment in the coalmines to attract him if the agricultural wages were low. Thus, with the free coal and cottage the Durham miner was financially happy in contemporary eyes.

The 1831 revolt was the final fling of a dying peasantry. The farmers had had their way in the Napoleonic Wars when prices were high and yet the poor labourer had had to be saved from destitution by the Speenhamland System. Conditions became worse after 1815 as the supply of imported grain increased; the Poor Rate increased rapidly in an attempt to stave off poverty; emigration was resorted to by many including the Trade Unions and the Poor Law Authorities, to alleviate distress. Agricultural wages were as high as 15/- per week in the North of England during the war years but immediately after the war the wage for the agricultural labourer in the North fell to 9/- or 10/-.² By 1834 the wage was up to 12/- in the North but by 1850 it had fallen back to about 9/6d. According to Clapham's figures the cost of living was approximately the same in 1850 as it had been in 1790³ and this would indicate that the agricultural labourer had not improved his lot between these years. The industrial worker had, according to Clapham, improved his position from a Wage

1. G.D.H. Cole. The British Working Class Movement. p.134. Table 4.
2. Cole and Postgate. The Common People p.204.
3. J.H. Clapham. op.cit. p.601.

Index of 72 in 1790 to 102 in 1850.¹ The advantage in wages lay with the factory and mine-worker rather than the agricultural worker. Wages were indeed so low "that a man with a little property or a few savings could not keep himself alive without help from the parish, but if a man was convicted of possessing anything he was refused parish help. It was dangerous even to look tidy or neat."² It is no wonder that extra ways of earning money were resorted to. Toddlers could be sent out to scare birds; girls could be sent into service as early as nine years of age; the wife could char or tend the children of other working women for a few pence. Sometimes the brewing of ale was remunerative. Poaching was almost the last resort and for this transportation could be the penalty. For quite a number, charity and the workhouse were the ultimate resort. There is no doubt that during the whole of our period the agricultural labourer was badly off, in war time and after. His expenditure when he was earning say 15/-, a high wage for him,³ was

5 four lb. loaves, at 8½d.	3s. 6½d.
5 lbs. of meat at 5d.	2s. 1d.
7 pints of porter at 2d.	1s. 2d.
½ cwt. of coals	9½d.
40 lbs. of Potatoes	1s. 4d.
3 ozs. tea at 5/-; 1 lb. sugar at 7d.	1s. 6d.
1 lb. butter	9d.
½ lb. soap; ½ lb. candles	6½d.
Rent 2/6; schooling 4d	2s. 10d.
Sundries	5½d.

15s. 6d.

1. *ibid.* p.561. Based on Wood's statistics.
 2. J.L. and B. Hammond, *The Village Labourer*. Vol.2.
 3. Table from Bosanquet. *Rights of the Poor* p.27.
1847. Quoted in G.M. Young, *Early Victorian England* p.132.

There is no scope in this family budget for savings or luxuries. Clothing is not mentioned so presumably the family were clothed by charity. Young goes so far as to say that thousands or millions lived in a state of serious malnutrition,¹ but this is forgetting the perquisites the agricultural labourer might receive which would not enter his weekly budget. It is more than likely the labourer would receive supplies of milk or meat or potatoes from his master and also have a smallholding or garden to supplement his wage. This is not to decry Young's argument that many were starving but only to show that the assessment of a person's income is an extremely difficult problem.

The lead-miners, probably the next most numerous group of workmen, had a way of life somewhat more refined than the coal-miner and certainly wealthier than the agricultural worker. The lead-miners were "a steady, provident, orderly and industrious people"....."disdaining pauperism as the deepest degradation."² Their homes indicated the lead-miner's level of intelligence and literacy - "there are books in almost every home" says Commissioner Foster in 1858. One parish seven miles long was without a public house or a pauper to put into its workhouse. The employer usually provided medical aid, sickness and death benefits for the lead miners and also, as we shall see, the means of education. Boys could not be employed

1. *ibid.* p.132.

2. Newcastle Commission. Vol.2. p.323.

at the mine until they were twelve years old and then only on the surface. Girls were to stay at school to fourteen. The usual work for the boy of twelve was lead washing which was done at the surface and was certainly not as unpleasant as the underground work expected of his twelve year old counterpart in the coal-mines. Probably the most irritating part of the lead-miner's life was the living away from home from Monday to Friday. It was necessary to build communal cottages when the lead mines were isolated, so that the miners would not have to return home each night. Every Monday, as dawn was breaking, the little market towns would ring with the sound of clog on cobble as the men and youths made their way to the mines, possibly seven or eight miles away, there to stay working, sleeping and eating together, till Friday or Saturday. The paternalistic attitude of the mine owners saw that extreme poverty was avoided. The normal working hours for lead miners were forty per week i.e. five days of eight hours each,¹ much less than the coal miners. In the London Lead Company, the average wage per week ranged from 13s.10d. to 15s.10d. in the period 1821 to 1826, but by 1830 it had fallen to 10s.3d. and the following year to 9s.10d. This depression, due to declining lead prices, did not last long for by 1836 the average wage was in the region of 12 shillings. From 1836 to 1847 the average remained about 12s.6d. a week. After a deputation for higher wages in 1853 earnings improved to about 19 shillings

1. A. Raistrick and B. Jennings. A History of Lead Mining in the Pennines. p.286.

in 1855.¹ These wages, up to the 1850s, were considerably below those of the miners in the coalfield. Indeed a sub-commission of the Children's Employment Commission suggested that by moving about twenty miles from the lead mines to the coal-mines, a young man might nearly double his income.² Against these low incomes must be set the other social benefits the worker received in sickness, for widows and orphans, and occasional grants when food was dear. On the 30th January, 1800, for instance, a sum not exceeding £50 was advanced to the workmen "because of the dearness and scarcity of bread."³

The ironworkers were usually provided with houses in the same way as the lead-miners, coal-miners and agricultural workers were, either at low rents or no charge. The wages paid do not indicate the real value of what the workmen received for in the early part of the century payment in kind was not uncommon. An ale allowance was made when work requiring special exertion was called for; a brew house, in fact was a requisite of most forges. Wages must have been fairly good in the Weardale Works at Tudhoe, for Dodd in his History of Spennymoor tells of the ironworkers spending large sums on drink from Friday to Monday. G.D.H. Cole gives the average wage for ironmoulders as varying between 29/- and 35/- a week between 1810 and 1860. The

1. A. Raistrick and B. Jennings. A History of Lead Mining in the Pennines. p.295.
2. Children's Employment Commission 1842. Appx.pt.II. p.772.
3. Minutes of the London Lead Company. 30th January 1800.

only other group of workers who came near to these high figures were the engineers with 25/- to 30/- during the same period.¹ Women and children could also get work "preparing the ore and picking out fragments of iron and charcoal from among the furnace cinders,"² but "they were employed in small numbers only, and their lives were not unduly strenuous."³ The Crowley enterprise on Tyneside was surprisingly modern in its outlook. Its Law Book attempted to circumscribe all activities by the Company. In the early years of this company much of the work was done in the home with the material provided by the firm, but in the 18th Century the firm provided mills and small shops for work. Whichever method was used, the domestic or factory system, the ironworker seemed to be fairly well off between 1800 and 1860.

For five, five and a half, or six days a week the workman worked. His relaxation took many forms. The killing of game, an exciting and lucrative sport of the time, was illegal however except for those who possessed "lands of inheritance" worth £100 a year or leases to the value of £150 a year. Even the buying and selling of game was illegal. Yet the poachers killed game and assaulted and shot the keepers. The penalties were very severe but the temptation was great and poaching was an accepted part of the peasant's life, accepted that is by the

1. G.D.H. Cole. The British Working Class Movement. p.133.
2. T.S. Ashton. Iron and Steel in the Industrial Revolution. p.189.
3. T.S. Ashton. Iron and Steel in the Industrial Revolution. p.189.

peasant. The hunt was a common feature of the countryside but for the working man it was a following on foot - the only active part that was within his reach. The occasional prize fight might be seen by the average working man and names like Tom Cribb, Jem Belcher and John Gully must have been bandied about in awe. In 1811 Captain Barclay Allardyce had walked his thousand miles in a thousand hours on Newmarket Heath.¹ He was reputed when he was over fifty to be able to lift a full-grown man on to a dinner table with one hand. Walking backwards was an unusual but not uncommon sport, as was ballooning. Cricket, which was to grow in popularity in the late 19th Century, was only little played before 1860, especially in the North. Most of the cricket sides in County Durham originate after 1870. Horse racing was a fairly common pastime for both participant and observer, but it operated on a much less grand scale than today. Rowing and the two football games were other contemporary sports but the two football games, like golf, only acquired significance as organised sports and spectacles in the latter part of the century. Cock-fighting probably figured prominently. "Newcastle may challenge all the world to cocking" said Egan, and he tells of the colliers and nailers and the cockfights, but by the time Queen Victoria came to the throne public opinion had condemned cock fighting. In the home, reading aloud was a

1. C.M. Young. Early Victorian England. p.265.

favourite occupation. The type of book chosen to be read would depend on the age of the person reading, but even the lighter novels which were available for the younger generation tended to be heavily steeped in moral instruction, and rather morbid by modern standards.¹ The Newcastle Commission gives a very adverse picture of the coal-mining area of the County, telling of drunkenness, poor school attendance and the inability of many adults to read and write. Thus, in many of these homes very little reading of any sort took place. It seemed to the Lord Bishop of Durham, "that children require(d) protection against the cupidity of their parents,"² in the mining area. Colonel Stobart of Etherley, the mine owner, also tells of ignorant parents who did not wish for education for their children.³ The fathers tended to waste their time in drinking; this was the main amusement of the coal mining and ironworkers districts, although it did not seem to be as common in the leadmining areas or in the purely agricultural areas. In the latter areas, the low wages impeded drunkenness. The unsettled state of the population on the coal field probably accounted for much of the licentiousness found there. Many of these villages, emerged after 1840 with a sudden flood of "immigrants", holding mixed beliefs and customs, and exhibiting many of the features of the American frontier

1. See copies of pages from typical schoolbooks - in separate folder.
2. Letter by Bishop of Durham to the Newcastle Commission dated Aug. 11th 1859. Newcastle Commission Vol.5. p.142.
3. Newcastle Commission. Vol.5. p.363.

town - its lawlessness, lack of religion and mobile population.

Yet contemporary England was becoming strongly religious; in the early years of the 19th Century "Indifferentism and latitudinarianism in religion now seemed seditious and unpatriotic, and a concurrent change in manners took place, from licence or gaiety to hypocrisy or to virtue. Family prayers spread from the merchant's household to the dining room of the country house."¹ The Victorian gentlemen became more religious in their habits and became strongly Puritan and very serious. The broad-minded eighteenth century attitude tended to be replaced by an evangelical vigour and intolerance which was really the opposite extreme. The new-found piety in religion expressed itself in humanitarian activities, of which the provision of education was a part. We see in the early years of the 19th Century, Church Evangelical, Dissenter and free thinking Radical, working for the education of the poor in the British and Foreign Schools Society, and later in factory reform. Wilberforce in his anti-slavery movement introduced into English politics new methods of "pressurizing" the government, by agitation and use of the press. This was copied in the later years by many other groups who were pleading from humanitarian motives. Religion had become a positive thing in our period, something which was to grow still stronger as the century progressed. But there seems to have been a certain apathy towards the new felt spirit in

1. G.M. Trevelyan. Illustrated English Social History. Vol.4. p.28.

the coal-field of Durham. It may be that the observers who commented on the lack of religious spirit only saw the few who behaved irreligiously and missed the many who were active Christians. There was certainly licentious living, but there was also religion. To what degree these existed one cannot say.

The Clergy of the 19th Century was sharply divided into rich and poor. The bishops and the wealthier parish priests could enjoy life; "they had obtained preferment not as a reward of work done for the Church, but through aristocratic connection or family favour."¹ The underpaid curate was most often left responsible for the ministering to the parish while the parish priest rode to hounds, and shot and danced and farmed. Pluralism was fairly common, nepotism too. The reform of the Church however, between 1832 and 1840, removed many of the worst abuses and made revenues more equitable. Much of the burden of providing education, or at least supervising schools once set up, fell on the parish priest. The rich priest who could afford to pay a curate could afford the time for this supervision and no doubt he would regard it as part of his autocratic duty. There was no doubt that the priest was a leading figure in the 19th Century village or town, second only, one would imagine, to the lord of the manor or the owner of the coal-mine or iron works.

One other institution played a most important part in the life of the working person, and that was the workhouse.

1. G.M. Crevelyan. op.cit. 46.

Held in awe and disgust by the populace, these places were the only shelter available for widows with families who had no means of income, or for the aged, the sick, the lame, the simple of mind. The workhouse was a sort of waste-paper basket where everything that was of no direct use was placed. Conditions inside were generally atrocious until after the 1834 Act, when some attempt was made to separate the various types of inmate, and when new buildings were erected under the new Unions of Parishes. Yet this was where many of the working class would spend some time in their life; this was what they saw waiting for them in their twilight years - a period of time in the workhouse.

Against this background of multifarious changes, of industry moving rapidly in the direction of steam and mechanization, of agriculture advancing with the help of enclosures and new techniques, of a longer living population enjoying a richer life financially, and of the re-establishment of religion, a picture of education can be projected. Educational provision only becomes meaningful in this context of change, of material, moral and religious progress.

Chapter 2.

Permanent Charities.

The Charity School is a characteristic institution of the 18th Century, similar in structure to the Joint Stock Company, which too was a phenomenon of the 18th Century. Indiscriminate charity is ephemeral, leaving no permanent effect, but charity organised on the Joint Stock pattern is more likely to be permanent. One of the main achievements of the S.P.C.K. was to teach school managers how to establish an endowment which would be permanent, just as the capital of the Joint Stock Company is permanent. By permanent charities is meant those gifts of money or land which are set aside to generate a permanent yearly income. Of course there have been probably many million charitable gifts in this county but most were used immediately for maintenance or current expenses and not set aside as an endowment from which only the interest was to be used. We are only concerned with the permanent charities, as the occasional donations and gifts made to schools are worth so much in total and would be extremely difficult to assess; besides, many of these casual payments have been considered under the chapters on the National Society, the British and Foreign School Society, the Industrialists etc.

The charitable endowment was generally paid either to the parish authorities or direct to the schoolmaster and for it one or more children would be educated free. The

S.P.C.K. had been an instigator and supporter of charity schools and as a result most charities had a strong religious bias, their curriculum being heavily loaded with religion. "But apart from religion the main stress was on industrial occupations, for the children were designed to become labourers or domestic servants and were therefore encouraged to develop habits of industry."¹ Moreover, the needs of the charity school were constantly kept before the public, by the attendance of the school children at church each Sunday, where they could be seen sitting in the same place each week for all to see, and also by the preaching of "charity-school sermons" the collections from which were used for the school. Another form of advertisement was by dressing the children in some distinctive clothing; the Blue Coat children at Durham had clothing as follows - "the girls used to wear a blue dress and blue cape and a black and white bonnet trimmed with blue. The boys wore a blue swallow-tailed coat with two brass buttons on the back, and on Sundays a short coat and grey striped stockings".² The Charity Sermon must have been a good source of revenue for the charity school. In November 1823 the Reverend John Vane preached such a sermon in St. Nicholas's Church, Durham, on behalf of the Blue Coat Charity with the text taken from Deuteronomy XV - 11th verse - "Thou shalt open thine hand wider unto thy

1. Barnard. A Short History of English Education.p.6.
 2. R. Chadwick. Durham Blue Coat Schools.p.6.

brother, to thy poor and to thy needy in thy land" - and the collection was over £48, made up to £51-1s.5d. by non-attenders. This was "the largest collection remembered to have been made in the city."¹ There seems to have been some doubt as to whether all money received for such appeals was used as the appeal suggested. A month earlier, for instance, the Chronicle wrote bitterly about a collection made by the Reverend W. Nesfield. "We have already adverted to the gross attempt of the established clergy to obtain money under false pretences by raising contributions for pretended National Schools..... overpaid pluralists..... for purposes which they are specially bound and well able to provide for."² Nor were the congregation always as Christian minded as they appeared. We can read of 3s3d. being given in bad-coin at Dr. Poyntz's charity sermon at St. Nicholas's in 1793 out of a total collection of £11.4s.9d.³ In most cases the revenue from the sermons would be used immediately but in a few cases the money would be added to the fund which would be invested to bring in a yearly income. At Coniscliffe all money received in the early years of the setting up of the school was put into the Savings Bank and none was withdrawn till the sum had reached £100.⁴ Presumably this £100 was then invested to generate a yearly income.

1. Durham Chronicle. Nov. 29th 1823.
2. Durham Chronicle. Sept. 13th 1823.
3. R. Chadwick. op.cit. p.5.
4. Coniscliffe Day School Committee Minutes. Sept. 4th 1829.

The purposes of charities were designated by the Statute of Charitable Uses of 1601 and extended to not only provision for the poor but to the repairs of bridges, ports, havens, causeways, churches, seabanks and highways. But by 1860 the funds were mainly used for almshouses, for education, for the clergy, for the benefit of the poor generally and for supplying the poor specifically with bread, money, coals or blankets, for paying apprenticeship fees, or for loans; and for the repair of churches roads and bridges.¹ As far as education was concerned there were three sorts of provision, one where the child was taught, clothed and lodged, which usually applied to grammar schools, secondly where the child was taught and clothed as usually occurred with the bigger charity schools like the Blue Coats, and thirdly where the child was only taught, which was the case with the great majority of endowments. Almost 40 per cent of the charitable endowments for education brought less than £5 per annum in income.² This £5 per annum would of course require an initial investment of usually over £100, for the custom seems to have been to put the money in government stock which gave a low yield with no risk, so the fact that so many of the endowments were bringing incomes of less than £5 per annum is understandable. Also understandable is that most of the endowments were only for teaching and not for boarding and clothing. The large

1. Newcastle Commission. Vol.IV. p.273.

2. See Appendix. 5.

endowments listed by The Newcastle Commission would be in almost every case for the major "Public Schools" of the time and elementary education would benefit from the multitude of small ones. The County Durham charities for education are very similar in distribution to the charities for the whole country. The Commission give about 75 per cent of the charities generating less than £20 a year in income, while my figure for the County Durham charities is 79 per cent.¹

It is interesting to see how the amount of charitable endowment is related to population as it had been in previous centuries. By 1850 the charities appeared to be scattered indiscriminately over the country, but on consideration it appears that the more populous areas of the sixteenth, seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, and especially the last two centuries, are the areas where charities are most numerous. The industrial changes of the post 1750 period saw large migrations of population and the new areas of industrial potential which were beginning to become more populated "often remained comparatively unprovided."² Suffolk, for instance, which had a population of 337,215 by the 1851 Census, had charities of all kinds worth £29,948. 13s.5d. and educational charities worth £4,430.5s.8d. at this date, while Durham with a population of 390,997 had only £21,348.1s.0d. worth of charities of all types and educational charities worth only £1757.0s.1d.³

1. *ibid.*
2. Newcastle Commission. Vol.1. p.457.
3. *ibid.* Vol.IV. p.276.

The former county had had a considerable emigration of agricultural workers while the latter had had a rapid increase in population after 1800. Lincoln, in 1851, with a population similar to Durham's had charities worth £36, 096.10s.4d and educational charities worth £11,964.13s.11d.

The Blue Coat Schools of Stockton, Darlington and Durham were the principal schools providing clothing besides free education, but they were by no means the only schools which had an endowment for education plus clothing. The Wheeler charity at Houghton provided £20 per annum for the clothing of girls who wore the typical blue uniform but who attended the Barrington School later. The Crewe endowment for clothing at Bishop Auckland is still received today by the Barrington School there. At Hartlepool, Crooks's Charity provided £5 per annum for books, shoes, stockings and shirts but where the exact amount for each was not specified it often happened that the money was applied after a number of years purely for educational purposes, in the above case presumably for books.¹ One can read, for instance, of the Wright charity at Sedgfield which originally provided for education and clothing, only being used for education. The Charity Commissioners in 1829 recommended that thirty shillings out of the total income of £12 per year, should be used for clothing as the Wright will demanded. Similarly at Grindon, the Fleetham charity was to be applied to the schooling, clothing or putting out of poor children to apprenticeships, and here again the trustees would probably

1. For a list of charities see Appendices 1,2 and 3.

have the discretion as to how much was to be applied to each. At nearby Stranton however, Fulthorpe's charity left £8 per annum definitely for costs, shoes and hats. The Donnison Charity at Sunderland left only the surplus for clothing after the demands for education had been met. In some cases the whole charity seems to have disappeared before 1800. The Commissioners found no trace of any payment having ever been made in the case of the Tempest charity at Lanchester where in 1785 Elizabeth Tempest left two guineas in augmentation of her sister's £6 a year bequest for the education and clothing of poor children in Lanchester. On occasions certain restrictions were imposed on the length of time that a child could receive the charity. When John Smirke left an edowment for Lanchester children he specified that no child could hold the charity for longer than two years. Although this sort of specification seems to be rare, it is more than likely that the managers of the charity would try to share out the benefits of the charity among the many needy children. This sharing occurred with the Lowther charity at Sedgfield where the best attenders at Sunday School were given the charity. At Whickham, three charities were applied to clothing besides education—the Blackiston and Thomlinson, the Marshall and the Bowes charities, although each was only for one or two children. Most of the above charities were instituted in the eighteenth century, only the Fletcher and Smirke charities belonging

to the early years of the nineteenth century.¹ Even the Blue Coat Schools did not clothe all of their pupils in the 19th Century. As the school became better-known more pupils applied to enter the school and in the 18th Century the schools began to take children who were non-Charity children, that is children who were not to be educated and clothed free. The Durham School was split into two sections about 1810, the charity section with 50 boys and 50 girls and a general section where the children had to pay a penny a week,² although both groups of scholars were taught as two distinct groups. Vacancies in the Blue Coat section were to be filled by children from the other part of the school while frequent absenteeism on the part of charity scholars resulted in relegation to the general school.³ So much did the Blue Coat School grow in the early part of the 19th Century that by 1844 391 boys and 236 girls were being educated there and the charity scholars became less significant. Indeed the clothing of the children began to lose its importance as part of the charity. In 1851 the clothing was limited to shoes, stockings and underclothes and the last recorded distribution of clothing was in 1871 by Headmaster Fish.⁴

The administration of the charitable funds was usually

1. For details of the above paragraph see the relevant charities in the Charity Commissioners' Reports 1819-1837 or the charities under parish headings in Fordyce op.cit.
2. R. Chadwick. op.cit. p.12.
3. ibid. p.13.
4. ibid. p.6.

in the hands of one or more trustees, but in many cases this power of administration meant no more than ensuring that the yearly dividend was paid to the master or to the managers of the school which was to benefit from the endowment. It occasionally happened that the master did not know from whom he was to receive the money. The Stainton charity passed through many hands. "In 1780 when the present master was appointed, he received £7.7s. yearly as interest, first from Mr. Colling, and afterwards from George Allan the elder, upon whose death George Allan the younger paid the interest until he went to reside abroad seven or eight years ago. After he left the country Mr. Allan's sister paid the interest for two or three years, when she died; and after her death the interest was paid for one half year by her nephew Captain Wright, who referred the schoolmaster to Mr. Allan himself, then resident in France, for future payments."¹ It is no wonder that charities disappeared. The Blue Coat Charity at Darlington which amounted to £900 was lent to George Allan on bond dated 22nd August 1729 and the value was increased to £1280 by further saving. An appeal to the Court of Chancery was necessary to recover the money from the representatives of the above George Allan in 1800. Then the money was invested in 3% Consols and control was vested in new trustees.² Robert Noble's legacy of the 20th May 1719 to the Darlington Blue Coat disappeared altogether - "We do not find that this sum of forty shillings was ever

1. Report of Charity Commissioners 1819-1837. See See Stainton-le-Street.
2. *ibid.* under Darlington.

paid" said the Commissioners. At Chester-le-Street Ralph Redhead bequeathed £400 in 1792 to the charity school but this was not received until the trustees instituted proceedings against the benefactor's executors in 1800, the executors then being obliged to pay interest for every year after Redhead's death.¹ There are similar accounts of lost charities at Tanfield, where Robert Robinson's rent-charge fell into the hands of a person who became insolvent and at Staindrop where the bond was lost by a Thomas Papillon. When the Commissioners inspected the Donnison charity at Sunderland, they found £2,614.7s.7d. in 3 per cent Consols but in their opinion this did not represent the whole of the stock "which had been so purchased" and further inquiries were instituted.² A more unusual example occurred at Ryton; there the Walker Lawson charity worth £160 was cashed and lent to the parish - a sum of £97.16s. - with the understanding that it would be repaid within three years to be again used for the benefit of the poor and the school, but the Commissioners in 1829 found that the money had not been replaced. The rector and two landowners of the parish subscribed the requisite amount relying on the parishioners to pay the money back to them.³ The parish priest had to intervene at Middleton-St-George, in much the same way, to assist the master at the charity school who had rebuilt the school and school-room at a personal cost of nearly £100. The priest organised a subscription to reimburse the master.

1. *ibid.* Under Chester-le-Street.

2. Quoted in Fordyce, *op.cit.* Vol. 2 p.452.

3. *ibid.* Vol.2. p.666.

The trustees were generally men of some wealth and frequently the parish priest was appointed as the man who was on hand to supervise the administration. Six freeholders were appointed trustees of the John Hinks charity at Frosterley. The Greswold charity at Gainford was invested in Consols. In the names of the Earl of Darlington and R.E.D. Shafto. At Lanchester Mr. Allan Greenwell who lived at a mansion at "The Ford", and the curate, the Reverend Robert Dent, were nominated as trustees of the Clavering charity. Occasionally the money was placed in the Backhouse Bank for safe keeping and the interest was paid annually by them to the schoolmaster or the school as in the case of the Donald and Hubbock charities at West Auckland. The advantage of the Backhouse Bank was that it was local and renowned as a safe private bank at a time when private bank failures could be numbered in hundreds. "As safe as a Jonathan", a common saying the North East in the 19th Century, characterises the strength of the concern. Dr. Hartwell, Rector of Stanhope, who left, by his will of the 9th March 1724, a considerable charity, appointed as executors the Dean and Chapter of Durham and if needed the Mayor and Corporation of Durham City. His successors as rector had the right to appoint the masters and pupils.

The position of the master of a charity school involved legal problems. It was extremely difficult to remove a master who was paid the charity direct and many wills stated that a certain sum of money was to be paid to the schoolmaster

each year with no reference to appointment or dismissal. So much so, that the Newcastle Commission said that "masters of endowed schools have practically a freehold in their office and receive the income of the charity without reference to the amount of their exertions,"¹ and that such masters often discourage attendance. There appears to be little doubt that "the difficulty of removing masters of endowed schools whatever their character or inefficiency, is an evil."² In 1829 the Charity Commissioners found that George Newby master at Witton Grammar had received over £137 from charities over a ten year period and during this time had never taught any children on account thereof, but had paid the parish clerk, Richard Fothergill, £92.14s. for teaching the children at the village school. When Mr. Newby refused to accept six poor boys into the Grammar School in September 1824 he said he was not bound to accept the boys under the terms of the will. The Commissioners advised the surviving trustee to make arrangements for the appropriation of the funds and these were subsequently transferred to the village school.³ To see how difficult it was to remove an erring master even when the law seemed to be against him, we can look at the Jennison charity at Heighington. Elizabeth Jennison had given the Bishop of Durham the power to remove the master for misconduct or neglect. In 1770 the Reverend Robert Blacklin was appointed master but in 1808 complaints were made against his conduct saying that he had neglected

1. Newcastle Commission. Vol.IV. p.271.

2. The words of the Rev. John Cundill, Vicar of St. Margaret's, Durham, to the Newcastle Commission. Vol. 2. p.427.

3. Fordyce. op.cit. Vol.1. p.619.

the children. A sentence of ejection was read in church but he ignored this and continued to receive the charitable funds for another two years. Threatened legal proceedings made him give up certain of the leasehold premises. It was not until 1829, however, that Blacklin finally agreed to give up his appointment and resign possession of the lands he held under the charity. And then it was only on condition "that he should receive £100 of the arrears of the rent charge immediately and £20 a year for his life."¹ The Rector of Stanhope had the right under the George Collingwood charity to remove the master at Boltsburn if necessary, as had the Rectors of Middleton and Stanhope to remove the master of Middleton for "default, neglect, immorality or crime."² It appears that this was never found necessary. County Durham certainly had nothing to compare with the case of nepotism in appointing masters that is cited by Mr. Joseph Lawson. He quotes a clergyman who appointed his son only thirteen years of age as second master in a grammar school at a salary of £70 a year.³

The only redress for maladministration of a charity was a chancery suit which was allowed by an act of 1812, but this course could prove costly in time and money. As so many charities were of only small value it is not surprising that this method was rarely adopted. Mr. Patrick Cumin regarded the Court of Chancery as incompetent or unfit

1. Fordyce. op.cit. Vol.1. p.532.

2. ibid.Vol. 2. p.62.

3. Newcastle Commission. Vol.2. p.427.

to deal "in an enlightened spirit" with the charitable foundations especially those which required new schemes.¹ All alterations in charities had to be placed before the Court which was the proper authority for enforcing the execution of the trusts. As early as 1818 there were discussions in Parliament as to what new powers should be given to the Charity Commissioners. The Lord Chancellor pointed out the danger of giving stronger powers to the Commission - "If the legislature did not protect to the utmost all honorary trustees in the execution of their trusts - if they were to be exposed to suspicious and vexatious inquiries into all the details of their duty - not one honourable man would be found in the kingdom to take upon himself the responsibility of a charitable trust."² The Commissioners had limited powers of enquiry but no independent power to enforce any of their wishes. Brougham's bill of 1818 set up the Royal Commission to make an inquiry concerning charities in England and Wales which reported between 1819 and 1837. In 1835 a permanent board to supervise charities was recommended but no action was taken till 1853. The permanent body set up was given powers by three Acts of Parliament 16 and 17 Vict.c.137, 17 and 18 Vict.c.124, and 23 and 24 Vict.c. 136, to inquire into charities, to receive annual returns, to advise and indemnify trustees in the execution of their duty, to certify to the Attorney General cases for the institution of legal proceedings and to authorize

1. Newcastle Commission. Vol.4. p.353.
2. Parliamentary Debates. House of Lords. May 27th 1818.

and expedite the removal and pensioning off of masters and mistresses of endowed schools by the trustees. New schemes for the application of charities had to be laid before Parliament in the annual report. By the Act of 1855 the Board and the Treasury appointed "The Official Trustees of Charitable Funds" who could act on behalf of any trust, allowing any trust to be transferred to this body. The only significant power of action that was granted was the dismissal of teachers and this did not apply to those in grammar schools. Mr. Cumin proposed to the Newcastle Commission that the Privy Council should take over the control of charities as it already had taken over control of elementary education to a certain extent since 1839.¹ Besides, the Privy Council had the inspectors necessary for supervision.

There were both good and bad charity schools, but the movement as a whole drew much criticism during the early 19th Century, criticism of masters and trustees, of bad appointments and of the educational conditions within the school. Had not Mr. Brougham pointed out that so great were the abuses of administration that three-quarters of the charitable funds in Berkshire were unaccounted for?² In the case of educational charities nepotism or ignorance on the part of the trustees could lead to the funds being left to the "halt, maimed, the drunken, even the idiotic as teachers."³ In the general account of charities, the

1. Newcastle Commission: Vol.1: p.479.
2. Parliamentary Debates. April. 27th 1818.
3. Newcastle Commission. Vol.2. p.335.

Newcastle Commission tells of the children being disorderly, dirty and unhappy looking, the educational material being given in an unpalatable form. Sometimes the children come to school on Monday to find the teacher absent - drunk. J.G. Cromwell confirms this when he states that he had known of several examples of gross drunkenness,¹ on the part of teachers of endowed schools. The Reverend R. Brown of Bishop Auckland gives a similar picture for his area. "I say that endowed schools for the working classes within my observation have been an evil. Such a school is generally nothing but a resting place for a ruthless and useless person; and if the teacher be not so at his appointment, he ordinarily becomes so in a short time."² This is to some degree understandable when many teachers thought they had a permanent endowment. But can we agree with Patrick Cumin who goes so far as to say that a bad endowed school was much worse than no school at all? Accepted that many endowed schools were really inefficient and badly administered, surely Cumin's statement is extremely antagonistic to the charity schools and to the valuable work done in some, if not the majority of schools in receipt of educational endowments. The standard achieved by a school depended on the ability and conscientiousness of the master. Durham Blue Coat School Boys was suffering from the lack of a first class teacher when the inspector visited

1. Reply of J.G. Cromwell, Principal of Bede College, to Newcastle Commission. Vol.2. p.427.
2. *ibid.* Vol.2. p.427.

it on the 7th May 1849. "There is little or nothing of real education here", he said.¹ But three years later a different inspector visited the school and gave it a good report.² The salary of the master had just been raised to £100 per annum and a new master had been appointed. William Goundry, who had been master in 1849, retired in 1850 and the committee decided they wanted a certificated master. On the 1st July 1850 Mr. John Sullivan was appointed but he retired after two years and Mr. James Reed of Hexham was appointed.³ The good charity schools could search for suitable masters and pay them well; the small charities could not do this and suffered accordingly. The outcome of any study into charities for educational purposes must rely on generalisations, which are unsatisfactory where there is such a multiplicity of types and sizes, of bad and good schools, and of efficient and indifferent masters.

1. Minutes of Comm. of Council 1850/51. Vol.2. - see tabulated inspector's reports - F. Watkins.
2. ibid. 1852 report of D.J. Stewart.
3. R. Chadwick. Durham Blue Coat Schools. p.17.

Chapter 3.

Lord Crewe's Charity.

Nathaniel, son of John Crewe, was born January 31st 1633 at Steane, Northants. A precocious child, who could read the Bible fluently at six years of age, he was educated in turn by a private tutor named Henry Bishop in London, by a Mr. Azall at a school near Amersham and by the tutors of Lincoln College Oxford. Ultimately he became fellow of Corpus and later rector of Lincoln College. Moving into the Ministry he went through the hierarchy to become Bishop of Durham in 1674, aged 41. On November 30th 1697 Thomas Lord Crewe, Nathaniel's eldest brother died leaving the baronetcy to the Bishop who thereby had two entitlements to the House of Lords. There had been three brothers older than Nathaniel, but these three had died before 1697. Bishop Crewe's wife died on March 9th 1699 and within almost a year he married his second wife Dorothy Forster aged 27, daughter of Sir William Forster of Bamburgh Castle who was a considerable landowner. The Forster property, on Lord Crewe's death, was devoted to charity.¹ Lord Crewe died on September 18th 1721 at Steane and was buried there in the chapel where lay his two wives Penelope and Dorothy. His nearest relatives were children of his sister, the Countess of Sandwich, one of whom Dr. John Montagu, Dean of Durham was a trustee under his will. When Lord Crewe died, his personal property was only worth £400 but all the

1. The material for the preliminary paragraph is drawn from Nathaniel Lord Crewe by C.E. Whiting.

revenue from his extensive landed property were to be used for the church and the poor.¹

The Will, dated June 24th 1720, after providing for the expenses of the funeral and bequeathing some legacies to private friends, leaves the rest of the Lord Crewe property to five named trustees. "All the rest, residue and remainder of my personal estate whatsoever and wheresoever (if any) I do hereby give and bequeath unto the said trustees to be by them or the major part of them applied and disposed of to and for such Charitable use and uses as they shall decide."² Some specific payments were stipulated in the Will, such as the £200 to Oxford University, the £100 to the Mayor and Corporation of Durham for apprenticing out poor boys³ and the payment to the schoolmaster at Bishop Auckland. Twenty pounds per annum was to be paid "to a schoolmaster to teach gratis thirty such poor boys of the parish of Bishop Auckland aforesaid to read and write (and who shall be taught for so long time and no longer) as the minister, churchwarden's and vestry of the said parish and their successors....." and also pay a further £30 "to and for the cloathing of thirty such poor boys as to be taught to read and write."⁴ Apart from the stipulated payments, the trustees had the freedom to decide how surplus funds were to be appropriated.

During the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries

1. Ibid. p.316. The Charity Commissioners 1819 - 1837 state that the personal property "appears not to have exceeded £500 or £400.
2. Lord Crewe's Will - copy in the Prior's Kitchen, Durham Cathedral.
3. Lord Crewe's Will.
4. Minutes of the Lord Crewe Trust, date June 1732.

Bamburgh Castle became the headquarters of the charities of Lord Crewe. Dr. John Sharp, Archdeacon of Northumberland became a trustee in 1758 and began to apply, with the sanction of the other trustees, much of the charitable funds to the establishment and maintenance of schools. Payments towards schools were given in the early years; for instance, in 1732, the trustees gave an annual grant of "four pounds to be yearly paid and applied to the use and benefit of a school at Westgate."¹ Through the work of Dr. Sharp part of Bamburgh Castle was used as a school, supported in the main by the Crewe Trust. All poor children of Bamburgh were admitted free, and the master of the boys school and the mistress of the girls school were accommodated in the castle. By 1850 there were thirty boarders at the school, selected by the trustees, and given lodging and clothing free.² From this centre at Bamburgh, where for a large portion of the year Dr. Sharp had resided in order to be able to administer the trust more efficiently, judicious management resulted in an increase in the income of the trust, up to £9000 per annum by 1850.³

Between 1800 and 1850 the funds from the Crewe Trust were applied in a variety of ways. We can read in the minute books and order books of payments made to the distressed Irish (£100 on the 19th of July 1822), to the widow of a

1. Minutes of the Lord Crewe Trust, date June 1732.
2Fordyce. History of Durham. Vol.1.p.164.

3 Whiting gives this figure, The Charity Commissioners 1819 - 1837 give £8126.8.8d. See Appendix 8.

Dorsetshire clergyman (£100 on the 30th of July 1823), to the English Established Churches of Canada (£100 on the 3rd of November 1824), to the S.P.C.K. (£100 on September 27th 1827), and of payments for the relief of cholera, for bridge building, for repair of churches, for setting out apprentices, for augmenting priests' salaries and innumerable others. The amount granted for educational purposes appears to have been somewhere in the region of onethird of the total expenses. Out of an average annual expense of £5,452.19.3 for the three years up to 1829, £1925.5.11d. was the average amount granted for education purposes but about £500 of this was used for the maintenance and running of the schools at Bamburgh and Blanchland.¹ By 1829, £263.5.0d. was being paid to schools in yearly payments of usually less than £10 per school, but some payments were made to schools outside County Durham. County Durham schools received annually about £178 with Whitburn, Aycliffe, Washington and Easington receiving £10 per annum and the lowest sum going to Eastgate - £4.² Most of these payments were made to the schoolmaster through the parish priest who was guardian of the annuity. In January 1814, for instance, £5 per annum was granted to the schoolmaster at Seaton Carew provided the school be conducted under the direction of the Vicar of Stranton.³ Indeed in the previous year the trustees had resolved that an enquiry be made by letter

1. See Appendix 7.

2. See Appendix 6 for list of payments made in 1829.

3. Lord Crewe Trust. Minute Book, date January 1814.

to the parish priests concerning schools helped by the Trustees as to whether the schools were properly conducted and whether the children were instructed in the church catechisms and educated in the principles of the established Church.¹ Usually before any payments were made the trustees demanded that the master who was to be the recipient of the money was to belong to the Church of England. On March 28th 1803 the first annual payment was made to the Sadberge master "provided he be a Protestant and attend Divine Service with his scholars on Sunday."² These annual payments continued to increase in number and amount in the early 19th Century, so much so that a special fund had to be instigated. By 1818, £144 a year was being expended on schools besides the sums specifically designated under Lord Crewe's will, and as the Trustees were aware that applications for further assistance would increase, it was agreed "that £100 shall be laid out in the purchase of £3 per cent. annuities for every £5 per year which shall in future be granted towards the support of any school and that the amount of purchases so made be kept by the Treasurer separately under the head of School Fund."³ On occasions schoolmasters who found themselves in financial quandaries successfully appealed to the Trustees for assistance. In 1817 a Mr. Knight, schoolmaster, was granted £20 to relieve his "present necessities" and moreover he was informed that if this

1. *ibid.* July 1813.
2. *ibid.* March 28th 1803.
3. *ibid.* 4th September 1818.

proved insufficient, upon a renewed application his case would be reconsidered.¹ The schoolmaster at Washington, who had retired, was shown the appreciation of the Trustees by a grant of £5 per annum for life.² These instances are not very frequent, nor are the payments made outside the Durham Diocese. An application for assistance from Pontefract for a school there was rejected by the Trustees who stated that they were not in the habit of subscribing to the building of schools outside the Diocese of Durham,³ yet a few months later a grant of £20 was made to a Mr. Gardiner, schoolmaster, who was in great distress with his family of ten children at Lidney Park, Gloucestershire.⁴

Occasional sums were donated towards the erection of school buildings. It is difficult to say what would be an average yearly expenditure by the Trustees on school buildings. In the early years of the 19th Century there was less building than there was as the century moved on. The 1830s and 1840s saw a rapid increase in the number of schools being built, thus there was a tendency for the amount granted per year to increase as the century progressed. Moreover a particularly large grant would upset our picture of the average. In 1821, for instance, the Reverend Robert Gray received £250 towards the purchasing of a building for a charity school at Sunderland.⁵ In 1815 a grant of £500

1. *ibid.* January 22nd 1817.
2. *ibid.* June 2nd 1821.
3. *ibid.* February 20th 1821.
4. *ibid.* June 2nd 1821.
5. *ibid.* February 20th 1821.

was made towards the cost of erecting a school and chapel at South Shields. These large grants were not typical of the building donations by the Crewe Trustees. Much more common were the gifts up to £50 made fairly frequently, not only for the building of a school but also for repairs and for fittings. The following are some examples of these payments taken from the minute books of the Trust:-

Heighington	£30	dated Feb. 3rd. 1812.
Easington	£30	dated July 1813.
Haughton	£30	dated Aug. 11th 1814.
Bishopton	£30	dated Aug. 11th 1814.
South Shields (plus chapel)	£500	dated Jan. 16th 1815.
Barnard Castle	£50	dated Sep. 28th 1815.
Heworth	£40	dated Sep. 28th 1815.
Satley	£50	dated Aug. 19th 1816.
Thorp	£5	dated Jan. 22nd 1817.
Darlington	£30.15.6.	dated Sep. 4th 1818.
Winlaton	£90	dated Sep. 4th 1818.
Witton-le-Wear	£20	dated Feb. 2nd 1819.
South Shields (fittings)	£50	dated Aug. 7th 1819.
Dunston	£50	dated Aug. 7th 1819.

These grants were made to assist in the building or fitting out of schools. The Lord Crewe Trustees did not attempt to finance the building of the school alone, but expected local subscribers to furnish a good proportion of the funds themselves. The Haughton-le-Skerne school, quoted above, was built in 1815 on the glebe land, with the consent of the bishop at a total cost of £368.17s.¹ Towards this total cost the Crewe Trust gave £30, while the Durham Schools Society contributed £50, the Bishop himself £50 and the Reverend T. Le Mesurier £30, and several others gave grants not much smaller. After 1820, as the number of petitions for assistance towards the cost of building

1. Fordyce. History of Durham. Vol.1. p.518.

increased, the Trustees demanded that any such petition should be accompanied by a detailed list of all subscriptions made by others towards the building of the school.¹

The management and administration of the Crewe Trust in the first half of the 19th Century was similar to that of the Diocesan Schools Society. Bishop Barrington played an active part in both, being a fairly regular attender at the meetings. The Trustees met usually once a month and on many occasions there were only two members present. Nevertheless the trust was efficiently administered; there is ample indication in the minutes that the greatest of care was taken over the utilisation of the Crewe funds. Under the apprenticeship scheme dated 8th December 1820 each applicant was to have attended a Church of England school for at least three years and had to furnish a certificate showing attendance and ability in religious knowledge and the 3 Rs. In 1841 the Reverend John Cundill was asked to inspect the schools assisted by the Crewe Trust. There was nothing to indicate laxity in administration. The same leading church dignitaries were responsible for the organisation of the Diocesan Schools Society; the parish priests supervised the day to day working of the schools and reported their findings to the two charitable bodies. Much the same sort of religious demands were made of master and children by the Society and the Trust.

1. Lord Crewe Trust Minutes, dated Dec. 8th 1820.

The charitable bequests made by Lord Crewe played a significant part in the history of education in County Durham from 1720 onwards, although the relative importance has dwindled as the cost of education provision has increased, and as other larger bodies such as the National and British and Foreign Schools Society have taken the field, themselves to be superseded by positive State action. Between 1800 and 1850, and especially in the earlier decades of that century, the Crewe Trust was one of the main sources of funds for education. The Crewe Charity had an income of approximately £8,000 in 1829¹ and was thus by far the greatest charity in the County.

1. See Appendix 8.

Chapter 4.

Bishop Barrington's Charities.

Shute Barrington, born 26th May 1734, was the youngest son of Lord Barrington, who died the same year of injuries received by being thrown out of a carriage. Shute Barrington's education was carefully supervised by his guardians, and in due course he became a scholar of Eton and then in 1752 he entered Merton College Oxford. Soon after obtaining his first degree he was ordained. Favoured by the young George III, he became royal chaplain and Canon of Christ Church. In 1769 he was advanced to the see of Llandaff and a year later acquired considerable property on marrying his second wife, the only daughter of Sir. J. Guise of Rendcombe in Gloucestershire. On the death of the Bishop of Salisbury in 1781 George III insisted that "his bishop", as he was in the habit of calling Barrington, should be promoted to this rich see. On the bishop's palace at Salisbury, Barrington expended a good deal of money but apart from his own comforts he invested six thousand pounds in aid of the almshouses attached to the cathedral and also set up a fund of two thousand pounds, the interest to be used to assist poor clergy of the city. When Barrington was translated to Durham in 1791 the lucrative position he was given enabled him to display fully this generous spirit and this he did for the remainder of his long life. He died on the 25th March 1826 in his ninety-second year.

During his time as Bishop of Durham, Shute Barrington took an active interest in the promotion of elementary

education in his diocese. The period during which he reigned was one of enlightenment inasmuch as education was concerned; during the eighteenth century the value of a moral and religious education had been shown as a means of quelling revolutionary spirits and training the poor to accept the position into which God had placed them. Moreover a sound doctrinal education in the Church of England faith was a good anti-Papist potion. An instructed and intelligent people were thought to be more orderly and civilised than the ignorant and less intelligent. These ideas on education had been fostered by the S.P.C.K. and the Evangelical Movement in the 18th Century, and with the emergence at the beginning of the 19th Century of the monitorial system, which provided an economical means of supplying education to the masses, the scene was set for a vast increase in educational provision. It is not remarkable, then, that one of the leading Church figures should take positive action in providing elementary education.

Bishop Barrington played an active role in the Diocesan School Society and in the administration of the Crewe Trust funds. He gave not only his name as patron but gave much of his time to supervise these funds for education; he was President of the former and attended meetings of both the Society and the Trust. Bishop Barrington was a close friend of Sir Thomas Bernard and Dr. Andrew Bell both of whom were pioneers in education and in the promotion of the welfare of the poorer classes. In 1809 the Bishop granted the office of Master of Sherburn Hospital to Dr.

Bell who in return supervised the institution of many schools in the diocese during Barrington's reign. Barrington was in the habit of appointing distinguished people to the livings in the county; the rich living at Bishopwearmouth was given to Dr. Paley the author of "Natural Theology", and when he died he was replaced by Dr. Gray the author of the Key to the Old Testament. These are but two examples from several. Barrington appeared to like having intellectual people around him.

Bell was the instigator of the monitorial system, which he had used while in Madras and his methods were applied in most of the schools which came under the auspices of the Established Church. Born the son of a barber of St. Andrews he was able to leave on his death £10,000 to his native city, besides a sum of £50,000 for the building of a new college there.¹ Sir Thomas Bernard was a distinguished barrister who was treasurer of the Foundling Hospital in London and friend of Wilberforce. He was largely responsible for the establishment of the "Society for Bettering the Condition and Increasing the Comforts of the Poor" to which Bishop Barrington was elected President. Barrington, Bernard and Bell came together in the projection of the school at Bishop Auckland, still known today as the Barrington School.

When Barrington was appointed to Durham, the agent of the Beaumont Mining Company had met the Bishop and got an

1. Fordyce. op.cit. Vol.I. p.409.

agreed rent of £900 per annum for the land on which they mined. The Bishop later was advised to bring a case in the Court of Chancery against the Beaumonts as the £900 did not represent a true value of the lease, £4000 being nearer the mark. After some time, a compromise was reached by which the Bishop received about £60,000.¹ The Bishop is said to have declined the use of this money for himself, but set it aside for the benefit of poor clergymen and their families and also for the provision of education.² It is difficult to say whether any of this money was put to personal use, but certainly some of it was used for education.

In 1808 the Bishop purchased land in Bishop Auckland from Sam Reay and his wife Ann for £250, and on it built the "Barrington School" at a cost of £2,250. The Bishop laid the first stone himself in September 1808 but it was May 26th 1810 before the school was opened. At the opening Dr. Bell preached the inaugural sermon.³ The Crewe school at Bishop Auckland was absorbed by the new school and the master of the Grammar School was appointed to the more lucrative post of head of the Barrington. This new school became not only a model for other schools to copy, but also a training ground for teachers. It was not uncommon for masters from other schools to be sent to the Barrington School for instruction on how to teach. Such was the

1. See account in Charity Commissioner's Reports
1819-1837.

2. M. Ritchley. History of Bishop Auckland.

3. J.L. Dobson. The Barrington School at Bishop Auckland.

position and power of the Barrington master that in 1820 he was asked to inspect the Weardale Schools, after which he was so bold as to recommend that the masters of Stanhope, St. John's Chapel and Westgate Schools be sent to the Barrington School for instruction.¹ Each teacher's weekly reward was sixpence on Friday if his class had done well; monitors were paid twopence on the same consideration.² Yet Ritchley, the Bishop Auckland historian, who was a pupil there in the early years, says that the education offered was of a meagre character, he himself having been taken there at the age of six, having passed through all of the classes, become a teacher, taught four classes and left school before he attained the age of eleven years. Reading, writing and arithmetic with some Church catechism was all the education he received, yet this must have been far more than was received in other schools.

The cost of running this school was met by income from some of the £60,000 which was invested by the Bishop. The Charity Commissioners say that £30,000 was laid out in 3 per.cent. reduced annuities to provide a regular income. It appears that the cost of maintaining the school must have been in the region of £300 per year. The following is an account of expenditure for the year 1826.³

1. Minutes of the Weardale Schools Committee. June 5th 1820.
2. Sir. Thos. Bernard. The Barrington School p.78.
3. Charity Commissioners Reports 1819 - 1837.

Master's Salary	£100.	0.	Od.
Assistant's Salary	23.	2.	Od.
Housekeeper's Salary	27.	0.	Od.
Allowance for Board	56.	15.	Od.
Servants Wages and Coals	19.	12.	3½.
Stationery	10.	9.	Od.
Repairs	22.	4.	3d.
Rewards and Presents	13.	12.	3d.
Medical Assistance	2.	9.	Od.
Insurance	2.	5.	Od.
Clothing	7.	14.	6d.
Sundries		16.	4½

£285. 19. 8d.

This expense was met entirely out of the fund set aside by Barrington until about 1840 when twopence a week began to be charged from all scholars except the Crewe scholars.¹ The fees would only alleviate the heavy annual expense slightly. If we assume about 180 paying scholars² this would only realise about £60 per year. Sir Thomas Bernard had recommended fee paying as an incentive to efficiency before the school was opened but his idea had been rejected.³

Bishop Barrington had been made the recipient of certain charitable funds by an Act of Parliament, 41, Geo. III. This Act for enclosing certain moors in the townships of Framwellgate and Witton Gilbert, and in the manors of Chester and Lanchester, left one forty-eighth part of the lands, and one twenty-fourth part of their value to the Hon. and Right Rev. Shute, Lord Bishop of Durham and his successors,

1. H.R. Lacey. The Barrington School. p.16.
2. Charity Commissioners state 182 scholars in attendance in 1828.
3. Letter of Sir T. Bernard to Bishop Barrington quoted by Dobson. op.cit.

as lords of the said manors; by another Act of the same session the said twenty-fourth was vested in the bishop as trustee for the establishment and maintenance of schools for the religious and virtuous education of poor children of the county and became known as the County School Fund. The government of such schools was to be vested in the bishop as president, the lord lieutenant of the county, two knights of the shire and such other persons as should, within six months after the passing of the Act, become subscribers. It was found that the income from this land grant was insufficient for the setting up of schools so an Act 3, Geo. IV allowed the money to be used for existing schools. In 1830 the revenue from these lands only came to £83.6s.8d. and so it was applied in sums of from £5 to £100 for the maintenance of schools already in existence through the Diocesan School Society. Fifty pounds was given, for example, in 1824 by Bishop Barrington towards the school at Thornley (Tow Law).¹ It is recorded that the Bishop personally gave £100 towards the National School which was founded in 1814 at Barnard Castle² and £20 to the school at Bishopton which was erected in 1813.³ Other contributions he also made at various times to Dunston where a school was erected in 1818, to Stockton Blue Coat, to the Weardale Schools and to a school at Washington. At

1. Fordyce. op.cit. Vol.1 p.644.

2. ibid. Vol.II. p.27.

3. ibid. Vol.II. p.233.

Haughton-le-Skerne the Bishop granted land on the glebe for the building of a schoolroom while he personally gave £50 towards the cost of the building.¹ Sadberge school received £20 from the Bishop² while the master at Midridge was granted £10 per annum by Barrington.³

In the year 1819 it became apparent to the Bishop of Durham that the London Lead Company was intent upon establishing a school at Stanhope similar to the two it had already built at Nenthead and Middleton-in-Teesdale. Fearing the possible establishment of dissenting centres in the relatively densely populated area of Weardale, the Bishop intervened to build or initiate several schools in the river valley. Barrington was worried about the moral training provided in the schools associated with the Quaker Lead Company. Thus he set aside £2,000 with which he bought £2,957. 9s. 8d. worth of 3 per cent. Consols. The dividends from these were to be added to other charities in Weardale to be applied for promoting moral and religious education in the valley. In 1819 the Bishop purchased land from Joseph Harrison at Wearhead, from George Collingwood at Boltsburn, from George Humble at Heathery Cleugh and from Cuthbert Rippon at Stanhope. On each of these parcels of land schools were to be built at a total cost of about £2,000.⁴ The school at Westgate, which had developed under

1. Fordyce. op.cit. Vol.1. p.518.

2. *ibid.* Vol.1. p.520.

3. *ibid.* Vol.1. p.571.

4. For an account of this Barrington charity see the Charity Commissioners' Reports 1819 - 1837.

the Bainbridge charity, was improved by Barrington but this proved unsatisfactory and a new building was erected to replace the old one in 1833.¹ The existing charity school at St. John's Chapel was replaced, as was the one at Eastgate. Thus there were seven schools under Barrington's guidance in Weardale. In July 1820 regulations were drafted for the New School Committee which was to be managing body of these Barrington Schools. The committee met every first Friday of the month and two members of the committee were to be appointed to each of the schools as inspectors, Mr. C. Rippon and Mr. Little for Stanhope, for example. Inspection was to be carried out once a month. The master was ordered to attend school on Sunday to lead the children to the services. Fees were 1s.6d. per quarter payable in advance but twelve free scholars were allowed into each school and all workhouse children were to be allowed free.² All inhabitants of all denominations could use the schools. On July 7th 1820 masters were appointed to Westgate, Boltsburn, Eastgate and Wearhead, while on August 5th masters were appointed to the other three.³ Bishop Barrington seems to have left a great deal of the practical day-to-day administration to the Rector of Stanhope who was appointed secretary to the committee. The cost of maintaining these seven schools must have been quite considerable, the salaries

1. Minutes of Weardale Schools Committee dated May 17th 1833.
2. Regulations of New School Committee - in Durham County Record Office.
3. See Minutes of Weardale Schools Committee of those dates.

of the seven masters costing £325 per year in the early years of the new schools.¹ The salaries were based on the number of pupils the school should hold, and the charity only paid the difference between this amount and the salary which was fixed at either £45 or £50. The disposal of the funds which fell to the Weardale Schools was left entirely to the Schools Committee and was collected and administered by the treasurer who was usually one of the Stanhope curates. Thus an efficient administrative machine had been set up for the Weardale Schools sponsored by Barrington. Yet the minutes of the committee are marked by trouble -

July 2nd 1824. George Clish sacked. Scholars constantly absent. Boltsburn.

Oct. 14th 1830. Thos. Fleming ejected. Drunk frequently. St. John's Chapel.

July 1848. £2 withheld from salary of Thos. Page till he replace the articles of school furniture and a door which are now missing. Wearhead.

Oct. 2nd. 1857. Thos. James dismissed for drunkenness and disorderly conduct. Westgate.

Nevertheless the education provided in these schools must have been satisfactory in most cases. We can read of cases of mathematical instruments being provided for each school (5th March 1841) and of a retired schoolmaster, Mr. Coulson, being provided with a pension of £10 per annum for his services to Eastgate School (25th December 1835), where he had been master for upwards of forty years.

1. See the appointment dates above in the Minutes.

Regular inspection of the children would make certain that standards were maintained. Examinations were to take place quarterly in front of committee members.

Some saving in the expenses of maintaining the school was made by not only demanding fees from the children but also making the pupils provide their own paper and pens. Some of the masters went further and required the children to furnish fuel for lighting and also brooms ^{to} sweep the school; if these were not provided by the children then the children were charged for them. This action on the part of some of the masters was beyond the powers granted them by the committee, and on hearing of it the committee resolved that the children be freed from this burden.¹

Bishop Barrington lived only another six years after his Weardale Schools were set up. He died on March 25th 1826 in London but his munificence continued after his death. By his will dated December 10th 1825 he bequeathed £3,000 to be applied to the erecting a school or schools for the instruction of the poor according to the Madras System or for otherwise promoting that benevolent purpose in a manner the trustees should deem most proper. £300 was paid in legacy duty; £2,000 was invested in 3½ per cent. stock, while the remaining £700 was used in sums of £50 to £100 for the purposes mentioned in the will. By 1829, when the Charity Commissioners reported, £500 of the £2,000 stock had been used in grants to schools and the trustees were

1. Minute of June 4th 1824.

prepared to accept applications for the remainder.¹ A codicil of the will dated the same day, December 10th 1825, bequeathed £40,000 the dividends from which were to be used in paying certain annuities to Ann Elizabeth Colberg, Ann Rainicott and Ann Franklin, and the remainder to be used to form a society to be known as "the Barrington Society for promoting Religious Education and Christian Piety in the Diocese of Durham." This society was principally concerned with erecting churches and assisting in the education of sons of the clergy at university level and so does not concern us here, except that it seems that towards the middle of the century the governors of the society, who were the Bishop and the Archdeacons of Durham and Northumberland, decided that the contents of the will allowed them to use some of the funds for the provision of schools. I can find no trace of any payments to County Durham schools but Fordyce mentions recent endowments (around 1850) to schools at Seghill and Walker in Northumberland. It is possible that payments were made to more Durham schools as the century progressed.

An assessment of the monetary value of Barrington's work is almost bound to be inaccurate to some degree. There must have been grants and subscriptions made by the Bishop personally, for which there is no record.² We can see his work in the major societies and also in his will,

1. Charity Commissioners Reports 1819 - 1857.
2. An example of such a payment is recorded in the 1817 Report of the Diocesan School Society. The Bishop gave £100 to the Blue Coat School, Durham, after the Durham Bank failure of July 1815.

but only the discovery of further material in the parish records will provide extra detail. The value of Barrington's efforts for elementary education was immense; he bridged the gap between the eighteenth century charity schools and the beginnings of state intervention; he was a leading figure and pioneer of the early nineteenth century system of elementary education. His name is linked with various societies including the National Society and the Society for Bettering the Condition of the Poor at national level, but more important was the position he held in relation to the local societies, the Diocesan School Society and the Weardale Schools Committee. His support of the many schools under the National Society or the Diocesan School Society in County Durham must have been an important factor in determining their success. Not only his financial backing but his spiritual support tended towards the success of these schools. Moreover as he led, so his clergy followed, and they were the real administrators of the school, giving greatly of their time and money for the promotion of education. Bishop Barrington is the leading figure in County Durham between 1800 and 1825 insofar as elementary education is concerned. "Next to the exemplary discharge of the duties of a patron he was conspicuous in the eyes of the world by his princely munificence."¹ The Walker Directory for Durham City in

1. Article on Bishop Barrington - Durham County Advertiser. 1st April 1826.

1852 writing of Shute Barrington says that it was said that £100,000 would not exceed the amount of his benefactions. Such was the measure of this man's generosity, a large part of which was bestowed on educational work.

Chapter 5.

The National Society.

In September 1811 Dr. Marsh, afterwards Bishop of Peterborough, sounded the call to the Church to promote the Madras system in Church of England education in a Charity School Sermon at St. Paul's when he said, "The friends therefore of the Establishment throughout the kingdom are earnestly requested to associate and co-operate for the purpose of promoting the education of the poor in the doctrine and discipline of the Established Church." A preliminary meeting was called on the 16th October 1811 followed by the first general meeting on October 21st. The Archbishop of Canterbury was in the chair and became president, while the new society was called "The National Society for Promoting the Education of the Poor in the Principles of the Established Church throughout England and Wales."¹

The Society took over most of the charity schools which had been sponsored since the early days of the 18th Century by the S.P.C.K. and financial support was given immediately. The Universities of Oxford and Cambridge each gave £500² and within a month of the founding of the society £15,000 was subscribed. Within three years the Society had 360 schools under its auspices throughout the country, and approximately 60,000 children were being educated in them.³

1. Birchenough: History of Elementary Education p.42.
2. Barnard: A Short History of English Education p.67.
3. Report of the National Society 1814.

When the first half of the century came to a close, there were 291 Boards in England, 26 Diocesan and 265 District, affiliated to the Society, and they superintended a total of 9629 schools.

It was recommended, on the founding of the National Society, that auxiliary associations should be formed, which would be given pecuniary aid by the parent society, although these Boards were expected to aim at procuring their own funds and becoming self-financing. Funds from the National Society usually went for the provision of buildings, but assistance was also given in the acquisition of books and also of teachers. As a condition of grant, the National or Bell system of organization and teaching had to be adopted; children had to be instructed in the liturgy and catechism of the Church of England and attend regularly at Sunday services; no religious tract was allowed in the school unless it was contained in the S.P.C.K. catalogue; the schools were to be supervised by the parish priest; the masters and mistresses were to belong to the Church of England and each school had to report once a year either to the Diocesan Board or the National Society.¹

In the early part of the 19th Century the Church of England was the principal provider of the means for elementary education. Indeed she had such wealth, from the bishops down to the parish priest, she could well afford to give generously to the worthy cause of providing the means of educating the poor in the Church of England faith.

1. Report of the Nat. Soc. 1814.

Dr. Bell, as Rector of Swanage, received a stipend of £600 per annum. and then as Master of Sherburn Hospital one of double this amount. This represents a considerable income when one remembers that the Speenhamland Bread Scale was at the same time paying a single man a subsidy which raised his wage per week to three shillings when the gallon loaf cost one shilling. C.R. Fay gives the average wage for the rural labourer between 1795 and 1834 as varying between seven shillings and sixpence and twelve shillings and sixpence per week.¹ In comparison with present day wage structure Dr. Bell's salary must have been in the region of £25,000 per year in terms of the present value of money. Lord Wynford in a debate in the House of Lords in 1834 said "For the great mass of benefit which the country had derived from the diffusion of education, it was indebted to no other class of men save that much calumniated order, the clergy of the Church of England" but the Lord Chancellor replying illustrated how the amount subscribed to education depended on relative wealth, and indicated the differences in wealth between the priests of the Established Church and the Dissenting clergymen. "When a rich clergyman of the Church with an income of £3000 or £4000 a year spent his £40 a year in promoting education in his parish, the Dissenting clergyman with an income of barely £100 was often spending his £3 or £4 a year on the same object."²

1. C.R. Fay: Great Britain from Adam Smith to the Present Day.

2. Parliamentary Debates: House of Lords; April 16 1834.

It is well to remember this difference in wealth.

Every five years the National Society attempted to gather statistics on all Church of England schools, and every three years from those indirectly associated with the Society. This campaign was found to be almost impracticable and the returns most unreliable, until in 1846, with the encouragement of the Bishops who sent a letter to each member of the clergy asking for support and also with a grant of £500 from Her Majesty's Government, a detailed survey was carried out.¹ It is important to note that Church of England boarding schools as well as dissenting schools were omitted from this survey, yet from this statistical study one can gain much knowledge on National Society financing.

Between 1811 and 1847 the Society paid to schools in England and Wales the sum of £292,467, most of which was used for the purpose of erecting schoolrooms and teachers residences. This sum did not include the grants voted by Diocesan and District Boards which are accounted for so far as County Durham is concerned later in this chapter. The amount paid out by the National Society increased as the 19th Century moved on; up to 1838 a total of £104,332 was paid while from 1838 to 1847 (inclusive) the grants amounted to £188,135. Out of this grand total of £292,467 County

1. A General Inquiry made by the National Society into the state and progress of schools for the education of the Poor in the principles of the Established Church 1846/7.

Durham received £3935.¹ The growth in the amount granted indicates not only an increase in National Income and population but also a change in attitude especially among the many who had considered the bestowing of education on the labouring classes as inadvisable. "There have been many and still are some pious and conscientious Christians who dread the consequences of a general diffusion even of elementary knowledge" says one commentator in 1809.² Only a few voices cried out for universal education in the first decade of the century and one of these, that of Whitbread, in vain demanded that every parish should have a school where children between seven and fourteen should have the right to free education for two years.³ In this context, the 1833 Parliamentary grant to education represents a significant admission on the part of the government of the necessity of positive action to assist in the providing of elementary education and also a pointer to the changing climate of opinion. Gone was much of the apathy and mistrust of earlier decades.

The 1847 Survey by the National Society shows that there were approximately 150 schools in Durham united either to the parent society or to some Diocesan or District Board. Appendix 9 gives a list of these schools but there were no returns from seven of the County Durham parishes and besides

1. Extracted from the General Inquiry 1846/7.
2. A Digest of Reports of the Society for Bettering the Condition of the Poor 1809.
3. Parliamentary Debates - House of Commons. April 24. July 13 August 4. 1807.

there may be other inaccuracies in returns. A grant, for instance, is noted as having been paid to Tow Law Schools although these schools were still under construction at the time of the survey. Tow Law indeed grew from a single farmhouse in 1841 to a township of 2000 in 1851,¹ largely due to the growth of the ironworks, and undoubtedly the schools grew up as the town found the need for education for its children. Besides the Tow Law payment, grants were also made of £40 each to the Iveston and Castleside Schools, yet these schools, as far as can be ascertained, were not registered as National Schools.

There is some discrepancy, too, between the figures given by the National Society survey and the Reports of the Committee of Council. The Committee cite several payments supposedly made by the National Society to schools in Durham which are not shown in the 1846/7 survey; it would seem that the error lay on the side of the Society. In the 1843 Report of the Committee, £120 is said to have been paid to Stanley school and £150 to Witton besides £45 to Brandon. In 1844 the Report states that Sacriston received £50 while Sherburn Hill received £40. Moreover in 1846 St. Helen's Auckland got £60 and Ferryhill £50. These omissions, if the error is on the side of the Society need not worry us. The overall picture remains unaltered.

The median payment to the schools in County Durham was £80. Large grants were paid to the more densely populated areas such as Sunderland, Darlington, Gateshead and Stockton,

1. Fordyce. History of Durham. Vol.I. page 645.

these areas receiving totals of £480, £460, £285 and £300 respectively. There was no grant made payable to Hartlepool, another populated region, for it appears that the schools run on Church of England and National lines were in such a position as not to require assistance. The Prissick Schools, which educated about 250 children in 1850, were well endowed by the will of Elizabeth Prissick, dated December 30th 1826, which left property in South Terrace bringing in an income of £200 per year, a considerable amount which would obviate the need of applying to the National Society.¹ West Hartlepool was a barren shore until 1845 and the town grew only after the building of the docks in the 1840s. A National School was not proposed for West Hartlepool till 1854 when a subscription was begun to raise the estimated sum of £2400 needed to build the school. Thus, it is no surprise that Hartlepool was not blessed with Society funds before 1850. The grants from the parent society were spread across the county from Seaton Carew to Middleton-In-Teesdale, from Heworth Chapel to Cockerton, in varying amounts.

The 1847 Survey gives a total of 14,575 children being educated in National Schools in County Durham, but as this number contains some children who attended only on Sundays or on evenings only, an estimate of full-time students would give a figure of probably near 12,000. This is no insignificant effort, but one must remember that much

1. Fordyce. History of Durham.

financial support came from the government grant after 1833.¹ and a great deal more from private subscriptions and endowments and from the Diocesan Board. Out of the 138 schools connected to the Society in 1847 for which we have details, 50 were provided with endowments, yet all but one of these, Hunwick, had to rely on other means of support from subscriptions or children's payments. All but eleven of the schools had to depend partially or wholly on voluntary subscriptions from the neighbourhood in which the school was situated, while 135 out of 138 had to demand some payment from the children.

Method of Financing	Number of National Schools.
Endowment only	1
Subscription only	1
Payment of fees only	3
Endowment plus payment of fees	7
Endowment plus subscription	1
Subscription plus payment of fees	94
Endowment, payment of fees and subscription	31
Total	138

Table I

methods of financing National schools in County Durham in 1847.²

Only three of the schools were providing education free.

1. See Chapter 8.
2. Abstracted from General Inquiry 1846/7.

In the early years these schools were generally free, "though a few made a charge of a penny a week."¹ A sample of thirteen Church of England Schools for which Fordyce quotes fees indicates that one penny a week was the most common payment by children in the middle of the century. Seven of the thirteen schools charged a penny a week and only one school charged as much as threepence. This fee, though apparently low to us, must have been a limiting factor for a labourer with several children. Its significance cannot be over estimated.²

In 1823 the Society funds, which had been built on donations mainly from the clergy, were exhausted, and a Royal appeal for further support was addressed to congregations through the clergy. Further appeals followed in 1832 and 1837 and thereafter at three yearly intervals, the fund becoming known in Victoria's reign as the Queen's Letter Fund, the proceeds to be used primarily for the setting up of schools in "populous and manufacturing districts." Appendix 10 gives a list of collections made in the parishes of County Durham in response to the Queen's Letter of 1840. The total of £254..13s..3½d, in terms of the estimated school population in County Durham, represents a contribution of about sixpence for each child every three years. For the year 1816, it was estimated that it cost 4s..2d. for the year, exclusive of building charges to educate a child.³ A much higher figure is given by H.M.I. Mr. Watkins in 1846.

1. Birchenough: History of Elementary Education.p.44.
2. See Chapter 15.
3. Birchenough: History of Elementary Education p.43.

He gives the annual expense of educating each child in County Durham as 14s..6³d.¹

The National Society generally provided funds for new buildings but it only provided a small proportion of the total fund for the building, the grant usually being paid direct from the society to the schools. In the following statement on the sources of money for the erection of Seaton Carew School in 1843, it is interesting to notice the proportion subscribed by each body. This shows the

Table II

Sources of Funds the Erection Seaton Carew School. 1843.²

Source	Amount		
	£	s	d
Private Subscriptions	282	15	0
Committee of Council	115	0	0
National Society	120	0	0
Sale of School House and Parochial Property	110	0	0
Diocesan Board	25	0	0
Other Sources	20	0	0
	672	15	0

Society contributing approximately 18 per cent. For the erection of a schoolhouse at Coundon in 1841 the contribution was £50 out of £289,³ about 17 per cent. of the total. At Byers Green about 23 per cent. of the total cost of the building of the schoolhouse⁴ was paid by the Society while Wolsingham received only 12 per cent. of its total from the

1. Minutes of Committee of Council 1846. For comparisons see Appendix 11.
2. Minutes of Committee of Council 1843.
3. Minutes of Committee of Council 1841. Photograph in Folder.
4. Minutes of Committee of Council 1841.

Society.¹ These figures give some indication of what fraction of the total cost of buildings in National Schools was provided by the Society itself.

These grants may have been small relatively but the influence of the Church on these schools was by no means negligible. A vital role was played by the parish priest, whose responsibility it was to superintend and inspect the school; it was he who was usually appointed chairman or secretary of the school committee and he was the most active member in seeing that the school was run efficiently. The Rector of Stanhope seems to have been appointed without fail to the secretaryship or chairmanship of the flourishing Weardale Schools Committee which was founded in 1820.

Thanks were recorded in the minutes of this committee in April 1825 to the Reverend Dr. Phillpots of Stanhope "for his zealous attention to the interests of the Schools"² in Weardale and when one considers the type of teacher he and other parish priests had to contend with one can understand the gratitude of Weardale to its parish priest. We can read of the complaint against Thomas Flemming, master of St. John's Chapel School, for his "alleged practice of frequenting public houses" and the committee warn that "if not more circumspect in his conduct for the future, the Committee would proceed with his dismissal." He was not alone in this impropriety for the Committee also blame Mr.

1. Minutes of Committee of Council 1845.

2. Minutes of the Weardale Schools Committee April 8 1825.

Lonsdale, Stanhope Schoolmaster for "causing the intoxication of Fleming."¹ The Vicar of St. Nicholas, Durham City, has always had and still has close connection with the Blue Coat School which was founded in 1708 in Durham market-place. In 1848 the Reverend J.G. Cromwell complained of the school being conducted inefficiently and suggested the Reverend J. Cundill, the principal of Bede College, should be asked to visit the school to give advice.² This established a long-lasting link between college and school. Innumerable examples of the work done by the local clergy exist, but it is sufficient to realise that the parish priest acted as agent for the National Society, and without his active participation elementary education during the early 19th Century would have been in a state of inefficiency and waste especially in the Church of England sphere. Could it have descended to the level reached by the administration of the Poor Law before 1834? In the Poor Law, we had a contemporary institution in which public funds were blatantly mishandled. Education funds were better administered only because of the higher qualities found in the parish clergy. These people saw that public funds were giving some returns in the way of a better educated working class.

The Durham Diocesan School Society.

This Society for the Encouragement of Parochial Schools

1. Minutes of the Weardale Schools Committee. April 10 1829.
2. Chadwick: Durham Blue Coat School.

in the Diocese of Durham was founded in 1811¹ and from the start it was under the patronage of the Bishop and the superintendance of the parochial clergy. The general aim, as quoted in the 27th Annual Report was as follows:-

"The great and earnest object of the Society is to co-operate with the Parochial Clergy and Friends of Education within the Diocese of Durham.... to convey such information and offer such encouragement, as may most effectually advance the great work of sound Religious Education, which, they conceive, will both contribute to the present and future happiness of the rising generation and promote the honour of God, by increasing the number of his faithful servants."

The Committee pointed out that they did not wish to interfere in the running of the school and would only inspect when requested, but there were conditions demanded by the National Society of affiliated boards and the schools united with these boards. The schools had to accept the principles of the Established Church and the children had to attend some place of worship on Sundays. I was informed by Mr. King, headmaster of the Barrington School, at Bishop Auckland that the payment of the Crewe trust money to children depends today upon the presentation of a certificate of church attendance. The chit granted is for clothing.² The masters or mistresses of 'diocesan schools' had to belong to the Established Church and the parish priest was to be

1. Fordyce. History of County Durham.p.329 gives 1809 but other evidence indicates 1811.

2. See the Crewe Trust. Chapter 3.

the superintendent. Before any grant was made to a school, the governors had to show their intention of observing these regulations "a copy of which shall be transmitted to them for their signatures."¹

The Diocesan Board, besides providing grants for the erection of buildings, was prepared to assist in the acquisition of books for new schools which conformed to Society rules. These books were often provided gratuitously or on low terms. The Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge which was founded in 1825 had almost a monopoly in the buying of books and was thus able to force down the price of books by about 30 per cent.² It is possible, but I can find no evidence of it, that the National Society was able to take advantage of this bulk buying by the new society, although it must be remembered that the S.D.U.K. aimed principally at adult education and "to popularise science and general knowledge by the publication of instructive books at a low price."³

The schools affiliated to the Durham Diocesan Board were in Durham County and Northumberland with the exception of Alston School in Cumberland, which received £5 in 1832.⁴ The Board was principally interested in assisting schools financially in acquiring schoolrooms and also in acquiring masters and mistresses. Some schools indeed received considerable grants. Aycliffe, for instance, with a

1. Fordyce. Vol. I. p.329.
2. Lord Wynford's speech. Parliamentary Debates. House of Lords. April 16. 1834.
3. Barnard. A Short History of English Education p.80.
4. See Appendix 13 for list of payments to County Durham Schools.

population of only 1372 in 1841, received £156..3s..0d between 1814 and 1840 in 28 separate payments, but it must be remembered that the Reverend J.D. Eade M.A. Vicar of Aycliffe was secretary and general inspector of the Diocesan Board and apparently saw that his own house was put in order first. Washington, too, received more than one would have expected. The Washington School was given eleven grants totalling £199..1s..0d between 1814 and 1823 and its population in 1821 was only 1,243. The school was not large, for on the visit of the government inspector on April 29th 1853 there were only 64 boys and 28 girls present at examination and the average attendance during the preceding twelve months had been 43 boys and 35 girls. Moreover, the population of Washington scarcely altered between 1801 and 1851, it being 1,190 and 1,224 respectively, so it would appear that the school must have altered but slightly, if at all, during this period. The beneficence of the Diocesan Board may have been due to the influential persons who supported the school - "The school is principally supported by contributions from the Bishop of Durham, the Marchioness of Londonderry, Sir William Lawson and Lord Crewe's Trustees."¹ Sedgefield School was also backed by some influential persons and received £100 from the Diocesan Board in 1824 for a new school building. Lord Crewe's Trustees supported the school with £150; the executors of Bishop Barrington's will gave £300; the Barrington School Fund gave £200 and several other people, including the

1. Fordyce. History of Durham. Vol.II. p.740.

notables, William Russell and Mr. Salvin, gave donations of over £5.¹ With such support it is not surprising that the Board gave its assistance in such measure. Apart from these exceptions cited above it appears that the Diocesan Board gave grants to the more populous areas. Darlington received a total of £393..1s..4d. between 1812 and 1837, South Shields £227..5s..9d between 1817 and 1837 while Sunderland received £170 between 1822 and 1826. Of the sparsely populated areas Witton Gilbert benefitted to the extent of 19s..3d and Sunderland Bridge, Croxdale, with its school in the churchyard received £1..0s..0d.²

By studying some payments agreed to by the Board on January 10th 1850 at a meeting held in Bishop Cosin's Library, Durham City, with the Archdeacon as chairman,³ one can see that the Society tended to pay between 15 per cent and 25 per cent. of the total cost of the erection of a school building. £25 was granted to the Rev. H.J. Maltby towards building a school at Eggescliffe which was estimated to cost £180. To the Norton Infant School, which was expected to cost £200, £25 was granted via the Rev. F. Clements. On April 11th of the same year £25 was granted to the total cost of £90 for the Muggleswick School. Smaller grants were made for general purposes.

The funds provided for school buildings and general purposes between 1811 and 1841 in County Durham amounted in total to £3884..7s..11d. very similar to the amount granted

1. Charity Commissioner's Report on Sedgfield 1819-1837.
2. Appendix 13.
3. Fordyce. History of Durham. Vol.I.p.330.

by the parent society. It is noteworthy that the cost of printing and advertising was approximately one tenth of the value of these grants, about £16 per year for the whole Durham Society. The amount paid for books by the local society was £1253..14s..5³/₄d between 1811 and 1841.¹ Some of the books were given free, others were sold at lower prices. As the revenue from the books came to £687..17s..9d it appears that about half of the books brought by the Diocesan Society were given free or some or all of the books were sold at less than cost. In any case, books were being provided on good terms to the affiliated schools.

The meetings for dispensing the funds were held quarterly sometimes in Bishop Cosin's Library, sometimes in the Jubilee School, Newcastle and occasionally in the Schoolroom, Claypath (presumably Bluecoat). It was occasionally presided over by the Bishop of Durham, or by some lesser dignitary of the Church. This quarterly meeting, besides its work for elementary education, mooted the idea of a training school for masters in the Diocese. On the 11th April 1839, Archdeacon Thorp proposed "that this meeting be adjourned to Monday the 22nd instant for the purpose of considering the propriety of establishing Local Boards of Education in the several Deaneries and a training school for masters"² The Quarterly meeting showed great care in the allocation of funds, most applications being carefully scrutinized, even when the amount required was relatively small. We

1. See Appendix 14.
2. Minutes of the Diocesan School Society 11. April.1839.

can read of the plea from the Master of Thornley School (Wolsingham) detailing "the circumstances of personal distress in which he was held" and requesting pecuniary assistance. "The Committee did not consider the case as coming within the Society's objects."¹ On the other hand a grant of £10 was made to the minister at Heworth who had borrowed £25 from the Poor and Church Rates to help solve a deficiency in the School Fund.² A request for a grant from Castle Eden in October 1842 was held over till a "further explanation as to the progress of the colliery" was acquired. Occasionally, members of the Committee would recommend that certain areas should be given assistance because of the need for extra school space. On October 12th 1843 the Reverend Canon Douglas suggested that the following places be given preference — Blackgate, South Church, West Auckland, Evenwood, New Cassop, Quarrington Hill, Hamsterley, Wolsingham, Alston and Sacriston besides several places in Northumberland.

Various conditions were attached to the grants. Firstly, all applications for union with the Society had to be signed by the parish priest and the managers of the school. No grant was made to a new school until the deeds of the school had been carefully scrutinized by the Quarterly meeting, nor after 1840 was any aid given by the Society, "to any school which accepts money from the government on the principle

1. *ibid.* 12. April 1838.
2. *ibid.* 12. July 1838.

of State inspection."¹ This would appear to be indicative of the prevailing doubt at the time, by the religious bodies, about the state interfering in education. Every application for a grant had to be submitted to the Quarterly meeting "by letter to the secretaries or treasurer at least three weeks before the day of the meeting."² Despite the careful administration, the Society found itself without funds at the beginning of 1839 and a meeting was called with the aim of finding new funds.

The funds of the Diocesan Board were subscribed in the main by the parish clergy, who were granted membership on the subscription of at least one guinea annually. Life membership was given to those who gave ten guineas. As a concession, members could determine in which school up to three-quarters of their subscription should be spent. In 1841 out of a total of 101 subscribers, 81 were clergymen of the Church of England, mainly rectors and canons, the poor curates being too poorly paid to be able to have a surplus of income to donate to the Board. Most of the ministers who subscribed were living in the diocese, two notable exceptions being the Lord Bishop of Chester and the Lord Bishop of Exeter, although the latter had been Rector of Stanhope in the early decades of the century and so had some interest in this region. The following table shows the distribution of payments in relation to size.

1. *ibid.* 9. Jan. 1840.
2. *ibid.* 12. April. 1838.

	Amount Subscribed	No. of Payments
Table III Subscriptions (According to Size) paid to Diocesan School Society 1841	Under £1	28
	£1 to £2	48
	£2 to £3	8
	£3 to £4	10
	£4 to £5	-
	Over £5	7

The average income, over the years 1811 to 1841, received from subscriptions alone was approximately £195.¹ This, however, was supplemented by payments from the County Fund which arose from the enclosure of land on Framwellgate Moor by Acts of Parliament in 1801 and 1822. From these Acts a portion of the enclosed land was awarded to the Bishop of Durham and held by him in trust for the establishment of schools and the education of poor children in the County of Durham. The Bishop allowed the rent from this land to be appropriated by the Diocesan Society and it is recorded that in 1840 Henry Jopling paid one year's rent £57..10s..0d. and David Holmes paid similarly £12..10s..0d.² Appendix 14 gives the payments made to the Society from this fund from its inception in 1822. The total over eighteen years was £1544 giving an average yearly donation of about £86.

1. See Appendix 14.
2. Report of Diocesan Society 1841.

After 1833 the Government Grant to education proved to be a substantial means of providing and extending facilities for elementary education and the Church of England received the largest share from this new source. "Within a few months of the passing of the grant 62 schools, 44 of which belonged to the Church of England providing in all for 12,191 children, had been aided. By 1838, 714 National Schools and 181 British and Foreign School Society schools had been helped."¹ These figures were for England and Wales. The proportion received in funds by County Durham was higher than the average for the country. Between 1833 and October 1849, Church of England schools in County Durham were granted £6656..10s. for buildings while the British and Foreign Schools only received £380. Moreover, the former schools were paid £306 towards the payment of teachers while the British schools got nothing. For books, the schools belonging to the Established Church received £46..0..3¼d, the British schools £3..5s..4½d, while others such as Roman Catholic and Wesleyan Schools were granted £20..10..10¾d.²

It can be seen that in the financing of education under the aegis of the Established Church, sums of money were forthcoming from a variety of sources. In the provision of capital goods - school buildings, houses for masters,

1. Birchenough: History of Elementary Education.p.60.
2. See Appendix 15 for details. Also see the chapter on the Government Grant.

fittings and books - major roles were played by the National Society and the Diocesan Board up to 1833, but from this date the parliamentary grant took over the major investors role. However, the day to day running of the school was financed principally by annual subscriptions and fees, with also a smaller amount of money accruing from endowments and charities, which in a few cases had been granted in earlier centuries.

Chapter 6.

Provision of Schools by Other Denominations.

The Royal Lancasterian Association which was formally constituted in 1810 was renamed the British and Foreign School Society in 1814. The designated aim of this society was to promote the education of the labouring and manufacturing classes of society, and it was to give support to schools set up under its name and rules. Anyone who subscribed a guinea annually was to be accepted as a member of the institution while ten guineas gave life membership. The general meeting of subscribers was held once a year in May and from this meeting a committee was elected besides which twelve inspectors were appointed and a ladies committee to supervise the provision of education for girls.

Most subscriptions to the General Society were one guinea or five guineas per year, and although one can see many Quakers among the names of subscribers, there were many subscribers who were of other denominations. Apparently the non-denominational teaching associated with the Society did not deter Church of England philanthropists from giving financial support. Alongside the well-known Quaker names of Abraham Darby and Charles Barclay, one can find Dukes and Earls. The Duke of Bedford contributed £100 a year; William IV gave a similar amount, in 1836, while Mehemet Ali Pasha gave over 50 guineas.¹ In 1844 the Bishop of Durham contributed 3 guineas. The General Society, although

1. British and Foreign School Society. Report of 1836. See list of subscribers.

primarily controlled by members of the Society of Friends, was financed by people from many denominations.

At local level auxiliary societies were formed to supervise the British Schools in their area and also to make collections for the local schools. Darlington, South Shields, Stockton, Durham and Sunderland had such societies and these appear to have been led by Friends. Among the 14 Darlington subscribers in 1844 one finds the names of seven Backhouses, members of the renowned banking family, and five Peases, members of the family of the woollen manufacturer.¹ At Sunderland, Friends also took an active part in the auxiliary association. There, too, in 1833 we have the name of Backhouse among the subscribers and also the Mounseys and Thomas Richardson, well-known Quakers.

Besides the schools which were founded under the aegis of this society in this country many were set up overseas, Schools associated with the British and Foreign Schools Society were set up in countries as far apart as Malta, Greece, France and the United States. Hence the word 'foreign' in the title.

In County Durham there were never as many British Schools as Church of England Schools. The following is a list of the schools within the County who were under the direction of the British and Foreign Schools Society between

1. *ibid.* Report of 1844.

1800 and 1860 -

- Darlington - opened in 1819 in Skinnergate for boys.
Girls at Feethams.
- South Shields - opened Jan. 1836.
- Barnard Castle - opened 1837.
- Gateshead - opened August 1840. Fordyce says
discontinued in 1850.
- St. Helen's Auckland - opened 1846 by colliery owners.
- Sunderland - in Nicholson St. then Hendon Rd.
- Stockton - in Tennant St. - date unknown.
- Lynesack and Softley - at Quarry Lane - date unknown.
- Black Boy School, Bishop Auckland - financed by colliery
owners.

Some of these schools were large by standards of the time. Darlington British School for boys had 240 on the register in 1843 while the Gateshead British School had 160 boys and 110 girls.¹ In 1848 the Stockton school held 175 children, but ten years before this the South Shields school had 300 boys and 140 girls on the books, two years after the opening of the school. Blackboy School was also large with 160 in ordinary attendance in 1852.² The only small school appears to have been the Lynesack school - room was provided for only 80 children.³

In 1858 there were thirteen departments allied to the Society and they were educating a total of 2,138 pupils in County Durham but this was less than one-tenth of the number

1. British Society Reports 1843.
2. Minutes of the Committee of Council 1852. Mr.
Morell's Report.
3. Whellan. Durham. p. 34.

being educated in Church of England schools.¹ Even the Roman Catholic schools in the county were educating more pupils than the British schools, 2,322 as opposed to 2,138. The reason for the small number of British schools in County Durham was not that the Society was less supported financially than other societies but that it had many overseas ventures which tended to limit the amount the Society could spend at home. The British Society in 1859 raised as much as the National Society for educational purposes, the former raising £15,947.12s.7d. as opposed to the latter's £15,811.0s.0d.² These amounts were almost four times the amounts raised by either the Catholic Poor School Committee or the Wesleyan Education Committee.

Out of each £1 of income the British inspected schools had to rely on school fees for 8s.1d. in 1858 while the uninspected British schools got 9s.11d. from fees.³ The latter schools received no financial assistance from the government and government assistance for inspected schools, amounted to about a quarter of their income in 1858. The fees were usually higher in British schools to make up for the lack of endowments for these schools. Over forty-two per cent. of children in British and Protestant Dissenting schools paid at least 3d. a week in fees, while only 17 per cent. paid this amount in Church of England schools.⁴

1. See Appendix 17.

2. Newcastle Commission Report. Vol.I. p.17.

3. See Appendix 25.

4. Newcastle Commission Report. Vol.I. p.72.

Even allowing for higher fees, the average British school was earning less income per scholar than the Church of England schools. A comparison of the inspected schools of these denominations shows that the Church of England schools received an average annual income per scholar of £1.1s.9½d. in 1858 while the British schools received only 18s.2d.¹ (This excluded payment on behalf of pupil teachers). Thus the schools under the British Society were generally in a relatively poor financial position yet Inspector Fletcher said in 1846 that nearly half of these schools (inspected) had small libraries for the children. In general the British schools tended to be superior to other schools, this being probably due to the higher fees which tended to remove the poorer elements of society and leave the school for the better section, at least financially better, of the population. Besides, attendance tended to be better when fees were higher.

The parent' Society's expenditure in 1859 was almost as much as that of the National Society.² Both societies spent about £6,000 in the year on maintaining training colleges but the British Society only spent about half the amount that the National Society spent on buildings. On the maintenance of schools the latter society spent nothing while the former spent £658.14s.5d. The costs of inspection and organisation for the British Society were three times

1. *ibid.* Vol.I. p.66.

2. See Appendix 18.

those for the other society and less was therefore available for books and apparatus. This expenditure covered all aspects of the work of the international society: the work of the Society in this country was thus diminished. Some measure of the difference between the two societies can be obtained from the estimated number of scholars educated in the societies' schools. In 1858 it was estimated by the Newcastle Commission that 1,187,086 scholars were being educated in Church of England weekday schools (not all National Society Schools) and only 151,005 in British weekday schools.¹ Allowing for some of the Church of England schools being non-National the difference is still remarkable. A similar picture is portrayed by a comparison of the income of the two bodies in County Durham. The Church of England schools had an income of £13,994.17s.0d. in 1858 while the British schools in the county had an income of only £966.5.0d.²

In most cases the British schools had to rely heavily on the school fees. Any fluctuation in this source of income could lead to the closure of the school. Inspector J.D. Morell amply illustrates this: "Most of the British and denominational schools" he said "are so constituted, that, with the subscription list added to the contribution of the children's pence they can just manage to retain their solvency from year to year. A period of commercial difficulty, accordingly, immediately affects them in their two vital

1. Newcastle Commission Report. Vol.I. p. 592.
2. *ibid.* Vol.I. p.584.

parts. The subscription list is diminished, on the one hand while the parents of the children thrown either altogether out of employ or obliged to work for a greatly reduced rate of wages, cannot afford to pay so much towards their education, and in many instances cannot pay at all."¹

2 Quaker Schools.

The Society of Friends were firmly entrenched in this county long before 1800. Longstaffe, the Darlington historian, tells us that as early as 1776 there were 160 members of the Society living in Darlington. The Society's Meeting House, a magnificent building situated in the town centre in Skinnergate, is a reminder of their wealth and influence. But we have besides this the industrial enterprises of the Peases - their mills, the Stockton-Darlington Railway - and the renowned banking firm of Backhouse. Darlington has always been a town influenced by the Quaker movement, so much so that the town, football team is called the Quakers. The two principle meetings at Darlington and Newcastle seem to have organized and administered the movement in the county. Meetings were held in several other centres in the county from time to time during the 18th and 19th Centuries, for example at Bishop Auckland, Durham and Shotton. At Durham City, the burial ground associated with the Friends' Meeting House is still to be seen adjoining the Blue Coat School in Claypath.

As early as 1756, Robert Forster, a Quaker of Hawthorne,

1. Minutes of the Committee of Council 1847/8. Vol.II.
Report of J.D. Morell.

left £200 to the Durham Quarterly Meeting "to be placed under the care of the same meeting and the interest to be paid to a Schoolmaster or Schoolmistress to conduct a school at Hawthorne in which 24 children were to be educated free of cost."¹ A sum of £7.14s.2d. was to be applied to a school at Sunderland, and Forster left a further £150 to be applied by the Durham Quarterly Meeting to the relief of the poor. Forster's will also left an orchard to be used as a burial ground and "a low room to be used as a schoolroom."² The schoolmistress was paid £10 a year for Hawthorn School in the 1850s and for this she was teaching 14 children the 3 R's and the girls were taught needlework as an extra.³ The money was in the hands of John Pease, James Backhouse, Thomas Mounsey and Thomas Richardson and a visiting committee of Friends was appointed to supervise the school.⁴ Some time in the 1860s or 1870s the school had such low numbers that it was discontinued and the money was then added to Edward Walton's Trust to be used for the Sunderland School.⁵ It is probable that this was some time after 1863, for on this date another school was built near the church at Hawthorne to accommodate 100 children, so rendering the Forster School superfluous.

Later in the 18th Century Richard Lindley granted £150

1. Account of Trust Property. (Society of Friends) p.1.
2. *ibid.* p.7.
3. Fordyce. *op.cit.* Bk.II p.359.
4. Charity Commissioners' Reports 1819-1837.
5. Trust Property - *op.cit.* p.7.

to the Friends. By his will of 1785 he left this £150 in trust for the encouragement of a Friends' School at Darlington, the interest to be paid to a Schoolmaster or Schoolmistress.¹ This interest was never applied for the purpose specified but was allowed to accumulate until 1841 when it amounted to £91.18.3d. and was then used to purchase some land which was added to the burial ground.

The will of Jane Dance, dated 7th June 1799, left £300 in 4% stock out of which the interest on £200 was to be used for "the encouragement of a Friends Schoolmaster or Schoolmistress at Darlington."² Here again the interest accumulated till 1843, when the school fund amounted to £512, and then £500 of it was lent to Auckland and Shildon schools at 4 per cent.

The largest endowment for Quaker education in County Durham was that made by Edward Walton in 1768. By his will he left £1000 to the Raby Meeting and £500 to each of the meetings at Newcastle and Durham. The Raby Meeting was instructed to invest £500 for the benefit of each of two schools to be set up at Bishop Auckland and Shildon, the interest from each investment to be granted to the master for teaching twelve children in each case. The Newcastle Meeting was responsible for the application of the £500 which was to be used to pay a master or mistress at Sunderland for the teaching of twelve children; the Durham Meeting

1. *ibid.* p.17.

2. *ibid.* p.18.

was similarly responsible for the fourth school to be set up at Shotton and the £500 was to be used for this purpose.¹ After 1824 the supervisory powers for this trust were vested in the Darlington and Newcastle Monthly Meetings, the former being responsible for the Shildon and Bishop Auckland schools and the latter responsible for the other two schools. It was suggested in the same year that two cottages and a garden next to the school at Shildon should be purchased but the cost was found to be £52.15s.8d. more than the balance in hand of £102.4s.4d. The Trustees found a solution by selling £1675 worth of the 3 per cent. stock which realised £1600 (£600 more than the original investment). From this they deducted £52.15s.8d. to purchase the cottages and the remainder was reinvested at 4 per cent.² The master was given the use of the cottages and the garden. This reinvestment of the Walton fund did not alter the annual income significantly. Each year interest in the region of £100 was received in total. The total stock amounted to £3000 in 1825 and this realised £120 a year in dividend in 1827. A report of 1828 drew attention to the misuse of the interest. Walton had intended that some of the funds be used for purchasing books and for setting out apprentices but for many years these demands had been neglected.³ It was suggested that £10 be set aside by each monthly meeting for these purposes. In the thirties the schools at Bishop

1. Charity Commissioners' Reports 1819-1857 p.501.
2. Durham Quarterly Meeting. Society of Friends. date June 15th 1824.
3. *ibid.* Report dated April 1st 1828.

Auckland and Shildon began to grow in numbers largely due to the growing population in these areas. At both schools the Lancasterian system was adopted, 70 children being educated at Bishop Auckland and 90 at Shildon¹ instead of the 20 or 30 under the old system. The 1834 Report on these schools said that the apprenticeship payments were impracticable and that the best course to pursue was "to accommodate the establishments to the present state of society, keeping in view the general intention and objects of the donor." Indeed society was in such a mobile state that trusts found difficulty in observing the demands of the deed to the letter. In the same year Sunderland school contained only 16 children while Shotton educated only 19.² The Sunderland school which was situated in Bishopwearmouth was eventually sold and the children were sent to the British School to be educated there free of charge.³ In 1842 it was decided by the Quarterly Meeting that all of Edward Walton's Charity should be cashed and lent to the Great Ayton School in the North Riding. This was done and the £2900 was granted to the Yorkshire school on mortgage of 4 per cent.

Besides the above schools, the Quakers supported the Adelaide Colliery School at South Church although it is probable that the support came only from Joseph Pease and Company, the owners of the colliery. The Pease Company

1. *ibid.* Report dated June 14th 1834.
2. *ibid.* Report of June 10th 1834.
3. Forayce. *op.cit.* Vol.II. p. 452.

had several mines in the County and contributed to the education in the vicinity of these mines.¹ Similarly Edmund Backhouse and Company was responsible for the building of schools for its workmen at Coundon Grange. It is interesting to see the similarity in the schools provided by the Pease Company for they were all built with the white bricks produced at the brickworks at Bank Foot, Pease's West, Crook.

Methodist Schools.

The Wesleyan Education Committee was formed in 1840 and by 1859 had expended £88,460 on behalf of education,² a small amount compared with the three-quarters of a million pounds spent by the National Society. In 1847 the Committee was permitted to apply to the government for a grant towards buildings, apparatus and teachers, and by 1851 the Wesleyan Committee was receiving over £5,700 per year,³ compared with the British Society's £13,000. Methodism seemed to be late in entering the field for the provision of day schools, having concentrated in the early part of the century on Sunday Schools. Most of the chapels built in the 19th Century had school rooms attached but these were used usually only on Sundays.

The income the Wesleyan Education Committee derived from County Durham in 1858 amounted to £984 which was about

1. See Chapter 9
2. Newcastle Commission Report. Vol.I. p.17.
3. Educational Reports. M. Sadler. p.250.

£20 more than the income of the British Society for the County.¹ The number of day schools provided or aided by the two societies seems to be similar as far as County Durham is concerned in the period 1800 to 1860. The following list is of places which had day schools provided by Methodists during this period -

- Barnard Castle - built 1839 on the Demesnes.
- Bishop Auckland - built 1859 - possible in High TentersSt
- Burnopfield - school held in Methodist Chapel erected in 1755.
- Darlington - built 1812 in Bondgate.
- Durham - built 1847 in New Elvet.
- Etherley - school held in chapel.²
- Hurworth - adjoining the Wesleyan Chapel built c.1830.
- Tow Law - built 1859; site not certain.
- Winlaton - associated with the Primitive Methodist Chapel.

It is possible that day schools associated with Methodism existed for short periods in many more places than those listed above. Almost all the larger chapels had schoolrooms attached to be used for Sundays, and these rooms would in some cases be used for day schools when no alternative means of education were available. No exact list could be compiled with the evidence at hand, but the schools listed above are those which were permanent during the early 19th Century.

1. Newcastle Commission Report. Vol. I. p. 584.
2. See 'The History of Wesleyan Methodism in Bishop Auckland' by M. Braithwaite.

Most of the above schools were on the small side. Even the Darlington and Barnard Castle Schools which were the largest, had only about 80 pupils in 1850.¹ Usually the number of Methodists in County Durham towns was relatively small and the school emerged from the efforts of a small minority of this sect who desired an education which included some explanation of the religious doctrines of their denomination. The Wesleyan Schools opened and closed with a hymn taken from the Wesleyan hymn book, and a prayer. No teacher was to teach any other catechism other than Wesley's and the Wesleyan chapel was to be attended on Sundays unless parents objected. Ralph Lingen gave a description of the emergence of a Wesleyan School - "there would perhaps be some ten or a dozen persons who wished to give their children a pretty good education; they would club their means together, paying a certain rate for their own children something like what they would pay at a private adventure school."² A collection would also be made for the building, and fees to maintain the school were usually made high. Because of the cost to the parents in setting up such a school, the children were found to come from the top of the working class or the bottom of the shop-keeping class.

Only three of the listed schools benefitted from the

1. Minutes of the Committee of Council 1850. Mr. Morell's Report.
2. Newcastle Commission Report. Vol. 6. p. 6.

government grant before 1860, Barnard Castle, Darlington and Hurworth, and even they had to rely largely on fees and subscriptions. Denominational inspected schools had an average income per child of £1.4s.1¼d. in 1858 of which 16s.6¼d. (about 67%) was raised by fees and subscriptions. The Church of England Schools relied on fees and subscriptions for only about 55 per cent. of their income. The denominational (non C. of E.) uninspected school collected 14s.9¾d. in fees and subscriptions towards a total income per child of 17s.2½d. Thus some 86 per cent. of income for these schools was drawn from fees and subscriptions.¹ Some of the uninspected schools alleviated the financial burden of maintaining a school by adapting buildings already in existence. Etherley school, as listed, used the chapel as a day school as did Burnopfield.² The remaining schools seemed to be no more than school rooms attached to chapels and would therefore be used for a variety of purposes such as Sunday School lecture hall and a room for meetings. The burden of the capital investment could then be spread over a wider field.

The Methodist movement in the early years of the century concentrated on Sunday Schools as attendance was likely to be higher on this day than on weekdays. The ability of the children to acquire work proved to be a major handicap to the weekday schools and the Methodists were

1. *ibid.* Vol.I.p.586. See also Appendix 25.
2. The only mention of the Burnopfield School I could find is in Fordyce. *op.cit.* Vol.II.p.637.

not prepared to fight this handicap until after the middle of the century. 1840 and the setting up of the Wesleyan Education Committee marks the beginning of a change in attitude, and the acquisition of the right to apply for government grants in 1847 was a turning point towards a more positive action in the establishment of week-day schools.

Roman Catholic Schools.

"Not only do the immense majority of its members in this country belong to the ranks of the poor, but even in those ranks they usually occupy the very lowest place." Thus wrote H.M.I. Marshall in 1849 when reporting on Roman Catholic Schools. Certainly in Durham City the large numbers of Irish would present a picture of a class of Roman Catholics who were near the starvation level. The Rector of St. Margaret's in the City tells of the many Irish who sent their children out on to the streets to beg instead of sending them to school.¹ Nevertheless there were several Roman Catholic Schools in the county in the first half of the 19th Century, so obviously many people belonging to this faith could afford to pay the fees, although the fees were generally lower at these schools than at others. Of children attending Roman Catholic weekday schools 65.93 per cent. paid less than 2d whereas only 37.3 per cent paid less than 2d at Church of England Schools and 17.57 per cent. at other Protestant schools.² Indeed at R.C.

1. Newcastle Commission Report. Vol.II. p.433.

2. *ibid.* Vol.I. p.589.

Schools less than 10 per cent. had to pay threepence or more. These schools were undoubtedly catering for children of the lower working classes.

It is noticeable that the R.C. Schools were to be found in the bigger towns and the more densely populated regions of the county where one would expect the poorer classes to congregate. The following list gives the R.C. Schools for the county which were in existence around 1850.

- Barnard Castle - in Queen St. built 1858.
- Birtley - St. Joseph's built 1842.
- Darlington - St. Austin's built c.1849.
- Durham - St. Cuthbert's in Old Elvet - built c 1844
- Hartlepool - on the corner of Prissick St.
- Hendon - built c.1830 in Dunning St. Later in Back Bridge St.
- Houghton -- St. Michael's built 1837
- South Shields - St. Bede's built c 1848 in Victoria Rd.
- Stella
- Stockton - St. Mary's, Norton Rd. built 1842.
- Sunderland - St. Mary's in Pann Lane.

Some of these schools were outstanding by standards of the time. The St. Mary's School at Sunderland for example was a very important and flourishing school in the middle of the century. The girls school in particular "deserved to be ranked amongst the most valuable institutions which a nation can possess."¹ It was conducted by a large body of teachers trained by the Institute of the Sisters of Mercy

1. Minutes of the Committee of Council. 1849. Mr. Marshall's Report.

who were renowned for their ability as educationists. The two departments of the school had altogether over 400 children in ordinary attendance in 1849. Inspector Marshall in 1850 describes Durham St. Cuthbert's as being an extremely pleasing school of its class and Hartlepool Girls as showing an admirable moral and religious tone. None of the R.C. Schools visited in this year by Marshall in County Durham was criticised in any way, except for the use of old decayed books at Stella Girls' School. Apart from the Sunderland schools most of the other schools were of medium size. St. Cuthbert's at Durham had a total of 127 in ordinary attendance altogether; the Hartlepool R.C. School had 144; South Shields had 120 and Stella seems to have been the smallest with about 60.

In the 17 departments of Roman Catholic Schools which were in existence in 1858, 2322 children were educated, a similar number to that of children being educated by the British and Foreign Schools Society in the county.¹ A comparison of the income of the two groups in the county in 1858 reveals that the Roman Catholic body was receiving little over a half of what the other body was earning. The British Society had an annual income of £966.5s.0d.; the R.C. body earned only £552.10s.0d. This difference represents the distinction between the classes which each society served; the British Society in County Durham leaned heavily on the Quaker movement which was an affluent

1. Newcastle Commission Report. Vol.I. p.600.

power; the Roman Catholic schools depended largely on the poor classes. Many of the reports on R.C. schools indicate the handicap of inadequate apparatus with which excellent teachers had to cope. The converse is seen in the British schools where libraries of books for the children were fairly common.

The central body co-ordinating the work of the Roman Catholic Church for education in the country was the Catholic Poor School Committee which was founded in 1847 to take advantage of the then possible acquisition of government assistance. The benefits the Poor School Committee bestowed were many. It gave pecuniary aid to struggling schools and assistance to local managers in their relations with the Committee of Council, besides giving encouragement to deserving teachers. The Poor School Committee, furthermore, gave financial help in the form of exhibitions to be granted to teachers, and also provided organising mistresses to visit female schools. "Very few are the localities which I have visited" said Inspector Marshall "where I have not detected the signs of its powerful and beneficial action."¹

Government assistance was eagerly sought by the poor R.C. schools. These schools received their first payments in 1849, a total of £73 for the whole country, but within two years this sum had been raised to £2891 which was about half the amount the Wesleyan Committee were receiving on

1. Minutes of the Committee of Council 1849. Mr. T.W.M. Marshall's Report.

behalf of their schools but one must remember that Wesleyan schools received grants as early as 1843 through the Wesleyan Committee and thus were early in the field.¹ No doubt some Wesleyan schools received grants before this through the British Society, as it was not till 1840 that the Wesleyan schools broke their connection with the British Society. Roman Catholic schools took great advantage of the grants to teachers made by the Committee of Council. In 1850 Darlington St. Augustine's received £21 in augmentation of teachers salaries and a further £29 for the instruction of apprentices and pupil teachers. In the same year Durham St. Cuthbert's acquired £20 and £44 respectively while Hartlepool R.C. school was granted £44 for the instruction of pupil-teachers and monitors. These three schools had 2, 3 and 3 apprentice teachers respectively. The small school at Stella received £15 for the instruction of the one apprentice it had in 1850. Sunderland schools were large and benefitted to a much greater extent. The St. Mary's School had 6 apprentices for which the school received £86.10s.0d. in government assistance, while an additional £25.0s.0d. was granted in augmentation of teachers salaries. A grant of £9.13.7½d. was also acquired for equipment such as books, maps and apparatus in 1850.² The following schools also got grants for equipment in 1850; Durham St. Cuthbert's £3.6s.7¾d; Hartlepool R.C. £2.3s.6d. and Darlington St.

1. Educational Reports. M. Sadler p. 530.

2. See Appendix 30. A grant was conditionally made payable to St. Augustine's school at Sunderland, but this school appears not to have come into existence. The school was never inspected and none of the County Histories for the period mention it.

Augustine £2.1s.7½d.¹

From the financial struggle which most of the Catholic schools seemed to face and the success with which they overcame this, we have the truth illustrated, that as far as the early years of the nineteenth century are concerned, and possibly the same applies today and will for ever apply, that the success of a school depends not on the amount expended on buildings and equipment but primarily on the quality and conscientious^h of the teachers working in the schools.

1. Minutes of the Committee of Council 1850.

Chapter 7.

Workhouse Schools and other Schools for the Very Poor.

The Poor Law had grown up under the Tudors partly as an attempt to solve the problem of vagrancy resulting from the rise of capitalism and a money economy, and partly as a political measure to bring many aspects of the economy under state control. Very few changes were made in the administration of poor relief between the 1601 Act and the 1795 introduction of the Speenhamland System by Berkshire magistrates. The 1722 and 1782 Acts had encouraged the construction of more workhouses, and Gilbert's Act of 1782 had allowed the union of parishes for more efficient administration. The Speenhamland magistrates introduced in 1795 a subsidy to wages which gave the worker a minimum wage dependent upon the size of family and the price of bread. This system became fairly common and so by the beginning of the nineteenth century England had a system of poor relief which provided a limited number of workhouses or almshouses, with parishes often in unions, and also provided outside relief.

Funds for poor relief came from a Poor Rate which had been initiated by Elizabeth in 1572. This had not been too burdensome at first but the rapid growth of capitalism in the 18th Century brought higher unemployment following enclosures and the development of an industrial economy. It was the increased burden of the Poor Rate in the early

19th Century¹ which brought the Royal Commission of 1832 into being and led to the Poor Law Amendment Act of two years later. This landmark in Poor Law History is an attempt to introduce a more efficient administration of poor relief by instituting local elected Boards of Guardians, supervised by a central trio of Commissioners. The system aimed at the elimination of the abuses of the earlier administration. Each Union of parishes was to have its own workhouse provided out of the rates, but the underlying objective was to deter people from entering the workhouse by making the condition of the internal pauper worse than that of the lowest paid worker outside. Outside relief, it was hoped, would end, but in fact the numbers of outdoor paupers continued to be greater than the number of indoor paupers. There was just not enough space in the workhouse. The Report of the P.L.C. 1844 gives the no. of indoor paupers as 1866 and outdoor as 22,663, on Lady Day 1842 in Co. Durham.

Workhouses before 1834 in County Durham tended to be too small, except in the large towns, to have sufficient numbers of children to form a school inside the workhouse. Material is scarce for the period before 1834 to give a detailed picture of the education of workhouse children, but from what is available we can formulate a general pattern. In most cases the children, when they were given some education,

1. See Appendix 22. Sunderland by an Act of 31. Geo. III (1791) got 2d. per ton for cargoes coming into port, except coal, $\frac{1}{2}$ d. a ton to be applied to poor rate. £2400 collected from this source in 1818.

were sent to the nearest school outside the workhouse. This was the most economical solution when numbers of children were small inside the workhouse. Even as late as 1861, in six unions in County Durham children who lived in the workhouse were sent out to the nearest school, usually the National School.¹ This happened invariably because of lack of numbers. We know that Sunderland workhouse sent its older children to be educated in the nearby National School in 1833.²

In the same year in Darlington "the education of all the children above 4 years of age is provided by the National School which is situated close to the Workhouse."³ The workhouse master usually paid the fees of these children out of his account before 1834 but the Webbs point out "the guardians were, at first, not disposed to pay" these. Accounts of the post 1834 period in various Co. Durham Unions however show these payments fairly regularly. The first Sunderland Workhouse was built in 1740 by subscription and Kitts tells us that in 1818 there were 272 inmates of whom 139 were children.⁴ Kitts also tells us that in 1802 the children in the workhouse were employed in the manufacturing of pins. No details are given as to whether they worked inside the workhouse but it is more likely that they were

1. Appendix 24.
2. Report of Poor Law Commissioners Appendix A. Wilson's Report: p.137.
3. *ibid.* p.143.
4. See Antiquaries of Sunderland. Vol. X 1909 article by J.J. Kitts F.S.A.A. on The Poor Laws with special reference to Sunderland Workhouse.

apprenticed out to a nearby pin factory. G.B. Hodgson in his book "The Borough of South Shields" gives an account of Ann Aubone's charity school opened 1769 in which he says there were 40 boys and 10 girls in 1778 of whom two boys and two girls were from the Poorhouse. South Shields and Sunderland, being two of the biggest towns are not representative of the whole county and it is fair to assume that although they used local charity or denominational schools for workhouse children, it does not follow that other smaller workhouses would do likewise. Prior to 1834, Durham City had four separate poorhouses which contained only a very few paupers and it is unlikely they worried about the education of the one or two children they had.¹ Moreover, it must be remembered that the Workhouse or poorhouse population tended to be liquid, moving in and out as personal circumstances changed. E.C. Tufnell's figures for the Stepney Workhouse in his report to the Newcastle Commission in 1860, give some indication of this movement in and out of the workhouse. Out of 136 children entering the school, 52 remained under 6 months, 21 over 6 months and under 12 months, 17 from 1 to 2 years and 46 two years and over.

Little can be found about almshouses during the period except for details of a peculiar school-cum-almshouse in Cornsay village known as Russell's Almshouses and Schools.

1. Minutes of Durham Union. 12 Jan. 1837 quote Elvet holding 25 paupers, Framwellgate 50, St. Nicholas 25 and Gilligate 30.

These buildings consisted of 3 rooms in the centre, comprising a school room and a residence for the master. On one side of the building were six apartments for six poor men and on the other side were six apartments for six poor women.

William Russell of Brancepeth Castle by an indenture dated October 22nd 1811 granted to General Gordon Drummond, Rowland Burdon, the Rev. James Britton, Robert Taylor, George Shaw and two others and their executors, the above premises for 10,000 years to be used as hospital and school.¹

All twelve inmates were to be over 55 years of age and 20 children were to be educated, all of whom including the master were to be selected by the owner of Brancepeth Castle.

The rents and profits from the Billy Hall Farm, Brancepeth containing about 260 acres (except mines and quarries) were to be applied to the maintenance of the almshouse.

Out of these profits, each poor person was to be given £12 per year, while the master was to receive £20 per year. On the 13th of May each year, three loads of coals had to be delivered to the master and each of the 12 poor. Each poor woman got a gown and each man a woollen coat every year.

Besides these, the inmates received many provisions, wheat meal, beef or mutton, raisins or currants, tea and sugar, twice a year. The master and the 12 poor were given a Book of Common Prayer and Bible which was replaced when worn. The schoolchildren were between the ages of six

1. Fordyce. History of Durham p.657. Photographs in Folder.

and ten and no child was allowed to stay at school beyond the age of 12. The schoolmaster read a service every Wednesday and Sunday in the schoolroom to the pupils and the 12 poor and he was instructed to use one of Paley's or Hampson's sermons. The Rector of Brancepeth chose prayers which had to be read every morning to all the inmates and an agent was appointed to supervise the establishment and report on the working of it at least once every three months. The Charity Commissioners Report of 1819 to 1837 state that the expenditure in 1830 amounted to about £240 per year and also that the master and his wife would be allowed to retire to the almshouse if he became disabled or incapacitated so that he could not continue his duties.

The Poor Law Amendment Act, utilitarian and essentially Benthamite, brought unity and organisation out of chaos. The Act stated that the Central Authority had to make rules for the children in the workhouse and they had to be accommodated in a separate building, in order that they may be educated by "a person properly qualified to act as a schoolmaster."¹ In 1835 regulations were made for the appointment of a schoolmaster and schoolmistress to instruct the boys and girls for three of the working hours at least per day, but the Report of the Poor Law Commission in 1837 says the number of children in the workhouses rarely exceeded 50 or 60 and indeed was often below 20. In most

1. 1834 Report. p.307.

cases a teacher was not thought necessary. Nevertheless in 1846 Parliament voted £15,000 towards the payment of teachers salaries depending on efficiency, inspection to be made by the Committee of Council.¹ All salaries of workhouse teachers could be chargeable to this account from the 1st October 1846. Some assistance from the Committee of Council was available for the purchase of schoolbooks. By an Act of 1844 District Schools for a combination of Unions, could be set up, these having been suggested by Kay-Shuttleworth². The District Schools could combine parishes within a distance of 15 miles but Nicholls, one of the first three "Kings of Somerset House, says later that the power to set up District Schools "Has been less acted upon than was anticipated, the difficulties in the way of such combinations for educational purposes being very great."³ He added that the system was more costly when the children were gathered into groups of 500 or 1000 and he says it was probably less effective. It is not clear what he meant by this but it was probably that the cost of buildings and maintenance would be higher. District Schools had by 1848 only been accomplished in a very few instances and these tended to be in the large towns. As far as can be ascertained there was none in County Durham

1. Minute of Comm. of Council 18. Dec. 1847.
2. See his paper on the grant to workhouse teacher salaries submitted Aug. 5.1846 in the Poor Law Reports for that year.
3. G. Nicholls - History of the English Poor Law
p.343.

before 1860. In 1848 there were only six district schools in the whole of the country.¹ Indeed the Webbs tell us that the use of local elementary schools became common after 1861² but this use of local schools seems to have been the common practice in Durham County throughout the first half of the century. The opinion of the Webbs was confirmed by what Chance said in his "Children Under the Poor Law "1898". "In country and quasi-country Unions the practice of sending the workhouse children to the neighbouring village schools has become almost universal."

The Unions in Co. Durham were so different in size and character; we find Lanchester Union with a population of 7,924 and Sedgefield with 5286, both agricultural areas, and Sunderland with 42,664,³ probably the only industrial area of any significance in the county in the 1830s. The number of children in the workhouse varied considerably from one Union to another as did the buildings which were used to house the poor, and it is not surprising to find that the means of providing education for the children varied too.

Durham Union Workhouse was completed some time in 1838, and the first meeting of the Board of Guardians to be held in the workhouse was on Christmas Day of that year.

Immediately, payments were made for the education of the

1. S. & B. Webb - English Poor Law Policy p.108.
2. *ibid.* p.269.
3. See Appendix 21.

pauper children at the Blue Coat School in Claypath, the first payment being 9/9d.¹ A payment of 5/10 was also made to "the Infant School" and Blue Coat School. These payments are quoted under "In Maintenance" but this does not imply that the teaching was done inside the workhouse. The payments in 1841 were indeed made under the heading of the Clothing Account.² Only at the end of each quarter did the teachers receive their payments, and these payments varied in relation to the number of pauper children who were receiving education. Only the education of in-paupers was paid for by the Board, for not till 1855 were the Guardians permitted to pay for the education of out-paupers, and then it was only permissive, and most Guardians would avoid the cost of assisting the numerous out-paupers in this way. Careful administration was the main aim of the Amendment Act of 1834. The average payment for the education of the children from the Durham workhouse in the 1840s was about £1 a quarter. This was at a time when Blue Coat were charging one penny per child,³ so allowing for a ten week quarter it would give an average number of children being paid for by the Union of something near two dozen. It is possible that one or two of the Union children were "Blue Coat Scholars" who were given free education. Besides the payments made to the Blue Coat School, payments are recorded

1. Durham Union Minutes 26. Mar. 1839.

2. *ibid.* 2. Jan. 1841.

3. R. Chadwick Blue Coat Schools 1708 - 1958 p.19.

as having been paid to a school in Crossgate in 1842,¹ to Mrs. McCormick's School in 1843 and 1844, and to the Roman Catholic School in 1843. Walker's Durham Directory 1847 gives Mrs. Jane McCormick's Day School as 28 Crossgate, so it is likely that the first mentioned payment was also to this school. The Roman Catholic School would be St. Cuthbert's, on the other side of the City. Blue Coat School was some distance from the workhouse. It is interesting to note that some consideration must have been given to the religion of the pauper children in using both Roman Catholic and Church of England Schools. This system of paying to outside schools continued to the 1850s. Schoolrooms at the Workhouse were in the course of erection when Fordyce prepared his county history in the late 1850s.²

Chester-le-Street Union Workhouse follows the same pattern as that of Durham, the children being sent out and educated at the nearest local school. It is recorded that a Mr. Gillespie was paid £1-3-1d for tuition in December 1841³ - the first payment mentioned. This payment rose to £1-18s-1d for the quarter ending 31st March 1842 and to £2-10s-4d in June 1842, considerably more than any payment for Durham Union but this is probably due to a higher weekly payment being demanded of the children at the school and not necessarily indicative of the number being educated. Indeed the Minutes state that there were only 72 indoor

1. Durham Union Minutes. 3 Oct. 1842.
2. Fordyce. History of Durham p.358.
3. Chester-le-Street Union Minutes 23rd Dec. 1841.

paupers in the workhouse in 1840. After this peak of June 1842 the amount paid for education falls to a lower level and fluctuates between 15s-6d¹ and £1-6s-0d.² It would appear that Mr. John Hordon was the successor to Mr. Gillespie, for he is the recipient of the money from Sept. 29th 1842 and was the master at the Chester-le-Street National School.³ Following Hordon were Mr. and Mrs. Clementson, but on the 30th October Robert Leathard and his wife, were appointed master and matron of the workhouse and Mr. Leathard is then paid for the education of the children⁴. It is possible that Leathard was paid the money and then was expected to pay the local school, but it is strange that a new accounting method should be introduced at this point. More probably it was a case of education being carried on inside the workhouse by the Master, for later he and his wife claim payment for nursing and sundries and it would seem that the senior officials were supplementing their income by being responsible for these additional duties. Moreover in the Local Government Board report of 1871 there is no mention of Chester-le-Street Workhouse children being sent to the local school outside the workhouse.⁵ Fordyce states that there was no school in the workhouse and that children were being educated in the National School, but it is not clear

1. *ibid.* Dec. 21st 1843 - to Mr. John Hordon.
2. *ibid.* June 20th 1844 - to Mr. John Hordon.
3. See payment dated Dec. 19. 1844 stating John Hordon, National Schoolmaster.
4. Mr. Leathard was paid 12/- for schooling 1st April 1852. Other payments follow.
5. See Appendix 24.

when Fordyce made his study of the Union; this could have been made in the period before 1851, in fact before Leathard was appointed. And it is unlikely in any case that there would be a separate schoolroom in the workhouse. It is more probable that Leathard took upon himself the duties of teaching and used any room available.

Easington Union was so small in the 40s and 50s that it sent most of its paupers to the bigger Houghton Workhouse.¹ Easington considered building a new workhouse and a decision to go ahead was taken on October 15th 1839 but no more is heard of it. There was a small poor house in the village, for premises were rented from Mr. Jackson of Easington "to be used as a workhouse for the present,"² for £5 per annum. From 1839 20 Easington paupers were allowed into the Houghton Workhouse.³ The 1871 Local Government Report states that the pauper children attended the National School in the village.⁴ By 1870 the population of the Union was much larger, due to the development of the coal mining industry towards the coast and the workhouse accommodation must also have been extended in the village.

In 1837 the Houghton-le-Spring Union took over the old poor-house for use as the Union workhouse at a rent of £30 per annum⁵ and in the following year the workhouse was

1. Easington Union Minutes 31st Aug. 1841 lists a payment of £37-7s-4d to the Houghton Workhouse for Easington paupers. This was a quarterly payment.
2. Easington Union Minutes - July 23. 1839.
3. Houghton Union Minutes - 17 June 1839.
4. See Appendix 24.
5. Houghton-le-Spring Union Minutes - 20 Nov. 1837.

purchased outright from the overseers of the parish. The first payment for education was made in December 1841¹ to Thomas Hewitson but thereafter two payments were made in each quarter, one to Hewitson and one to Lucy Thompson. The latter was the Infant Schoolmistress while Hewitson taught the National School.² It is noteworthy that the Infant School was paid more than the National School in each case, and also that payments for education were listed in a group with painting, hardware, joinery, shaving and garden seed etc. Was this an indication of the value attached to education by the workhouse officials? Was there a preponderance of infants in the workhouse? Payments towards education disappear from the Union minutes after 8th October 1849. This last payment was only 1s-4d yet in 1871 children were attending the National School.³ Fordyce gives a total of only 26 persons in the workhouse at the time of his visit in the 1850s yet there must have been many more in March 1843 when a total of £1-0s-2d was paid for schooling.

The South Shields Union was one of the biggest in the county, the workhouse being built in Ocean Street, for an estimated 165 paupers, the cost of the building coming to £1610.⁴ Children were taken into the workhouse from the start. On the 7th March 1837, George Henderson aged 12,

1. Payment to Thos. Hewitson of 4/- for schooling.
2. See Payment for 19. Sept. 1842.
3. See Appendix 24.
4. South Shields Union Minutes. 24 Jan. 1837.

Ann Henderson aged 10 and Isabella Henderson aged 7 the children of widow Margaret Henderson were admitted and later in the year we read of a proposed letter to a factory at Darlington in the hope it would take some of the older children as apprentices - "Resolved that the Clerks do write to Messrs (Henry) Pease and Co. Worstead Manufacturers, Darlington, and request to know if they are in want of children at their factories, as we have seven children in the South Shields Workhouse capable of being removed."¹

The new building had a schoolroom attached and for the teaching of about 40 children Francis Mason was paid £2-16s-4d per quarter.² Mason was still schoolmaster in Dec. 1848 when he was paid £4-7s-0d. The salary of the master was increased by the parliamentary grant in aid of workhouse teachers salaries which was £14-4s-0d "for the year ending Lady Day 1855."³ The average attendance of children at the school that year was 18 boys and 12 girls.³

The Gateshead Workhouse, which was built in 1840, replaced the old almshouse which was found to be inadequate. A piece of glebe land was selected, situated in Stoney Flatts, and for it the rector was paid £1,100 which he immediately invested so that the annual interest could be applied to the living.⁴ As the new workhouse cost upwards

1. *ibid.* 11. April 1837.
2. The Quarterly Abstract of the So. Shields Union Minutes in 1841 gives 45 children as the number in the Workhouse. The payment to Francis Mason is dated 20. Dec. 1842.
3. Fordyce. History of Durham. Vol. II. p.720.
4. Fordyce. History of Durham. Vol. II. p.768.

of £7,000 the Board of Guardians found it necessary to borrow, an action which was not uncommon when a new workhouse was needed. £1,800 was procured from the Loan Commissioners and £6,200 was borrowed from the Royal Exchange Insurance Company to be repaid in instalments over 20 years. Both loans were contracted at 5%. The workhouse must have been one of the better models for the children seem to have been kept apart from the main block. "On each side of the main building are the boys' and girls' wards, schoolrooms, bath-rooms, playgrounds, etc."¹ When Mr. Hurst of the London Board of Guardians visited the house on the 26th of May 1857 there were 56 boys and 26 girls in the workhouse attending the school there. This workhouse appears to have been well organised, for Mr. Hurst made no complaint and it is probably the sort of institution Mr. Tufnell had in mind when he said in 1836 "Three months education in a well-conducted workhouse was worth to the children almost as many years of such instruction as they can get at home by attending village schools."²

Very similar were the workhouses at Stockton and Sunderland, the former having 35 children attending the workhouse school on Lady Day 1851³ and the latter having 38 boys and 24 girls present in separate schools on Aug. 1855 when they were inspected by Mr. T.A. Browne, government

1. *ibid.* Vol.II. p.768.
2. Poor Law Commissioner Report 1836. Mr. Tufnell's
3. Fordyce. History of Durham Vol.II. Report.
p.166.

inspector. Mr. Duncan Cameron the boys teacher got a bad report; "The boys were in a low state of discipline, and their attainments were very moderate," while Anne Hawksford, the girls teacher was commended: "The girls passed a fair examination: several appeared lively and intelligent."¹

Sunderland Board of Guardians were helped considerably financially by a tax imposed on ships coming into the Wear. By an Act of George III 31.(1791) ships were charged 2d. per ton for cargoes carried in or out of the Wear, with the exception of coal which was taxed at $\frac{1}{2}$ d. a ton. This revenue was to be applied to the Poor Rate and in 1818 came to a total of £2,400 which was a good part of the £6,000 collected in that year for the poor. With such financial assistance it is no surprise to see how the town could have a workhouse capable of accommodating 500 persons and holding two schools within its walls. Both Sunderland and Stockton workhouses acquired parliamentary aid for teachers' salaries, Sunderland receiving £43..17s in 1854² while Stockton received £24..16s.. for the year ending Lady Day 1853.³

The smaller Unions seem to have sent the children to the nearest school usually the National School, if any education was provided for them at all. The Teesdale Union with its workhouse in Barnard Castle sent its pauper children

1. Minutes of Committee of Council. Mr. T.A. Browne's report. 1855.
2. Fordyce. History of Durham. Vol.II. p.468.
3. *ibid.* Vol.II. p.167.

to the National School in the 1850s and in 1870.¹ Sedgefield workhouse was very small, the same building being used before and after the Poor Law Amendment Act; here the children were sent out to the National School too.² The same applies to Lanchester and Weardale Unions.

Any assessment of the quality of education provided in the workhouse schools is very difficult to make. Some historians would have us believe that "the education provided for the children was of the scantiest"³ while the only subject taught to any great extent was reading⁴ and much of the time was spent in household chores and industrial employment. But there was some sign of improvement after the setting up of the Poor Law Board of 1847; "Meanwhile the workhouse schools continued to improve very slowly in educational efficiency."⁵ Dr. Kay gives much the same position when he declares "The education provided for the children sent to the workhouses was valueless and the children born and bred there were idle and profligate."⁶ The children were for the most part orphans, bastards and deserted children,⁷ yet some other observers who had seen some of the better workhouses gave a picture entirely opposite to this. Of course one must remember that the value of a school no matter

1. Fordyce states this in Vol.II. p.31. and the same is given in the Local Government Board Report 1871
2. See Appendix 24. p.480.
3. D. & B. Webb. English Poor Law Policy p.73.
4. *ibid.* p. 258.
5. *ibid.* p. 113.
6. Poor Law Commissioners Reports 1836 Appendix B.
7. *ibid.* 1838 p.89.

what sort it is depends to a large extent on the masters, teachers and the administration behind them. In the case of a workhouse school, an enlightened and active master of the workhouse could ensure a sound school. Thus a school could vary as its staff varied. Tufnell gave a glowing picture of workhouse education in the better workhouses. Nicholls, too, gave the workhouse a good report, although he, as one of the three original Kings of Somerset House, could scarcely do any other. In his work "The History of the English Poor Law" he says the inmate of the workhouse was considerably better off than the ordinary labourer in food, clothing and care during sickness. Presumably the same applied to children. But workhouse schools must have differed between areas just as schools of similar types do today. Sir James Kay Shuttleworth describes one of the best workhouse schools in the Mitford Union where the master became ill. "William Rush (one of the pupils) unbidden, though a boy of only 13 years of age, took charge of the scholars. The master of the workhouse found the school in its usual order," and called in the Guardians to see it.¹ It can certainly be said that some of the workhouses provided good education between 1834 and 1870, good in terms of contemporary efforts, and that one or more of the bigger unions in Durham must have given a sound education at some period of their existence, but to be more specific is impossible

1. Sir. J.K. Shuttleworth - Four Periods of Public Education p. 287.

Workhouse education is interesting insofar as it illustrates the belief that education should be provided for the poor, the which belief had only become an accepted part of our way of life during the previous half century. Not that workhouse education played a great part in the total scheme for the numbers educated under this system were always a relatively small part of the whole number educated.¹ Besides the numbers taught in workhouse schools, however, there were probably a hundred or more children taught in Ragged Schools¹ in the County by 1850. The aims of these schools are well summed up in the statement made in the Directories for Durham City between 1850 and 1860. "To relieve the public from juvenile delinquency, vagrancy, mendicancy and consequent depravity. To rescue as many children as possible from degradation and misery. To prepare them for a useful and respectable course of life. To try the power of kindness over the young and destitute. Thus to discharge a Christian duty towards a class which particularly requires attention and amelioration"² The Durham Ragged School was in the Clock Mill, Milburngate and was under the supervision of the Rev. J. Cundill, Rector of the nearby St. Margaret's. The Ladies Committee consisted of several notables - Mrs. Cundill, Mrs. Wharton, Miss Raine and Miss Rippon. The Gentleman's Committee had three clerics on it and seven other noteworthies. The

1. See Local Govt. Report. 1871. Page 480 for figures for Co. Durham.
2. Walker. Directory of Durham City 1860. p.6.

School of course was financed by public subscriptions as were the similar schools to be found at Stockton, Hartlepool and Sunderland. The Bishop of Durham was patron of the school in Silver Street Sunderland which was set up in 1850.¹ The one in Hartlepool was opened in February 1848 according to Fordyce² and the average attendance was about 70. It is unusual to find that half of the children attending this school paid schoolpence, but apparently this was on the understanding that they would be allowed free as soon as conditions would allow. This is peculiar because the free scholars were being clothed twice a year. Surely a bad piece of educational financing to pay for clothing while neglecting to give free education. Stockton Ragged School was opened in 1853 in Castle Gate and had an average attendance of about 60. The reason for these Ragged Schools was that many children found they were unable to attend school because they had "no fitting clothes and no regular family meals,"³ hence their special needs. Thus these schools filled a gap at the lowest level which had been left by the National Schools. The latter were for the poor, but these Ragged Schools were for the still poorer.

1. Fordyce. History of Durham II p.466.
2. Sharpe in his History of Hartlepool quotes 1843.
3. Minutes of Committee of Council. 1845. p.175.

Chapter 8.

Grants from Parliament.

Roebuck's bill of 1833 was abortive. In its place came the first grant to education of £20,000 (excluding the grants made during the Commonwealth period towards education). This was the first positive piece of state intervention in education and although it may have appeared insignificant in quantity, it stands as an unconventional action in a period of traditional laissez-faire. It is against the background of growing free trade, of Adam Smith philosophy and typical conservatism in British politics that the 1833 grant makes a landmark not only in education history but also in political and economic history. The grant was passed by a vote of 50 to 26 late in the Parliamentary session.

The money was originally to be used to finance school buildings and any application for assistance had to be supported by either of the two major voluntary societies. Applications from large cities and towns were given preference insofar as local subscriptions had to provide half the cost, the less populated areas often finding it difficult to raise enough for the teacher let alone the building. In the first year the two societies got almost equal shares but it soon became evident that the Established Church was to get the major share. Indeed between 1839 and 1850, the Church of England nominees got four-fifths of the government grant.¹ Applications proved to be too many. In the first

1. Minutes of Committee of Council 1850/51. Vol.I.

year appeals for over £24,000 had to be rejected. Any grant had to be preceded by a full account of public contributions received and after receipt of the government grant audit of accounts had to be accepted and reports had to be submitted.¹ An initial check was also made to make certain that public money was necessary and that plentiful local contributions might not be found to build the school without government assistance.

The Committee of the Privy Council to superintend the government grant was set up by Order in Council of 10th April 1839. This committee was one of the standing committees of the Privy Council. The Lord Pres. of the Council is ex-officio the president of all such committees but the Vice President generally takes charge in his absence. The Secretary superintended the whole course of business and it was to this post that Kay Shuttleworth came as the 1st State official in Education to wield immense influence in the 1840s. Regulations for the administration of the grant were drafted on 24th September 1839.² Every application had to be addressed "To the Right Honourable the Lords of the Committee of Council on Education." who had the right of inspection once the grant was made, but it was stated that the inspectors would not interfere but were only concerned

1. Treasury Minute 30. Aug. 1833. Given in Newcastle Commission Vol.I. p.499.
2. Minutes of Committee of Council 1840. p.2.

with the collection of facts and information. Stricter controls were enforced than previously. The building had to be substantial and the land held in good legal tenure. A series of 42 questions were to be answered by the Trustees before any payment was made and these covered various aspects of sanitation, building, walls, windows, ventilation, neighbourhood etc. Inspectors were also given detailed instructions as to what to inspect and these orders too were exceedingly thorough. In order to assist the Trustees of a school and also make the whole scheme of building a school less costly, a variety of plans were prepared by the Committee of Council which were suitable for different sizes of schools.¹ Forms of conveyancing, bills of quantities and estimates and even standard forms for the Indenture of Pupil Teachers were provided by the Committee. It had been found before 1840 that many deeds for schools were found faulty often because they had not been enrolled in Chancery or had by mistake been conveyed to individual trustees and thus required a new deed on the death of the specified trustees. By an Act of 1841 corporations were allowed to hold such deeds in perpetuity. On December 3rd 1839 a loophole was allowed for schools not affiliated to the two societies who now were permitted to apply for grant, but had to be scrutinized concerning religious instruction to be given.

1. See plans in folder.

It was in August 1846 that a new system of payment was introduced and that was for training apprentice teachers and also to schoolmasters "whose zeal and success in teaching, may, on the report of the Inspectors appear to entitle them to such encouragement."¹ Pupil teachers were to be at least thirteen years of age and were to receive a payment of ten shillings at the end of the first year rising to one pound at the end of the fifth and last year. Stipendiary monitors could also receive payment ranging from five shillings at the end of the first year to twelve shillings and tenpence at the end of their fourth and final year. These monitors had to pass an examination at the end of each year which permitted them to continue work. The master or mistress who instructed the pupil teachers also received payment for the number he instructed - £5 for one each year, £9 for 2, £12 for 3 and an additional £3 for every additional apprentice. He or she would also receive £2.10s. for one stipendiary monitor, £4 for 2, £6 for 3 and £1.10s. for each additional monitor. For this grant the teacher instructed the pupil teachers and monitors for 1½ hours on each of five days a week.² After the apprenticeship the pupil teacher could apply for a Queen's Scholarship which provided £75 over a period of three years at the Normal School, which too were supported by government grants from 1844.

1. Minute of Comm. of Council dated 25th Aug. 1846.
2. Minute of Comm. of Council 21st Dec. 1846.

By a minute of 18th December 1847 grants for books or maps were to be made of up to 2/- per scholar per year or 2/6 if there was one or more pupil teachers in the school. The books and maps were to be drawn from the Committee of Council's approved list and the publishers allowed a discount of forty per cent. to purchasers.

Also in 1847 on June 28th the Wesleyan Connexion were allowed to submit demands for government funds and on the 18th December of the same year the Roman Catholic Poor School Committee were granted the same concession provided that their masters were not in Holy Orders.

The annual grants paid by the Committee of Council "had never been regarded as permanent"¹ and other schemes at various times were brought forward. In 1853 such a scheme was introduced by which the country was to be divided into rural and urban districts the latter to be financed out of local rates, while the rural areas were to be provided for by the grants from the general revenue of the country and expended through the Committee of Council, payments being dependent on attendance. The section concerning urban areas was rejected primarily because this part of the plan had to be effected by an Act of Parliament whereas the other could be effected by a minute of the Committee of Council and so was adopted. A payment was made to the managers of a school for each child who had

1. Newcastle Commission Vol.I. p.23.

attended at least 176 days a year, hence the name Capitation Grant, this becoming "an established part of the system serving as a premium on regularity of attendance."¹ The Capitation Grant was originally offered to places of less than 5000 population provided they were not towns, but it was later extended to the whole country. In 1854 it amounted to £5957 but by 1859 had reached £61,183.²

The only other payment made by the Committee of Council, or the Education Department as it became in 1856, was to Workhouse teachers. This was first made in 1846, a total of £30,000 and it remained at about this level up to 1858. £30 was granted to a teacher with a Certificate of Efficiency while the lowest payment was £15 per year for a teacher with a Certificate of Permission. The scale for mistresses in workhouses was slightly less with respective figures of £24 and £12 per year. This could be supplemented by the capitation grant of 12/- per year for each scholar attending the requisite 176 days. Thus the average salary for a 1st Class Workhouse teacher came to £65 in 1859 as compared with £133 for the 1st Class teacher in common elementary schools.³

To the schools who received assistance from the government grant the money received played an important part. Up to half of the cost of the building could be

1. Newcastle Commission Vol.I. p.24.
2. Newcastle Commission Vol.I. p.315.
3. Newcastle Commission Vol.I. p.362.

acquired from Parliament while by 1858 the grant also provided about one-quarter of the income of those schools in receipt of government help,¹ most of which was paid on behalf of teachers and pupil teachers.² About half of the total payments of over 4 million pounds made by Parliament between 1839 and 1859 was towards teachers, assistants and pupil teachers while about a quarter of the total was paid for buildings and repairs and improvements thereto. The grant seemed to be allocated evenly among the various counties,³ according to the size of their populations. County Durham received a total of £63,334..4..6³/₄d. between 1833 and 1859.

The large towns and the densely populated rural areas were given most assistance before the capitation grant was introduced because the promoters were compelled to provide at least an amount equivalent to the sum received in assistance. Darlington schools, for instance, received about £370 from the government between 1833 and 1849. South Shields obtained over £1000 during the same period. But the smaller places still managed to benefit by obtaining smaller amounts. In 1846 Framwellgate Moor got a grant of £50 towards building while Byers Green, five years earlier, had obtained the same amount also for building. Ferryhill's small village school just outside the market place was assisted by a donation of £98 in 1848; Shincliffe benefitted

1. Newcastle Commission Vol.I. p.68.
2. *ibid* Vol.I. p.579.
3. *ibid* Vol.IV p.276.

to the extent of £82; Whitworth received £100¹. Besides these grants for buildings many schools were able to obtain grants for books and apparatus,² which were at the most only a few pounds, but when one considers the small number of books required during this period to satisfy the needs of a school, and also the low cost of these books, the grants from Parliament must have in some cases gone a long way to equipping a school. Seaton Carew received £3..3s..4d. for equipment between 1833 and 1849 and the number of children accommodated at the school was about 80. The sum would probably buy a reading book for each child. One might argue that this is not very much - one book per child for a sixteen year period, but one must remember that many schools would operate with less books than this.

Contemporary opinion seems to vary as to the influence of the government grant in stimulating local efforts to set up schools. The Newcastle Commission found that the government grant appeared not to increase the number of schools but only to improve those already in existence.³ Yet two pages later in the Commission's report it states that the grant obviously stimulated efforts of building. Most of those concerned with education who were interviewed by the Commission seemed to consider the grant was a stimulus to local effort.⁴ Only one of those interviewed said

1. For full lists see Appendices 29 and 30.

2. See Appendix 30.

3. Newcastle Commission. Vol.I. p.69.

4. *ibid.* Vol.II. p.415.

that in some cases grants from the government or the central authority (presumably the National Society) caused local subscriptions to diminish. This diversity of opinion cannot be resolved but it would appear that the government grant did mean that schools which lacked local subscriptions were able to survive where otherwise they may not have done. To make up a deficiency of income by increasing fees was in some areas impossible because of the poverty of the parents. There must have been the occasional school management body which used the government grant as a means of alleviating the local burden. The Rev. F. Watkins, writing of the North Eastern Region, says that some schools, on receiving financial assistance to supplement teachers salaries, use this as a means of paying the teacher less from local funds. "They use him as a lever to lift up the pecuniary burden of the institution, and do not consider that one chief object of these Minutes of which they are then taking advantage is, to lift up the master himself..."¹

The aim of the Capitation Grant was to encourage good attendance. The Reverend J. Todd, Vicar of Shincliffe in 1858² concurred, yet it was true of some parts of County Durham that the poor children were unable to attend the requisite number of days so as to obtain the grant.³

1. Minutes of the Comm. of Council. 1848/9/50 Vol.II. Report of Rev. F. Watkins.
2. Newcastle Commission Vol.II. p.419.
3. See comment of Rev. R. Brown. Wesleyan Methodist minister. Bishop Auckland, Newcastle Commission Vol.II. p.419.

Some schools, too, were unable to afford a certificated teacher and so by a Minute dated April 2nd 1853 were denied the benefit of the capitation grant.

Even if it is not certain what the effect of the government grant would be on individual schools, generally the financial help tended to lift the standard of the public week-day schools. Most of those giving evidence before the Newcastle Commission stated that the schools for the public were far superior in general to those run privately. The statement of the Reverend R. Brown of Bishop Auckland is typical of what other witnesses said "Public schools are incomparably superior."¹ This was not only due to the financial assistance but also to the careful inspection of assisted schools by government appointed inspectors.

1. Newcastle Commission. Vol.II.p.422.

Chapter 9.

Schools Aided or Provided by Industrialists.

The nineteenth century saw the development of County Durham into a heavy industrial area, which provided much of the basic raw material and some of the finished products for the "Industrial Revolution." Before the coming of the railways, which opened up the county between 1830 and 1850, there was already evidence of what the future would hold. Lead mining as a major industry had established itself in the narrow valleys to the west in the Pennines in the middle of the previous century although lead had been mined there in small quantities for centuries. The influx of workmen to this area begins in the 17th Century with a flow of staunch Presbyterians from the Scottish Lowlands,¹ and as the demand for lead increased in the latter 18th Century, more workmen continued to pour into the upper valleys of the Tees and Wear. The mining of coal also precedes the "Industrial Revolution" but during the late 18th and early 19th Century we see a movement of the centre of the worked coalfield from the west towards the coast, a movement which is still going on today as the shallow mines in the west are closing down and much of the production being done by the easterly mines of Horden, Easington and Blackhall where much deeper mining is taking place. The fold of the coal seams is such that in the

1. J.L. Dobson: Charitable Education in the Weardale District (1700 - 18300)

west the coal is found on or near the surface while it dips underground towards the sea so necessitating more advanced mining techniques in the east. Between 1800 and 1850 most of the coal mines were found west of a line drawn between Bishop Auckland and Sunderland, and within this region the emergence of colliery villages with their long rows of sometimes back-to-back houses was a remarkable phenomenon which led to problems of sanitation, water supply and of the provision of religious and educational facilities. "Populations during the last 25 years have come so suddenly together" says the Reverend Richard Brown, Wesleyan Minister of Bishop Auckland in 1859 "that it has been wholly beyond the means of local liberality to overtake the necessities of the case, and society is not yet so established, and in mining districts never will be, as to make the providing of adequate means of education a probably remunerative business."¹ Some statistics would illustrate this. Crook, for instance, had had a fairly stationary population up to 1831. In that year there had been a total population of 200; in 1841 it was 538 and in 1851 it contained no less than 3,946 inhabitants "in consequence of the opening out of new coal mines."² Pitlington had a population of 304 in 1821 which reached 1632 in 1831 and 2,295 in 1841.³ West Auckland in 1811

1. Newcastle Commission: Vol.5.p.98.

2. Fordyce. History of Durham. Vol.I.p.438.

3. Fordyce. History of Durham. Vol.I.p.401.

had a population of 971 but by 1841 "owing to the opening out of new collieries and the formation of the railroad, the number was 2,310."¹ Not far from West Auckland is Witton Park, the terminus of the Stockton - Darlington Railway, where evidence of the great influx of Welsh ironworkers and coal miners can be seen in the existence of the "Welsh Harp Inn."

Besides these two staple industries there were others which were important in the early 19th Century. On the Tyne, during this half century, the chemical industry emerged in firms such as the Jarrow Chemical Works, the Friars Goose Chemical Works, Gateshead, the Felling Chemical Works etc. These firms were flourishing long before the Teeside works which predominate today. Indeed many of these Tyneside firms amalgamated later, and were absorbed just before the turn of the 19th Century by United Alkali which itself became one of the constituents of the 1926 Imperial Chemical Industry consortium.

In the history of philanthropy, the ironworks of Ambrose Crowley at Swalwell and Winlaton stand as witness to the existence of industrialist benevolence long before Robert Owen's efforts at New Lanark. Crowley's works date from the 17th Century and continued into the 19th. At Winlaton a variety of iron products were made - anvils anchors, pumps, cylinders for steam engines, spades, shovels

1. *ibid.* Vol.I. p.605.

and saws,¹ to name just a selection. Iron goods were also produced by the Darwent Iron Company at Consett and raw iron was produced at other places in the county notably at Witten Park, Tow Law and Tudhoe, the latter at one time reputed to have the greatest ironworks in the world. Tow Law and Tudhoe were both under the aegis of the Weardale Iron and Coal Company which held many coalmines besides its ironworks until the Nationalisation of the coal industry. Although the railways provided a great deal of employment in the period 1830 to 1860 in the building and laying of a network of track, this was largely temporary employment and did not lead, except in the case of Shildon where engines were built, to a close-knit society employed principally by the railways. The Soho Engine Works at Shildon however were extensive, occupying six acres of land including "spacious and substantial iron and brass foundries, smith's and boiler-makers' shops, a locomotive building house, with offices, houses and cottages."² Here, assistance was given to education.

A most thorough and highly commended system of education was provided by the London Lead Company for its workmen's children during the time it operated in the Alston Moor region. The Company had arisen as an amalgamation of two Quaker companies in 1704, the "Governor and Company for

1. Mackenzie: History of Durham. Vol.I.p.194.
2. Fordyce. op.cit. Vol.I.p.569.

Smelting down Lead with Pit Coal and Sea Coal," and the "Ryton Smelting Company" the latter operating at the time in the Derwent valley.¹ Mining in the Derwent Valley began to decline in the 18th Century leaving only one mine operating in this region at Blanchland.² New leases were acquired by the Company in 1753 and afterwards, and work during the next century tended to be centred around Nenthead, just out of the County, at Middleton-In-Teesdale and at Stanhope. Agent Thomas Dodd, in giving his report to the ruling Court of Assistants in London in 1800 gives a glowing account of mining prospects in the Teesdale and neighbouring areas,³ and three years later states that 676 workmen are already under the employ of the Company in his agency in the North.⁴ Dodds resided mainly at Stanhope but occasionally at Nenthead. By 1800, then, the Company was firmly established, and having behind it experience of charitable assistance,⁵ including some provision of education at Nenthead from 1760, it is no wonder that a more positive approach developed around 1820 when the growth of the monitorial system in education was so apparent and when enlightened men emerged such as agent Robert Stagg⁶ and the

1. For a general account see A. Raistrick "Two Centuries of Industrial Welfare."
2. J.L. Dobson quotes one in 1821. "Charitable Education in the Weardale District 1700 - 1830."
3. Minutes of the London Lead Co. 20th June 1800.
4. *ibid.* Aug. 18th 1803.
5. Several examples recorded in the minutes e.g. 2. July 1812, £50 to poor in Weardale. 7 July 1813 100 guineas to the poor in Russia.
6. Appointed agent at Stanhope Mill 13th April 1809.

Reverend George Newby who was Vicar of Witton-le-Wear and also representative of Bishop Barrington. A minute of March 7th 1812 records a payment made by the Company of £20 towards the building of a school at Nenthead, where previously the school had been held in the Company's offices. Nothing came of this until 1818 when on Mr. Stagg's recommendation it was resolved that two schools be established, one at Nenthead and one at Middleton.¹ The Bishop of Durham, Bishop Barrington, was at this time considering the building of schools in Weardale, and the Court of Assistants agreed to co-operate, and to abandon the possibility of building a Company school at Stanhope. A special meeting was held on the 19th of January 1819 to discuss the Bishop's proposed schools but the two schools at Middleton and Nenthead were still to be proceeded with. A contribution of £400 was made by the Company to the Bishop's fund for the new schools in the hope that all the children of the Company's workmen "employed in Teesdale and Alston Moor will receive the rudiments of religious and useful education and in some degree realise the expectations entertained by the Bishop of Durham."² This considerable grant would have been sufficient to set up a Company school but the Company were to gain in acquiring the use of the seven schools proposed under the Bishop's scheme. Both Nenthead and Middleton schools were opened in 1819, Mr. Henry Tucker

1. Minutes of the London Lead Co. 19th Feb. 1818.
2. *ibid.* 19th Jan. 1819.

and Mr. Francis Joseph James respectively being appointed first masters at salaries of £100 per annum.¹

The school at Middleton was administered under the general regulations for the London Company's Schools which were drawn up in 1818.² Fire, books and stationery were provided by the Company but the parents of the children were compelled to pay one shilling a quarter per child while others who used the school had to pay 2/6d a quarter. Attendance was to be compulsory not only at school but at church on Sundays. Boys could leave school at the age of twelve and girls at the age of fourteen provided that they had a teacher's certificate which stated that they had complied with all regulations and had been well behaved. No denominational catechism nor doctrines were to be taught. A register of attendance, progress and behaviour was to be furnished to the Company's agent on demand. Mr. Stagg wrote to the Court of Assistants in 1824 to the effect that schoolmaster Mr. James had refused to deliver up the registers to the agent on request and the Court gave Mr. Stagg any powers he required to control the offending master.³ To make certain the Company's schools were efficiently run an inspector was appointed not only to inspect the Middleton and Nenthead schools but to visit at least twice a year all schools which workmen's children attended.⁴ Thus the

1. *ibid.* 6th May 1819 and 1st July 1819.
2. For a detailed list of regulations see the Newcastle Commission Vol. II. p. 397.
3. Minutes of the London Lead Co. 1st. April 1824.
4. Newcastle Commission. Vol. II. p. 368.

Thus the Company had a detailed record of each child, which was of use in the placing of workmen in later life to positions of trust in the Company. Mr. Foster's report of the Middleton School to the Newcastle Commission is full of glowing commendation. He tells of "astonishing rapidity" in arithmetic and excellence in reading - "Out of 27 children into whose hands White's English History was put, after being opened at random, 21 read fluently though with strong local accent."¹ He records that Mr. Hyslop, who had taught at the school for 25 years, had "never had a back word" from any of the children. Besides the establishment of the two schools at Nenthead and Middleton, the Company paid towards the cost of operating other schools which their children attended, usually in proportion to the number they had in such schools. Liberal contributions were made to a school at Low Forest;² proportionate payments were made to Forest and Frith School, while the school at Egglestone was provided jointly by the Duke of Cleveland, the London Lead Company and T. Hutchinson Esq.³ Payments for scholars were made to many other schools; Raistrick gives a list of many schools which lie outside the County - Ashgill, Carlebeck, Garrigill, Holwick, Knock, Lunehead etc. We can leave the last word to Robert Stagg as to the value of the educational work of the Company.

1. *ibid.* Vol.II. p.369.

2. Fordyce. *History of Durham.* Vol.II.

3. *ibid* Vol.II.

In 1847 he writes: "Upwards of a quarter of a century has by now tested the soundness of the Principles adopted and the great value of these establishments, to the influence of which may mainly be attributed the total absence of rebellions and insubordination of every kind, and that Chartism - radicalism - and every other abomination have for so very many years been strangers to the concern - and there does not exist today in the whole kingdom, a more orderly, industrious and contented body of workmen."¹

The Beaumont Lead Mining Company was reputed to be the largest mining estate in the world in the 1850s, even greater than the London Lead Company.² It had 36 separate mines in the Weardale area alone in 1820 but by 1895 the Company had abandoned all but a few of these. During the first half of the 19th Century this company had contributed to many of the existing schools in the region and had built seven on its own account, only the one at Newhouse in Weardale being within this county. Here the working miners had contributed 10/- each, a total of £400 towards its building while Mr. Beaumont contributed £500 himself.³ Newhouse was the property of W.B. Beaumont M.P. and the school was built in a field near the house for the benefit of the children of workmen. The interior of the school was well

1. Letter by Robert Stagg to the Court of Assistants 1847. See Raistrick.
2. Newcastle Commission. Vol. II. p. 345. Mr. Foster's Report.
3. *ibid.* Vol. II. p. 345. Also Fordyce. Vol. I. p. 676.

lighted with ten windows on the south side and twelve on the north side, and extensive playgrounds were provided.¹ The Beaumont schools had a system of regulations very similar to, and presumably copied from those of the London Lead Company. The reward of "tickets", similar to the London Company's system, was used to encourage good attendance, good work and good behaviour, four of these tickets leading to the acquisition of a bible, and other numbers of tickets being rewarded with other prizes of books, mathematical instruments, pictures and maps.² Instead of an inspector to supervise the schools, two agents and four miners were appointed to act as occasional visitors to the schools, two of these visitors being able to call a special meeting concerning any of the Company's schools. These conditions applied to all the schools controlled by the Company in East and West Allendale and in Weardale. Mr. Foster gives the Newhouse School an excellent report in 1858. Music was taught well. Drawing must have been exceptional - "a facility for sketching..... which I have never before seen carried to such perfection in elementary schools."³ The children were as good as those in the Barrington School at Bishop Auckland while the desks which were nine years old were without marks or cuts.

With the joint effort of the two companies and the

1. Fordyce. History of Durham. Vol. I. p. 669.
2. General account of the ticket system. Newcastle Commission Vol. II. p. 389.
3. Newcastle Commission Vol. II. p. 346.

Bishop of Durham, the upper dales of the Wear and Tees were well provided with a good system of education, to equal, if not better, any to be found in any part of the country. The stability of the population in mind and attitude, their religious beliefs, their educational and intellectual abilities all reflect the impact of years lived under a sound education system. An old woman who had been brought up in Weardale "eulogised the Company's schools as preparing the young people for any vocation in life, and alluded with contempt to those who 'fash awa' their time at Church schools."¹ Sufficient praise indeed!

Between 1800 and 1860 most of the coal-mines were to be found in the western half of the county, scattered in no set pattern, and under several different proprietors. The interest in education shown by the lead mine owners in the west was taken up by most of the coal owners. Colonel Stobart, coal-owner of Etherley, says that most of the coalowners and ironmasters subscribe to their local schools² and it appears that this was no biased statement. Indeed of subscriptions, which constituted about one third of the income of schools in the Durham and Auckland Unions, the coalowners gave 56 per cent³ in 1858. This compares favourably with the 14.7% given by ministers of religion and the 27% given by landowners, and it must be remembered

1. *ibid.* Vol.II. p.371.
2. *ibid.* Vol.II. p.421.
3. Newcastle Commission Vol.I. p.76.

that some part of this 27% would be by coalowners who were also landowners, such as Lord Londonderry. Some mine-owners compelled their men to pay towards the schools, in some cases by levy. "At the - Coal and Iron Works the men are taxed to the amount of 1½d a week..... for the support of the schools."¹ It is probable that this was the Weardale Coal and Iron Company mentioned before as this was the only Coal and Iron Company of any significance. Unfortunately the records of this company seem to have been destroyed after nationalisation. In most cases the premises were provided by the colliery owners and the men were asked to pay fees of one penny per week for each child educated.² Still there must have been some lack of educational facilities, for the Newcastle Commission reports a miners' petition demanding compulsory education between ten and fourteen years at least on a part-time basis and also "that it should be compulsory on the owners of mines to build schools on their several collieries."³

Wynyard Park, the extensive seat of the Londonderry family is situated about two miles away from the village of Thorp-Thewles. Sir Henry Vane Tempest died August 1st. 1813 and left his estate to his daughter Lady Frances-Anne-Emily Vane Tempest who was then only thirteen. She married, on April 3rd 1819, Charles-William Steward, Baron of Donegal

1. *ibid.* Vol.II. p.334.
2. *ibid.* Vol.II. p.335.
3. *ibid.* Vol.I. p.197.

in Ireland and Lord Londonderry. Together they held large estates in England and Ireland the former going to Lady Londonderry and the latter to the succeeding Marquis in Ireland, on the death of Lord Londonderry on 1st March 1854. The estates in County Durham included several collieries, Pensher, Rainton, Pittington and Old Durham, plus coke ovens, wagons, Seaham railway, North Hetton Railway, a quarry, six farms and Seaham harbour.¹ Contributions towards education were made by the Vane Tempests to all of these areas early in the century. A sum of £10 was paid out of the Vane Tempest Account as early as 1801 to the master of the charity school at West Rainton for two years salary.² This apparently became an annual £10 later in the century.³ Similar early subscriptions were made to Longnewton School of five guineas, to a school at Houghton, (possibly the Grammar School) of £2.10s. and to Sunday Schools at Durham and Newbottle.⁴ Much more significant was the work done by the Londonderry family as their collieries expanded towards the middle of the century. By 1858 the Londonderry family had established schools at Thorp-Thewles, Pittington, Penshaw, West Rainton, Old Durham and New Seaham, although the whereabouts of the school at Old Durham is unknown to me. Thorp Thewles school was built by the

1. Account Book of the Most Honourable Frances Anne, Marchioness of Londonderry Stock Account for Dec. 31st. 1854.
2. Account Book. op.cit. date June 5th 1801.
3. Fordyce History of Durham quotes £10 p.a. under West Rainton School in the 1850's.
4. For these, see Account Book 1801-1803.

Marchioness on the north side of the village in 1824 and she contributed annually to its running.¹ The school only consisted of a single room which was used for Sunday school too. Standing high in Low Pittington was the Londonderry school opened in January 1853 to accommodate about 180 children.² At the village of Shiney Row, (Pensher) about three miles north-west of Houghton a school was endowed with £15 per annum by Sir Henry Vane, Lady Frances's father for educating ten sons of miners employed in his Pensher colliery.³ In the 1850s, however, Lord Londonderry converted his "pay-house" into a school-house which was afterwards enlarged to accommodate over a hundred boys and over a hundred girls and the school was supported by the private bounty of the Marchioness of Londonderry. The school built at West Rainton by the Londonderry family stands south-west of the church and bore the inscription "This edifice was erected in 1850 by Frances Anne Vane, Marchioness of Londonderry as an encouragement to the Colliers to promote the moral and religious education of their children and a lasting memorial of the interest she takes in their welfare."⁴ This building cost between £600 and £700 and all the furnishings were provided by the Marchioness, and she also covered all expenses. The number on the books in the 1850s was around 250. The New Seaham School was opened in March 1858 and

1. Fordyce. History of Durham. Vol.I.
2. *ibid.* Vol.I. p.401.
3. *ibid.* Vol.II. p.567.
4. *ibid.* Vol.II. p.570.

must have accommodated a large number of children for the salaries of teachers for this school came to £230 per annum.¹ The supervision of all of these schools was held by the Marchioness but the practical inspection of them fell in the 1850s to the vicar of New Seaham from whom reports had to be conveyed to the Marchioness on the state of the schools, not only of the buildings but of the work inside. Among the Londonderry documents are private letters from the agents responsible for the schools.² W.A. Scott, Vicar of New Seaham in July 1858 gives his report and advice on the schools and states that her ladyship has been "the honoured instrument in the hands of God". In a report of 1861 the Rev. W.A. Scott commends William Reid for a special prize "as he works every night from 6 p.m. till 2 a.m. in your Ladyship's colliery and yet attends School regularly and answers extremely well." As a stimulus to hard work the Marchioness gave several prizes, such as the one for needlework which could not be given to Margaret Moore for a "unique specimen" of work because she had obtained the same prize a year earlier.³ When the schools' regulations were drafted, the aim was to keep these schools entirely for children of workmen but it was not long before other children were accepted, for example some of the children of the workmen of Lord Durham at Pensher School.⁴ By 1861 nearly one half

1. See an unsigned letter obviously from an agent recommending reductions in salary in the Londonderry Records at the Durham County Record Office.
2. In Durham County Record Office.
3. W.A. Scott's report for 1861.
4. Geo. Elliott's report. 20th August 1861.

of the children at Pittington were "non-colliery children." The Master of St. Oswald's School told the Newcastle Commission that the Londonderry schools were very good, and added "Her workpeople have never struck for wages" as proof of the value of the schools.¹ If one can believe the local press, then the educational work of Lord and Lady Londonderry was of great value. "The Marquis of Londonderry has adopted very liberal and effectual measures to place the opportunities of a sound education within the reach of all the inhabitants of his popular mining villages. His lordship's managing agent, Mr. Hindhaugh informed me that the cost to Lord Londonderry of the schools now in operation will amount to no less than a sum of £300 a year."² This was written before the major Londonderry schools were built.

The Marquis and Marchioness of Londonderry were not the only coal-owners who assisted in the provision of education, but the active work done by the Londonderry's cannot be matched by any other single colliery owner except possibly the Quaker Company of Pease & Partners. The renowned Quaker Edmund Backhouse owned the Black Boy Colliery at Condon Grange and built schools there for his workmen's children and placed them under the British system with a master obtained from London.³ Inspector Morell visited these schools on 7th May 1850 and gave them good reports.

1. Newcastle Commission. Vol.II. p. 430.
2. Article in the Durham Chronicle dated Aug. 29th 1846.
3. Minutes of Committee of Council. Mr. Morell's Report on British Schools 1848/9.

Close by, at South Church, the Adelaide Colliery School was erected in 1839 by Backhouse's friend and fellow Quaker, Joseph Pease and was assisted by the Society of Friends.¹ Admission to these schools was not confined to workmen's children. Pease and Partners owned several collieries in the Auckland and Crook areas and the Company was responsible for the founding of schools at Sunnyside, Peases West, Billy Row, Crook, Waterhouses and St. Helens, besides the Adelaide Colliery aforementioned.² All of these schools were under the method of the British and Foreign Schools Society yet many were assisted by other subscribers besides the Quaker Company. Most of these schools appeared to have been large. Billy Row school, for instance had accommodation for 278 children³ while the Waterhouses school situated at Hamilton Row, had accommodation for still more children - 300 in the mixed and 130 in the infants.⁴ In cost of establishing schools the effort of the Company must compare with the Londonderrys' work, although the workmen's children at the latter's schools attended free of charge while those of the former generally paid a fee of a penny a week.

Most of the colliery schools emerged after 1830 and as the century continued and more mines were opened, more assistance was given, till the 1870 Act removed some of the

1. Fordyce. History of Durham. Vol.I. p.544.
2. An article in the Northern Despatch dated 27th July 1862 concerning a lecture given by the secretary and director of Henry Pease and Co. Ltd. gives a list of schools founded by Joseph Pease.
3. Whellan. History of Durham. p.266.
4. *ibid.* p.308.

necessity. Occasional examples of schools supported by coal-owners can be found for most of the worked coalfield up to 1860. Monkwearmouth School was erected by the colliery owners, as was Pelton Boys. The owners of the Urpeth, Ouston and Twizell Collieries built the latter but only subscribed to the adjoining girls schools a sum of £20.¹ At Hebburn, where Humphrey Davy carried out experiments on gas and tried his first safety lamp, the colliery owners built a school, while in May 1866 a school was opened at West Harton with the help of a subscription from the mine-owner there.² Mr. Straker, the owner of Willington colliery subscribed to the building of the school which was opened there in October 1851.³ Liberal subscriptions were also given to the Byers Green and Newfield schools across the river.⁴ Henry Stobart, coal-owner, supported the Etherley school⁵ while the new schools in the 1850's of Wingate, Haswell and Thornley ^alent heavily on the subscriptions from coal-owners. At Wingate, the coalowners paid as much as £300 towards the erection of the schools.⁶ Very few of the mine-owners seemed to have neglected education where they mined, yet the colliery schools have to accept some heavy criticism from Commissioner Foster in 1858. "In the colliery schools there is no method, little or no superintendance and no proper apparatus for teaching",⁷ he says. He accuses

1. Fordyce. History of Durham Vol.II. p.620.
2. G.B. Hodgson. "The Borough of South Shields".
3. Fordyce. History of Durham. Vol.I. p.436.
4. *ibid.* Vol.I. p.588.
5. *ibid.* Vol.I. p.610.
6. *ibid.* Vol.II. p.387.
7. Newcastle Commission Vol.II. p.335.

managers and teachers of "gross negligence" and adds that "in numerous instances we found the master of a collier school either smoking, or sitting idle, or out among the neighbours." It appears from Foster's account that not sufficient care was taken over the management of schools, the owners losing interest once the schools were built and under way.

From the colliery schools we turn to those associated with ironworks. The earliest of these was that set up by Ambrose Crowley for his workmen at Winlaton. After five years operating at Sunderland, Crowley moved his works to Winlaton about 1690, later establishing an offshoot of the firm at Swalwell, both to produce a wide assortment of iron goods. "Crowley was undoubtedly a man of uncommon sagacity and energy, and the creator of his own fortune."¹ Knighted in 1706, appointed sheriff of London 1707, he died in 1713 when he was M.P. for Andover, but before he died Crowley had set up a code of laws for the government of his colony of workmen, the operation of which was continued by his successors till the firm moved from Winlaton in 1816. Among the provisions made by the Company were "Two free schools at Winlaton for ye children of the workmen at Crowley's Manufactory."² The workers paid a weekly assessment towards the cost of the many social services organised by the Company, these payments being graded proportionate to the

1. Mackenzie. History of Durham. Vol.II. p.194.
2. Durham Diocese Book 1793, in the Prior's Kitchen, Durham Cathedral.

amount of wages received.¹ It is stated that the Chaplain, the Clerk of the Poor, the domestic and every workman had to pay 9d. in the pound out of all the money they earned.² The work of the schoolmaster was carefully demarcated in the Law Book. "He shall not upon any account of races, cock-fightings, rope-dancers or stage players dismiss his scholars or any of them or absent himself, but shall constantly attend his school as aforesaid,"³ The times being laid down by the Court of Arbitrators which was the democratic governing body.⁴ Occasional examinations were to be made by the Chaplain⁴ or by the Governors. The Crowley Schools were another example of positive philanthropy on the part of Northern manufacturers. They lasted until 1816 when the Company abandoned Winlaton and the school at Winlaton was replaced by the new National School on the same site.⁵

The Weardale Iron and Coal Company, which was responsible for the development of Tow Law in the 1840s, assisted in the development of the school there. The National School which was opened in 1849 was built on a site provided by the Weardale Company and a grant of £300 was given towards the cost by the Company.⁶ The total cost was £1000 and the accommodation was for 400 in the mixed department and 200 in

1. The Law Book of the Crowley Ironworks - Surtees Society Edition. p. XXI.
2. *ibid.* p.175.
3. *ibid.* Clause 3 of Law 97.
4. *ibid.* Clause 7 of Law 97.
5. Mackenzie History of Durham Vol.II. p.194.
6. Ferdyce. *op.cit.* under Tow Law.

the infants.¹ The report of the Reverend D.J. Stewart M.A. in 1852 gives amazingly low numbers in attendance at these schools. There were only 27 boys and 39 girls at the examination; the average attendance was only 41 for the boys and 40 for the girls yet the school buildings were reported as being good. One can understand this when one reads that 91 boys left the school during the previous twelve months, and that the teacher was very poor and about to leave.² It illustrates that the successful provision of education necessitated the acquisition of a good teacher for at that time parents could register their dissatisfaction by opting out and keeping their children at home or at work. If there were also the reinforcement of high wages then good attendance was almost impossible.³ Consett Iron Works belonged to the Darwent Company in the early years after its establishment in 1841 and by 1851 it employed about 5,000 persons; the schools at Blackhill, Berry Edge (Consett) and Leadgate were erected and supported by the Company.⁴ At Leadgate part of the church buildings which were also built by the firm, was used as a girls' school and infant school while on the south side of the village was a boys' school erected by the Company who also paid the salary of the master. The Consett schools were

1. Whellan. History of Durham. p.421.
2. Minutes of the Committee of Council. 1852. Report of Rev. D.J. Stewart.
3. Fordyce. History of Durham gives the following wages obtainable at Tow Law about 1850. Vol. I. p.616.
Boys under 9 at the foundry 3/- to 4/- a week.
Boys under 10 at the pits or brick works. 6/- a week.
Boys under 13 at the pits 7/6 to 15/- a week.
4. Fordyce. op.cit. Vol.II. p.702.

British Schools which were under the patronage of the Iron Company, as the Company had provided the buildings. Blackhill had another school besides the Consett Iron Company, and this had been set up and was supported by O. Tregalles and Company a firm of tin plate manufacturers which had been founded in the region about 1850. I assume that this school was the one known as the Tin Mill School.¹

The first alkali works of importance were established at Walker on Tyne about the year 1796. A Mr. Losh, one of the partners in the firm, brought the Leblanc process from Paris in 1816, a process which produced soda crystals and mineral alkali from the decomposition of common salt and the success of which led to the erection of many works on the Durham side of the river. By 1873 there were about 25 alkali works in operation.² The most renowned of these was the Jarrow Chemical Company which was formed when new owners took over Isaac Cookson's works in 1844. Cookson had set up the works at Templetown in 1822 but it was taken over in 1844 by a partnership of James Stevenson (Glasgow), William Stevenson (London), J. Tennant (Glasgow) and J.C. Williamson (Hull). The works became the largest in the kingdom and displayed an octagonal mass of crystal soda two tons in weight six feet across the top and with walls eight inches thick at the Great Exhibition of 1851.³ In

1. Whellan. op.cit. p.1222.

2. Whellan. op.cit. p.129.

3. For a good general account see G.B. Hodgson. The Borough of South Shields.

the same year as its foundation the Jarrow Company set up the Barnes School at South Shields for the benefit of its workmen. The school was originally held in the old railway station but the new school built by the firm was finally completed on November 18th 1850. The workmen's children had to pay 2d. a week while others paid 5d. The schools, boys, girls and infants were in "handsome buildings with every convenience"¹ and the whole site occupied about a quarter of an acre and had a spacious playground. The building cost £1,100 and was attended by 101 boys, 52 girls and 90 infants on May 31st 1852 when J.D. Morell inspected the school. From all accounts, we gather that the schools were in every way model buildings at the time of their erection. The buildings were eventually handed over to the School Board just before the firm was transferred to the United Alkali Company in 1891. The only other school provided by the Chemical firms before 1860 was one at High Felling. It was built by the Felling Chemical Works which were carried on by Hugh Lee Pattinson and Company, the aforesaid founder being elected to the Chemical Jury at the Great Exhibition.² The school must have been large for it was attended by 500 children of both sexes says Fordyce. Friar's Goose Chemical Works at Gateshead also had a school associated with it and used by workmen's children

1. Report of J.D. Morell for year 1850. Minutes of Committee of Council.

2. Fordyce. op.cit. Vol.II. p.749.

but this was founded by a Mr. Gray, whose son was a renowned chemist. There seems to be no information at hand to indicate what connection Mr. Gray had with the chemical industry in general or the Friar's Goose Works in particular¹ yet it would seem likely that he was manager or owner of the firm.

Apart from the main industries represented above, there are few efforts of such size. Yet we can read of the Freeman and Stallingers of Sunderland granting the Reverend William Webb and his successors an annuity of £31.10s. which was to be given to some school (at that time the Gray Schools) on the 1st of July every year for which sum the Freeman and Stallingers could place 42 children in the school free of charge. Each Freeman had the right to nominate two children and each Stallinger one.² "At Gateshead the Hawk's Works had a school for the education of the children of the workmen and the younger part of the workmen themselves."³ After 1860 more support was given by the various firms as they expanded, but this is outside our scope. Some schools were built even after the 1870 Act but during the period between this act and the 1902 Act most of these schools were absorbed by the newly formed School Boards.

1. Fordyce Vol.II. p. 784.
2. Fordyce. op.cit. Vol.II. p.454.
3. M.G. Mason. M.Ed. Thesis 1951. History of Elementary Education on Tyneside before 1870. p.154.

There is no evidence of lack of responsibility by the industrialists in promoting education. Probably they were motivated by the hope that an educated workman is more amenable than an uneducated one. Certainly education in the early part of the century was aimed at fitting the workingman comfortably into his low social position, and to teach general acceptance of the will of God which had allocated the workman his low social status. Most industrialists and educationists who assisted the Newcastle Commission seemed to regard the educated men as "the most moral, the most steady at their work."¹ Educated men came forward as mediators in strikes and for this reason many owners were well-inclined towards the provision of education facilities. Whatever the motive, positive action was taken by many.

1. Newcastle Commission. Vol.II. p.344.

Chapter 10.

Private Venture Schools.

These are the schools which were set up by persons privately, usually with the aim of eking out an income. They varied in size and in standard of education provided, from the poor widow at Bishopton who taught six to eight small children in her own house,¹ to the excellent Nesham Hall Academy at Houghton-le-Spring where the best of the children could win medals for their educational prowess.² Dr. Hodgson points out that few occupations were incompatible with "school-keeping" and the initial capital outlay was so small in establishing such a school that it was open to anyone to set up a private school. "When other occupations fail, even for a time a private school can be opened, with no capital beyond the cost of a ticket in the window. Any room, however small and close, serves for the purpose."³ The majority of private schools tended to be small dame schools very inferior to the public elementary schools, but it is worth-while remembering that most of the reports one can read on the private schools have been written by those who were advocates of the public system as provided by the State or by the various societies. Many of the descriptions are astonishing but it is important to realise that these

1. Report of the Select Committee on the Education of the Poor 1818 - see under County Durham.
2. Some medals and copybooks from Nesham Hall Academy are held in the Durham County Record Office.
3. Report of Newcastle Commission. Vol. I. p. 94.

may have been the worst examples of private schools and possibly the exceptions. Let us look at probably the worst account of such a school - "In a garret up three pairs of dark, broken stairs, was a common day school, with forty children, in the compass of ten feet by nine. On a perch, forming a triangle with the corner of the room, sat a cock and two hens; under a stump bed, immediately beneath, was a dog kennel in the occupation of three black terriers whose barking added to the noise of the children, and the cackling of the fowls, on the approach of a stranger was almost deafening; there was only one small window at which sat the master, obstructing three-fourths of the light it was capable of admitting."¹ The school could be held in any room in any house, depending upon the scruples of the master or mistress. In Durham City many of the bigger houses which had several rooms, contained schools at some time or another. Crossgate had private schools at number 28, number 36 and number 55 in 1847 while in 1850, 52 and 56 South Street were also private schools. Many others were to be found in Elvet and Claypath.² Most of these houses were on the large side and would be capable of holding a small school. The teachers in private schools varied as much as did the buildings some being fairly efficient and others being entirely useless - "Ordinarily they are

1. Educational Reports. M. Sadler. Education in Large Towns. p. 458.
2. Walker. Durham Directory and Almanack. 1847 and 1850.

broken down," says the Rev. R. Brown of Bishop Auckland. "If competent in knowledge and ability they generally are dissipated. If of thorough moral character, commonly they are afflicted, or have been unfortunate in business. There are honourable exceptions; the above, however, is the rule."¹ Most of the masters and mistresses were untrained and the only qualification many of them had was that they were incapable of anything else. In 1858, in Mr. Foster's ten inspected areas in the North, which included the Durham and Auckland Unions of parishes, only 0.47 per cent. of private school teachers had a certificate, that is less than one out of two hundred. At the same period Mr. Foster estimated for the same region that 38.8 per cent of masters in public weekday schools were trained in college and 23.4 per cent. of the mistresses.² A sample of these private school teachers, said the Newcastle Commission, would be found to include domestic servants, discharged barmaids, vendors of toys or lollipops, keepers of small eating houses, of mangles or of small lodging houses, needlewomen who take in plain or shopwork, milliners, consumptive patients in an advanced stage, cripples almost bed-ridden, persons of at least doubtful temperance, out-door paupers, men and women of even eighty years of age and some who could scarcely read or write.

1. Newcastle Commission Report. Vol.II. p.428.
2. *ibid.* Vol.I. pages 638 and 640.

One would expect schools of this type to be in the minority during the early nineteenth century when the National Society and the British and Foreign Schools Society were making such headway, but as late as 1850 Durham City had 24 such schools, and only three public schools. The private schools educated smaller numbers of course, but even in terms of numbers the education provided in private schools was not insignificant. It must be remembered that many of the public week-day schools were as poor educationally as the private schools during this period, hence the relative popularity of the latter. Many parents believed that the standard of education one received depended on what one paid for it, and as the private schools usually charged more than the public schools, then this was assumed to be a better type of education, although, most parents would not send their children to any private school which appeared obviously defective. Private schools were regarded by some as being more respectable than the public schools, and moreover the parents usually had some influence over the teachers in private schools. There was always the threat of withdrawal of the child, and a master or mistress of a private school was dependent entirely on the fees for income, there being no government assistance, nothing from the societies and no charitable endowments. Children who attended private schools were invariably taught by the master or mistress, whereas those in public schools were in some cases taught by monitors or pupil-teachers and this was

considered to be an advantage that the private had over the public schools.¹ The Newcastle Commission from a sample taken in ten areas calculated that there were 34,412 private weekday schools and 24,563 public weekday schools in the years 1858/9. However, there were only about half the number of children in private schools that there were in public - 860,304 and 1,675,158 respectively.² Earlier in the Newcastle Report Mr. Foster stated that in his area in Cumberland and Durham 24.3 per cent of all children attending weekday schools were attending private schools in 1859 whereas in 1851 the percentage had been 30.9.³ Thus, as one would expect, the public schools were gaining on the private schools during this decade. The Commissioners want so far as to recommend that the many private schools should be allowed to benefit from the government grant, subject to the approval of sanitation, ventilation and space per child, so enabling some improvement to be made in the many private schools.

The income of the private venture schools came entirely from school fees which varied from as little as a penny a week up to and sometimes over a shilling. The fees charged would depend on the type of school and the services provided. The dame school for the very young, which would be little more than a baby-minding institution would only be able to

1. Newcastle Commission Report. Vol.II.p.359
2. *ibid* Vol.I.p.591.
3. Newcastle Commission Report. Vol.I.p.95.

charge a penny while the larger institution which offered a good curriculum and good teaching could charge up to a shilling. These better schools advertised their "wares" in the press -

Terms for Day Scholars at Miss Vincent's proposed new school at Bishop Wearmouth.¹

£1. 1s. per quarter for reading, grammar, plain and fancy work.

10s. 6d. per quarter for writing and arithmetic.

7s. 6d. per quarter for geography.

10s. 6d. per quarter for French.

Mr. W. Goodricke advertised for day pupils for his school at Crossgate House, Durham City at 4 guineas a year.²

Many of these private schools were prepared to offer subjects which were not really associated with the elementary schools, such as grammer and languages, but most of these schools filled the need for elementary education, teaching the 3 R's and possibly some needlework, geography and religious instruction. The most common fee was 3d. per week, 22 per cent. of the private schools charging this amount.³

Forty-four per cent. of schools charged 3d. or less, while sixpence was charged by 13 per cent. probably due to the ease of acquiring "the right money". The Newcastle Commission collected information on the incomes of the teachers of private schools and found that the highest annual income

1. Durham Chronicle April 5th. 1823.

2. *ibid.* Dec. 21st. 1825.

3. Newcastle Commission Report. Vol.I. p.590.

received by the teachers in schools charging 3d. a week was no greater than £12 per annum.¹ Indeed in those schools where 1d. a week was charged the highest income was under £5. Even at one shilling a week the highest income received by the teachers was only £44 and this compared unfavourably with some of the masters in public schools who were receiving incomes of over £100 per annum and certainly with the majority who were receiving much higher salaries than their private school counterparts. With such low levels of income the private schools could not afford to provide the books, slates, blackboards etc. that the public schools could. Many teachers must have been in receipt of other sources of income besides the income from the school. George Goundry who had a school at 12, Claypath in Durham City in 1850, combined the job of schoolmaster with that of collector of the borough rates.² The Rev. Isaac Todd, Vicar of Shincliffe, also had a boarding school. Many private school teachers were women and the school revenue would thus be a supplement to either their husband's or their father's income. A Miss Usher, for instance, held a school at 216, Gilesgate, Durham City in 1856, her father of the same address being overseer of St. Nicholas Parish.³ Mr. W. Garthwaite, stationer of 6, Union Row, Gateshead allowed his wife to keep a girls' school

1. Newcastle Commission Report. Vol.I.p.591.

2. Walker's Durham Directory for 1850.

3. *ibid.* for 1856.

at the same address.¹ There was a preponderance of women in private schools because the income in most cases would not be enough to maintain a family. Of the twenty private school teachers listed under Durham City in 1857 only five were men and one of these was a priest.²

One can see from statistics provided by the Newcastle Commission that the private schools were educating children of the lower age groups.³ Forty per cent. of the children in private schools were under six years of age compared with only 22.8 per cent. in public schools. Almost two-thirds of the private scholars were under eight years while less than a half of the public school children were under eight years. The age group from seven to nine years in the public sector had the most children while in the private schools the age group from three to seven years had the most children. Thus the private schools were teaching, in the main, the younger children and presumably this was because there was a shortage of public infant schools. Some of the children who attended private dame schools and the like would probably continue their education at the public week-day school.

Most of the private schools were short-lived. The ease of opening a school and the lack of heavy capital investment in such, made closing the school as easy and

1. F. White and Co. Directory. 1846.
2. Walker's Directory 1857.
3. See Appendix 31.

as painless. In some cases, a room would be rented as a schoolroom, this being abandoned when the school was closed. Of twenty-four private schools listed in the 1850 Directory for Durham City only nineteen were in existence five years later and by 1860 there were only thirteen of the original twenty four. There was thus a heavy death-rate in schools even in the city where one would expect to find many settled private schools. Of the thirteen schools still in existence in 1860 in Durham City, three had changed their situation during the ten years. Mrs. Clark's school was situated in North Road in 1850, was at 1, Neville Street in 1855 and at 40 Crossgate in 1860.¹ The school belonging to the Misses Willis at 49 Old Elvet moved after 1855 to 9 Old Elvet while Thomas Wilkinson's school which had been at 35, New Elvet, in 1850 and 1855, was at 3, Church Street in 1860. The determinant of the existence of a private school was the master or mistress, for when he or she moved or died the school tended to disappear, whereas the public school tended to be permanent, a new master or mistress being found to replace one leaving the school.²

The private schools in the early nineteenth century were providing education on a commercial basis for young children who in many cases could not be accommodated in the society schools or charity schools because they were

1. It is possible that the North Rd. and Neville St. addresses are for the same building. Neville St. adjoins North Rd.
2. For facts in this paragraph see Walker's Directories of Durham City, 1850, 1855, 1860.

too young. Parents may have wanted a baby-minding service or may have really wanted a longer education for their children. Whatever the need, the private school provided not only an alternative to the public system but also a complement to it. In terms of numbers the private system was important; in terms of educational standard it is difficult to make an assessment. Some were undoubtedly good, others decidedly poor, but probably the variety of standard was no wider than that which was to be found in the public sector. Let us end with an account of one outstanding private school - Jacky Lister's at Tudhoe Village. Somewhere about 1850 John Lister had a school on Tudhoe Village Green. Such was his renown that he had at one time 300 children crowded into a building which was so small that many children had to squat on the floor. Many gifts were bestowed on this master, "eggs, butter, fruit, flowers, cream, sausages, chickens and sometimes at Christmas time a goose."¹ Lister used Lancaster's method. Besides his job as master he was overseer of the parish, secretary of the flower show and leader of the church choir. He died at the age of 57 under operation on the 8th of August 1877 and it was said that the graveside scene was one long remembered by the many people who gathered there to pay their tribute.

1. For an account of this school and its master see Dodd's "History of Spennymoor."

Chapter 11.

A General Survey of Educational Provision.

Before 1833 revenue for schools came from three main sources - from endowments, from subscriptions and from fees.¹: The school-pence of the pupils was the biggest source of income during the whole of the period up to 1860, despite generous grants by the government after 1833. Most schools had to rely heavily on fees for income, some of the non Church of England schools for instance, obtaining all their income from payments by children; thus their fees tended to be higher. These schools rarely had endowments, and annual subscriptions by both local and national organisations and private individuals produced less income than subscriptions for Church of England schools. Schools under the aegis of the Established Church benefitted from endowments, for the great majority of charitable endowments found their way into National Schools or schools associated with the Anglican Church, while these schools received more from subscriptions and from other sources such as church collections and occasional donations. Church of England Schools, before the first government grant, obtained between a third and a half of their revenue from fees, while other schools tended to acquire between a half and all of their income from fees, the proportion depending upon the amount received in subscriptions and occasional

1. See Appendix 9 and Table I in the chapter on the National Society.

gifts, and whether the school was fortunate enough to be the recipient of some charitable endowment or not. Very few schools outside the auspices of the Established Church held an endowment, yet about one third of the National Schools in County Durham had an income from some charitable endowment or endowments.¹ Moreover these Church schools received much support from the occasional grants made on behalf of the Bishops Barrington and Crewe, and from the Diocesan Schools Society.

The government grant made a considerable difference to income of schools especially as the century progressed and the grant was increased. Apart from the assistance given by the government towards the building of schools, annual grants were made by the government for teachers salaries, for pupil teachers, for attendance under the heading of the capitation grant and for equipment. Any school that was prepared to accept inspection could take advantage of the grant and on the average the schools who did receive government assistance obtained a quarter of their income from this source in the 1850s.² Indeed Church of England inspected schools received almost as much from the government as they did from either fees or subscriptions. Although the government assisted schools of other denominations to the same degree, these schools, however, had still to

1. *ibid.*

2. Newcastle Commission Report. Vol.I.p.68.

enforce a higher scale of fees to make up deficiencies in the amount received from endowments and other sources. The highest fees were to be found in the uninspected schools where there was no government financial assistance at all. Denominational uninspected schools, as late as 1858, had to depend on fees for three fifths of their income on average.¹ The government grant does not appear to have increased the number of schools to any great extent but it led to the improvement of existing schools. Those in the early years who entertained conscientious scruples to the acceptance of the government grant weakened considerably during the two decades after 1833 and indeed by 1858 government aid was accepted by almost all except Baptists, Independents and Friends. Yet it was thought that some people were less likely to subscribe to a school which was receiving government aid.

School fees in the 1850s supplied about a quarter to three fifths of the total income of schools; Church of England Schools acquired only one-quarter of their total income in this way while denominational schools got a half to two-fifths. It is certain that in public day schools no child was paying an economic price for his education. His education was received at below cost because of the grants, subscriptions and endowments the school received which subsidised the child's education. "No parent can be said to pay fully for the education of his child, unless

1. *ibid.* p.68.

he pays at least 8d a week" said the Newcastle Commission. In C. of E. Schools less than 2% of children paid more than 4d. and in the other dissenting schools only 4% paid above this amount. Thus in public weekday schools, children were receiving a subsidised education; this subsidy continued to grow during the later years of the century and the significance of school fees to decline relatively. In the private sector of education school fees were the only source of income and as a result parents would pay the full economic price for their children's education. This was reflected in the higher fees charged - nearly 17% of the pupils paid over 7d a week in fees.¹

Subscriptions were made to schools by local inhabitants - by landowners, tenant farmers, owners or lessees of mines, householders, Ministers of Religion etc. This last group, the clergy, played a not insignificant part in the financing and administration of the schools in the early part of the century. They contributed greatly to the finances of the school although they could in some cases ill afford it. Often the treasurer of the funds of the local school, the priest took it upon himself to maintain the balance of income and expenditure by making up any deficit. Rural areas relied heavily on subscriptions for their schools. Being smaller, these schools were more costly per pupil than the larger town schools, and to add to the difficulty lower fees had to be charged in order to persuade the

1. Newcastle Commission. Vol.I.p.74.

Agricultural labourer to send his child to school, for he among all workers was the poorest paid on average. Landowners in rural areas contributed large amounts to schools. County Durham had the examples of the Bishops of Durham and the Marchioness of Londonderry to illustrate this point. Assistant Commissioner Foster estimated that over two-thirds of the subscriptions to schools in rural areas in County Durham came from landowners in 1858,¹ while a further 17% was given by the parish priests. In the coal mining region of the county only 27% of the total value of subscriptions was given by landowners and 14% by ministers of religion. In these industrial parts the coal owners contributed generously, no less than 56% of the income from subscriptions coming from this source, through such people as the Peases, the Backhouses, the Stobarts, the Londonderrys and others. All subscriptions added together contributed about one quarter to one third of the total income of schools in the period between 1833 and 1858. This represents the achievement of landowners and mine owners in County Durham who were concerned about the welfare of their workers, or who realised that the only way to attract labour was to provide certain amenities such as schools.

Charitable endowments had been very important to education during the 18th Century when the sources of income had been few. The S.P.C.K. had done valuable work in mobilising subscriptions and raising income, by giving advice

1. Newcastle Commission, Vol.I.p.76.

on organisation of charity schools. The Industrial and Agrarian Revolutions brought higher incomes for the working class and the ability to pay higher fees; it produced great concentrations of wealth for landowners and industrialists which allowed them to subscribe more generously to education. Finally the government intervened in 1833 to provide financial assistance. The significance of charitable endowments also waned as prices rose, for a diminution in the value of money eats away any fixed capital. Whereas charitable endowments had formed a large proportion of income in the first decade of the century, by the 1850s they were providing only a small portion of income for most schools. Church of England schools, which were most fortunate in receiving endowments, acquired less than one-tenth of their income from this source in the 1850s,¹ if they were in receipt of government aid. Some of the schools under the Established Church did not accept government assistance as they were better endowed; these schools received 6/2d out of every £1 of income from charitable endowments. British and denominational schools which applied for government support usually had no charitable endowments attached to them, and the schools which had no government assistance and were thus uninspected only acquired about one twentieth of their income from charities. As stated above non-Church of England schools had to rely on school fees for the greater part of their income. These schools were not in great

1. Newcastle Commission. Vol.I.p.68.

numbers, for the Newcastle Commission estimated that between $\frac{9}{11}$ and $\frac{10}{11}$ of all public weekday schools were affiliated in some way to the Established Church.

Funds for the building of schools were also derived from several sources. The government grant between 1833 and 1839 was purely for the erection of schools on a £1 for £1 basis. Assistance could also be had from the major societies although the amount granted appears to have been small in relation to the income needed to maintain schools. The National Society, for instance, paid only £3935 to County Durham for buildings, from its inception up to 1847, but this could represent the cost of about 15 to 20 school buildings and is thus a fair contribution to school buildings, despite the fact that there were about 300 National Schools in the County by the 1850s. Similar assistance was given by the British Society, the Wesleyan and the Catholic Poor Schools Committee but none of these societies had more than twenty schools in the county before 1858. Educational endowments had helped in the early years of the century but the cost of a school building was far beyond the finances of most educational charities. Yet the revenue from all educational charities for non-classical education was not insignificant; County Durham was receiving about £1052 a year for this purpose in 1858, and some of this would in the early years of the century be used for building. Subscriptions and donations were of great help in financing a new building and County Durham benefitted

from the assistance given here by the Diocesan Society which paid out about £4,000 between 1811 to 1841 to County Durham schools. The Crewe Trust spent nearly £2000 a year in 1929 but no more than £400 of this went on school buildings and a still smaller amount would accrue to Durham County schools for buildings. Considerable assistance to the building of schools was given by Bishop Barrington. He was to a large extent responsible for the building of more than a dozen schools, the most outstanding examples of his work being in the Weardale Schools and the Bishop Auckland Barrington School. In the first two decades of the century Barrington was the foremost educational figure in the North East., financing and encouraging the provision of "popular education". Buildings were provided by a variety of industrialists but in the main these school buildings were erected by owners of either lead mines or coal mines. Some schools were provided by iron firms and chemical firms but these were less in number. Still fewer in number were the school buildings arising out of the Poor Rate for workhouse children.

It is remarkable that the number of private venture schools was greater than the total of all public weekday schools even in the 1850s. One can understand that in the early years of the century when very little financial assistance was available other than charitable endowments, there would be many private schools, but even as late as 1858 there

were nearly 50% more private weekday schools than public weekday schools.¹ In terms of pupils, the private schools educated only half as many as public schools according to the estimates of the Newcastle Commission. Thus the private elementary schools were an integral and important part of our education system in the early part of the nineteenth century, although as the twentieth century approached and a state system of elementary education developed, the private sector became relatively less important.

Between 1800 and 1860 education provision was a conglomerate of a large variety of units. Just as in the general economic development of the 19th Century there was a prevailing attitude of laissez-faire, with little government intervention, so in educational development there was piecemeal progress of a similar sort. Government economic action was little and negative certainly up to 1850. Our railway system needed state intervention to co-ordinate the network; our factories and mines needed state intervention to safeguard the rights and freedom of women and children. Absolute necessity forced the government's hand. Legislation was slow in coming. Yet the evils and disadvantages to society of a poor education system were far less significant than those arising from free enterprise in industry and commerce. A change in attitude, a break from laissez-faire was needed, and our period sees only the initial faltering steps away from the ideals of Adam Smith and his associates.

1. Newcastle Commission Report. Vol.I.p.591.

In education the government took supervisory action only when public money was put into the education system, but one feels that this was only to make certain, as in the case of the Poor Law, that public funds were used to the best advantage. Private enterprise in education continued untrammelled and the provision of the education system was left in many hands. Up to 1860 no single body had taken the lead in providing the means for educating the masses, yet the government was by this time showing enough positive intervention to indicate that in the future it would be the principal body from which the financial means for the establishment of a comprehensive system of elementary education would come.

DUBLIN

(c. 1860)



P A R T T W O .

Chapter 12

School Buildings

"The voluntary schools built before 1870 were often next to churches and were built in ecclesiastical style. Inside a dim religious light filtered through high windows into classrooms entered each from the next. Others were more rustic in derivation. 'A barn furnishes no bad mode' said a guide to school building published by the National Society 'and a good one may be easily converted into a schoolroom'¹. A single large room, long and narrow proved sufficient for the educational needs of most areas. Even the three storey Barrington School at Bishop Auckland only found the need for one schoolroom, which was on the first floor and measured 45 feet by 28 feet². The large schoolroom was often subdivided by curtains into as many divisions as there were classes and where the master or mistress had no pupil-teachers or assistants, parallel rows of desks, often rising above each other, stood facing the desk of the master or mistress, so that the teacher could see the whole school, even if the children in separate classes could not see each other. The plans of the Committee of Council show this position clearly. Plan number one has four classes separated by curtains, but allowing the master to see each child in the school³. The Committee of Council recommended that each school should have a gallery, which

1. Reports on Education - issued by Dept. of Education and Science. No. 18. Jan 1965.
2. See Plan in separate folder. Rooms marked 1 and 2.
3. See government plan number one in separate folder.

would serve either as a classroom or as seating accommodation for the whole school when taught as a unit. Most schools managed without this extra room. The National System and the British and Foreign Schools Method were both geared to the large single room; a second room was a luxury which many schools could ill afford. Great Stainton School was erected in 1847 to accommodate 56 children but no 'classroom' was built on to the schoolroom which measured 35 feet by 15 feet.¹ Middridge School began its life in 1817 in a single room (marked Classroom 2 in the plan)¹ and extensions were added later. The dimensions of the schoolroom at Middridge are typical of schoolrooms of the period - 45 feet by 17 feet - and indeed it is remarkable how many schoolrooms are near this size. Elwick Hall schoolroom measured 42 feet by 18 feet; Hart schoolroom measured 43 feet by 15 feet. Even the larger schools had schoolrooms around 40 to 50 feet long although the width varied. St. George's School at Sunderland, which was built in 1849, had a general schoolroom 47 feet by 34 feet, although it had six small classrooms besides;² The Barrington School at Bishop Auckland had, as stated above, a schoolroom 45 feet by 28 feet; one of the Prissick School rooms was 47 feet by 15 feet.³

The Committee of Council, which was set up on April 10th 1839 to supervise the applications for government grant, stipulated that at least six square feet of ground floor

1. Plan and photograph in folder.
2. Fordyce. op.cit. Vol. 2.p.446.
3. See plan and photograph in folder - Room marked CRI and CR2.

space should be allowed for each child. Inspector Watkins stressed that this amount of space per child was insufficient in practice, eight or nine square feet per child being more reasonable,¹ but in fact most of the schools in receipt of government grants had more than the stipulated area per child. Out of over 50 schools in County Durham which had received government assistance between 1839 and the end of October 1849, and for which figures are available, only three were overcrowded, if one assumes the meaning of overcrowded as being the situation where there were more children in average attendance than the number for which floor space had been provided at the rate of six square feet per child. Collierley School had been built to accommodate 99 children at 6 square feet per child, but the number in average attendance was 100. Egglecliffe School and the Hartlepool Roman Catholic School suffered worse conditions, the former having been built to teach 78 children and having 93 in average attendance, while the latter had accommodation for 90, and 140 in average attendance.² Thus, the Hartlepool School had $3\frac{7}{8}$ square feet of floor area for every child, which leaves each child with a space of less than two feet square in which to sit, and that is ignoring any necessary space to allow movement about the room. Fortunately most schools were in a much happier position than South Shields Trinity Boys School. On the 4th of June 1850 the Committee of Council Inspector visited this school and found 71 little children crowded into one corner in a space not above 15 feet

1. Minutes of the Committee of Council 1850/51. Vol. II
2. *ibid.* 1850. Sums appropriated 1833 to 1849.

square.¹ Several schools in the County had more than 20 square feet per child.

Area Per Child.	Number of Schools.	
Less than 6 sq.ft.	3	FREQUENCY TABLE SHOWING THE NUMBER OF SCHOOLS IN COUNTY DURHAM HAVING SPECIFIED AREA PER CHILD IN AVERAGE ATTENDANCE IN 1849.
6 sq.ft. and up to 8 sq.ft.	8	
8 sq.ft.....10 sq.ft.	4	
10 sq.ft.....12 sq.ft.	8	
12 sq.ft.....15 sq.ft.	14	
15 sq.ft.....20 sq.ft.	8	
Over 20 sq.ft.	7	Source: Computed from Minutes of Committee of Council 1850.

Wreckenton School had accommodation for 133 children but had only 32 in average attendance. Lynesack and Softley School had room for 105 children but accommodated only 25 in 1849. Near Hartlepool stood the Middleton-in-Stranton School which had only 32 children in a building capable of holding 209 by Committee of Council standards. It must be noted that the amount of space available per child depended to a large extent on the inefficiency of the school. The efficient master, who satisfied the educational needs of the local population gathered around him many children. The success with which he did this also depended on the size of the population from which he could draw and the type of parent in the neighbourhood. The modern primary school is favoured with much more space than the elementary school of a hundred years ago. A close study of the plan of Bramcote Hills County Primary School in

1. Minutes of Committee of Council. 1850. Mr. Watkins Report.

Nottinghamshire¹ shows that inside the classroom the floor area per child is about 30 square feet, while if one includes the area for practical work, for libraries and the hall, the floor space is about 80 square feet per child, which indicates that much more space is available today for non-classroom activities than for normal classroom work.

The average cost of building, taken from a sample of 30 schools built in County Durham between 1830 and 1850, was about £427,² the smallest amount being paid for Sherburn Hill School, £120, and the largest, £1,200, paid for the Stockton National School. This latter school accommodated 266 children at a cost of £4.10s.2 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. per child while the former school accommodated 85 children at a cost of £1.8s.3d. per child. The difference in the amount per child on building would be shown in the quality of the edifice and in the space provided per child, for although the Committee of Council demanded that at least 6 square feet be allowed for each child, many schools provided more space. Shildon School achieved the lowest cost per child at 10s.6d. with a building costing £210 for 400 children. Great Stainton School, which cost about the same amount, had accommodation for only 54 children, although part of the cost of this school was taken up by the schoolhouse.³ Nevertheless the Shildon School must have lacked space and amenities such as cloakrooms, extra classrooms etc. The sample of schools shows the overall average cost per child to be £2.0s.1 $\frac{1}{2}$ d., and 52% of schools having an average cost

1. See plan in folder.
2. See Appendix 32
3. Photograph in folder.

per pupil of between £1.10.0d. and £2.10.0d. Compare this with the present day situation. In March 1961, the Ministry of Education fixed a maximum limit to net cost in primary schools at £175 per child,¹ and even when one allows for the diminution in the value of money to about one-tenth to one-fifteenth of what it was a century ago, there is much more being spent on school buildings per child today than in 1850, probably as much as three or four times. The £175 quoted by the Ministry would be equivalent to about £15 to £17 in 1850 and this represents at least three times the maximum amount per child of £4.10s.2 $\frac{3}{4}$ d. for the Stockton School in our sample. The single roomed school of 1850 looks pitiful against the description of modern primary schools given by the Ministry - "The whole school environment is consciously designed to provide a wide range of opportunities for learning. Books are available in classroom suite; space is designed for musical activities; there are facilities for physical education and drama supported by a wide range of fixed and portable equipment, and outside are yet more learning areas - sheltered courts where the children can build a model or act a play, and pleasant places where they can stroll in the sun, converse and browse."²

Not all school buildings were built as schools in the first place. Due to financial pressures buildings already in existence were adapted as schoolrooms. In 1849, Barnard

1. Ministry of Education. Building Bulletin No.23
1964.p.2.
2. Ministry of Education. Building Bulletin No.23.
1964.p.4.

Castle Girls' School used a building that had formerly been a theatre, which stood, unfortunately, adjacent to a burial ground, the surface soil of which was three feet above the level of the school floor. "Some graves are actually dug against the wall of the school", remarked Inspector Watkins¹- definitely unfit for the purpose of education. Yet many schools were built near graveyards. There was certainly an argument for placing a church school near the church, but it is a little difficult to understand why it should so often have been placed in the graveyard where tall trees tended to shade the light, and where a well might be tainted by corpses. A toll-booth in Gateshead had served as a school in the 18th Century. At Blaydon, St. Cuthbert's School used a chapel built at the west end of the village in 1835, but by 1850 this building was being used as a joiner's shop². Newbottle National School had classrooms made from an old house³.

The physical condition of the school building varied as much as the amount of money spent on it. Durham St. Cuthbert's R.C. School is a substantial building which must have been one of the best of the period.⁴ Several of the schools built in the early 19th Century are still in existence. Durham St. Oswald's, the Bishop Auckland Barrington, the Durham Blue Coat, the Escombe and Bishopton Schools are a few of the schools still being used as such

1. Minutes of the Committee of Council 1848/9/50.Vol.I.
2. Fordyce.op.cit. Vol II.p.685.
3. *ibid.* Vol.II p.563
4. Photograph in Folder.

today while many others have only recently been closed to make way for the many new buildings erected since 1950. These remaining, were the best of the buildings, which were sound in construction and thus worth modification in later years. With extensions to the original building, and the addition of refinements such as larger windows, central heating, electric light and new floors many of these older buildings have been of great value to the children of the last century. As the country's economic condition improves the last of these old buildings will become obsolete, to be replaced by the more spacious school buildings of the modern age. Yet the majority of school buildings dating before 1850 were of such poor quality that they could not survive the ravages of time. Dampness was common. Ludworth Mixed had damp walls in 1850 when inspected, and worse still, rain penetrated the ceiling.¹ Similar reports are made for many schools. Egglecliffe, for instance, had neglected to repair the school building and was criticised for this by the inspector in 1848; it may have been this criticism or the evidence of neglect, that resulted in repairs being made between the inspector's visit of 1848 and that of 1850. Seaham Harbour School was similarly criticised for neglect, large cracks in the ceiling and bad ventilation.

Lavatory facilities were atrocious. The builders of new schools often smiled at any fastidious suggestions about

1. Minutes of Committee of Council 1850.

2.

necessary out-houses and quipped "They will never be used; no one understands the sense of them".¹ There were indeed schools where there were no privies.² Where lavatories were provided, they were often unsatisfactory in most respects. One of the worst buildings was Sunderland Gray School where 220 girls shared one closet at the end of the room.³ The managers of the school proceeded to do something about this situation which the inspector called 'very offensive'. If contemporary minds thought this offensive, then one wonders what impression it would have on a person raised with the sanitation and hygiene of the mid-twentieth century. But 1850 was only two years after the setting up of Chadwick's Board of Health, and his proposals for improving sanitation had hardly made a mark on the society in which he lived by 1870, much less by 1850. Steeped in the unhygienic habits of centuries, 19th Century society was not prepared to accept the suggestions of Chadwick, but rather took their chance with the cholera which raged through the country in the years following 1848. Sunderland suffered terribly with the cholera and attendance at school fell rapidly. So bad was the Gray School there, that in 1848 the mistress of the Girls' School suffered a serious illness "caused by effluvia from ill-drained, ill-cleansed offices."⁴ Cholera was the concomitant of poor sanitation. The Newcastle Commission pointed out that these nauseating conditions

1. Newcastle Commission Report. Vol.II.p.363
2. Minutes of Committee of Council 1850. Mr. Mr. Watkins cites Newbottle Mixed.
3. ibid. 1852. Inspected 10th June of that year.
4. ibid 1849.Vol.I.Mr. Watkins Report dated Nov.1849.

deterred many women from taking up the profession of teaching for the rough course work and the repulsive conditions under which the teacher worked made the office of a teacher most unappealing to those who had been brought up as ladies.¹ In most cases there were too few lavatories and these were infrequently cleaned. Out of 114 schools in the Northern District inspected by Watkins in 1845, 51 had unsatisfactory conveniences and probably the worst of these were Seaham Harbour and Egglecliffe where the school out-buildings were in a "filthy, indecent condition". "Some schools, I have found" he said, "without inclosure, without offices, with no floor but the hardened earth".²

The provision of play space was not as essential in the first half of the 19th Century as it is today. The motor car today makes it absolutely necessary to have a boundary, beyond which the children must not go, for safety reasons. During the last century a boundary wall was usually erected to keep parents out and to make certain children did not escape once they were in school. The erection of a boundary wall was very expensive and was a luxury which some managers regarded as unnecessary. Nevertheless, with the prospect of a government grant dependant on good 'inclosures', most schools provided boundary walls and playing space within. The Rector of Houghton went further providing a cricket field which could be used by the boys, allowing parents and children to go into his garden,

1. Newcastle Commission Report. Vol.II p.363
2. Minutes of Committee of Council. 1845.

and on occasions inviting the monitors of the school to bring the best pupil from their class to dine with him at the Rectory.¹ Swings were provided in the playground at Blaydon Parochial Schools, which were built in 1858, but this was a unique exception.² Most village schools had the village green for the school's use if no land was available adjoining the school; but there was usually sufficient land to be found in the villages to provide room for school and playground. It was the town or city school which found land so costly that a smaller playground had to suffice or in some cases none at all. Girls at the Stella School on the Tyne had to use the neighbouring lanes as a playground.³ More fortunate, the Hartlepool R.C. School could use the moor as a playground, the school having been built on the outskirts of the town adjacent to the moor. A separate playground evolved as building progressed around the school. Surrounded by houses on all sides the Sunderland Gray School had no playground, and had no possible space where a playground could be situated. Faced with such conditions the master of the boys school allowed his charges to roam the narrow, filthy streets to exercise themselves. Knowing what children are and how capable they are at finding means of exercise, one should not regard the absence of a playground as of great significance in the context of mid

1. *ibid.* 1848/49/50. Vol. I. Mr. Watkins' Report.
 2. Fordyce. *op.cit.* Vol.II p.685.
 3. Minutes of Committee of Council 1852.Mr. Marshall's Report.

4.

19th Century history.

If one had to paint a picture of the typical elementary school building of 1850 one would start with the single schoolroom some forty feet long, some twenty feet wide, lighted by lancet windows with the sills some six feet from the ground. No child can see out; no parent can see in. Inside, the floor is of stone or of wood, although the latter is less common. The ceiling is arched and so collects what little warm air there is from the one stove or fire, leaving the pupils to sit and shiver below in the colder part of the room during the winter months, hoping that the master will be so considerate as to allow the pupils sitting away from the stove to have their warming turn near the one source of heat. Earth closets are outside, away from the schools, but there are only two among a hundred children and these are emptied infrequently. The playground of hard earth is not large enough for the number of children but it serves as an outlet for energies pent-up by sitting for hours on forms, the only advantage of which is that pupils sitting close to each other tend to generate some heat and so keep each other warm. When it is time to go to school we are summoned by the deathly toll of the bell perched above the entrance.

Chapter 13.
School Equipment.

The amount spent on furniture, apparatus, books and stationery was at all times between 1800 and 1860 a very small proportion of the total amount spent on the running of a school. By far the greatest expense in keeping a school was in the payment of the teachers' salaries. At Shincliffe School, for example, in 1845, £39.10s. was paid out for the teachers' salaries while only £6.9s. was expended on furniture, books, apparatus etc., and this represented a much higher proportion on the latter than in most other schools. Hetton-le-Hole School which was built in 1834, seven years previous to the Shincliffe School, paid £5.10s. in 1845 for books and stationery and £72 for teachers' salaries. Other schools, such as Tanfield, Byers Green and Seaham Harbour spent nothing at all on equipment in 1845.¹ Contemporary educationists regarded teachers as the first essential requisite once the building was made available, and then if economic conditions allowed, apparatus such as books, blackboards and slates were to be added, but these seemed to be by no means essential.

Although educational progress is sadly hindered by lack of books and apparatus, it is possible to teach some things by rote. Children could be made to sit and repeat material, although they no doubt found this sort of education

1. Minutes of the Committee of Council 1845. Mr. Watkin's Reports on Income and Expenditure.

wearisome. Assistant Commissioner Foster, in his report to the Newcastle Commission, indicated that this hatred of school on the part of children was a prime cause of bad attendance. And who can wonder at this, when one considers that a child was subjected to this form of teaching for six hours a day for five days a week. In some schools, fortunately very few except in the private sphere, there were no desks and the pupils were made to sit on benches or in some cases on the floor. The description given by Inspector Watkins in 1845 must have applied to very few schools in the public sector - "Some I have found without inclosure, without offices, with no floor but the hardened earth, no windows that could be opened; the fuel a heap of coal it might be, or small stack of peat, in one corner, the master's dog, or hen and chickens in another. No books but a few torn Testaments and "spellers", no furniture but the master's desk and a few low wooden benches." Most of the inspected schools were in a much more efficient condition. Compare Watkins picture with the large, commodious school built at Tow Law in 1849 at a cost of £1000, where in the school room were five groups of three parallel desks. In the adjoining classroom were four loose desks while the apparatus available included seven blackboards and easels, four book-stands, one map stand and many books.¹ In connexion with the school were two libraries, one for adults and one for children. These two descriptions

1. Fordyce. op.cit. Vol.I under Tow Law.

give us the extremes within which most of the other schools fell. The most alarming case of lack of equipment however was at the Weardale School conducted by Mr. Thomas Page. In the minutes of 1848 it is recorded that the sum of £2 be withheld by the Treasurer from the salary of the above master "till he replace the articles of school furniture and a door which are now missing."¹ At the other extreme we find a case of mathematical instruments being provided for each of the Weardale Schools in 1841.²

To modern teachers a blackboard or some similar device would be regarded as an essential piece of equipment. The lack of this piece of equipment would severely restrict the method of teaching, yet it is possible to teach the pupils who could write without such apparatus. The author, faced with the prospect of teaching logarithms to a fairly bright set of students, found that it was not unusually difficult to overcome this, by dictating what was to be written by each student and so giving each student his individual blackboard in the form of a sheet of paper. The result was satisfactory but this was primarily due to the ability of each student to take down what was being dictated, and also on the possession of each student of a pencil and piece of paper. It is doubtful whether this method could have been used had the pupils of 1850 been so fortunate as to have the means of writing, for the lack of educational ability would prevent

1. Minutes of the Weardale Schools Committee 1848.
2. *ibid* 5th March 1841.

this. The alternative would be individual tuition. The handicap of insufficient apparatus would be a disincentive to most teachers and the absence of a blackboard would handicap all forms of teaching. Nevertheless, there must have been many schools where there were no blackboards even as late as 1850. Even some inspected schools were found to be without blackboards. Ludworth Mixed School, inspected on the 14th June 1852, was found to have no blackboard yet there were 67 children in attendance on that day.¹ Sacriston Mixed School was also without a blackboard and was short of maps and books. More fortunate was Wolsingham Girls School which had blackboards, but alas the floor was so uneven that it was difficult to find a place where the easels could stand evenly. This problem was overcome at Leadgate by using blackboards which slid on frames on the wall, but this method was seldom used in the schools of 1850; the blackboard with easel was a more economic proposition as it could be used in different places and could serve as well as two or three wall boards if there were more than one room available.

Reading books of sorts were found in almost all schools, but in general there was a lack of sufficient numbers. Inspector Watkins complained of this shortage of books in the Northern District in 1845; he said in some places the Bible was the only reading book available, and that too much reading of the same book tended to make the children

1. Minutes of the Committee of Council. 1852. Rev. D.J. Stewart's Report.

disinterested. The government through the Committee of Council had fostered this use of the Bible by its Minute dated December 3rd 1839 whereby promoters of schools not affiliated to the National and British and Foreign Schools Society could apply for government assistance, provided that the Bible was read in their schools. So pronounced was the shortage of reading material that in some schools parents sent what books they could and the teacher used them, the result being that no two children used the same book.¹ The number of books available could be determined by the conditions of an endowment as in the case of Walton's Charity where £4 was laid out for books for the Sunderland School. In all cases the decision to purchase books depended on financial conditions, as did all the expenses of running a school. The Blue Coat School at Durham City was a prosperous school and so had a plentiful supply of books. Although the school had at times appealed for extraneous help in the buying of books, in 1852 it was able from its own yearly income to provide a new set of books.² At the Houghton-le-Skerne endowed school many books were furnished by the rector³ although he was not the master of the school. At the London Lead Company Schools all books and stationery were provided by the Company free to the pupils although this is not surprising as the schools were completely maintained by the Company. Among the public schools the

1. Newcastle Commission Report. Vol.II p.337
2. Minutes of the Committee of Council. Rev. Stewart's Report.
3. Fordyce op.cit. Vol.I p.518.

workhouse schools were the worst, insofar as reading material was concerned. Indeed the Webbs tell us that there were hardly any books at all in the early workhouse schools under the new poor law of 1834,¹ the children, they say, spending half their time in household chores and industrial employment. This confirms the opinion of Kay-Shuttleworth, who indicated the wretched supply of books and apparatus and the meagreness of the training of pauper children in 1846, in a paper on the £30,000 grant to workhouse teachers provided by the Poor Law Commissioners.²

The Poor Law Commission made an attempt to improve this situation by making the supply of books a condition of the grant towards teachers' salaries. The Board of Guardians, who controlled the workhouse school, were compelled to provide books, otherwise there was to be no grant from the Central body towards teachers' salaries. This was incorporated in the stipulations appended to the 1846 grant.

The Committee of Council in the following year, by a minute dated December 18th, instituted a system of grants for books and apparatus whereby a school could acquire 2/- per scholar, or 2/6 if there was a Pupil Teacher or more than one, provided that the apparatus or books chosen were on the Committee of Council's approved list. If purchases were made through the Committee then publishers were prepared to allow a discount of forty per cent, a considerable reduction.

1. English Poor Law Policy. S & B. Webb.p.258
2. Paper on the Administration of the £30,000 grant (at the request of Sir.Geo. Grey) - dated August 5th 1846.

Nineteen schools in the County benefitted from this grant before October 31st 1849, but none of them received anywhere near the 2/- per head that was suggested in the 1847 minute.¹ The grant for books, like other payments made by the Committee, depended on the amount subscribed for books by the school, and a further restriction was imposed that no school could acquire the grant more than once in three years, although they were permitted to apply every year. In the year 1860, £5683 was granted under this scheme to the country and it was becoming so important that a separate office was set up in Great George Street, Westminster to administer it.² Between 1839 and 1859 Parliament, through the Committee, expended over 36 thousand pounds on books, maps and diagrams.³ The provision of books was increasing as the century progressed and society found the wherewithal to provide them. All of the denominational societies assisted their schools in the purchasing of books. In 1859 the National Society paid out £1758.3s. for books and apparatus, a sum which was about two-fifths of the amount set aside for buildings in that year. The Wesleyan Education Committee indeed spent more on books and apparatus in that year than on buildings - £1123 as against £1093.10s.⁴ The Durham Diocesan School Society also gave occasional grants for books. On the 11th of June 1838 Hamsterley received £2; on the 12th of April in the same year new schools at Newburn received £3 for

1. For a full list of these schools see Minutes of 1849 - "Sums appropriated from Parliamentary Grant etc."
 2. Newcastle Commission. Vol. I. p.350
 3. ibid. Vol. I p.579.
 4. ibid. Vol. I p.575.

books from the Society; on October 10th 1839 Rainton School received £3. Besides these payments, many were made for general purposes and presumably some of these sums would be used for books.¹ The cost of books could be reduced by purchasing through the S.P.C.K. or the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge. These two societies obtained some degree of monopoly powers in buying and handed on their saving to the purchasers in the form of lower costs. In a debate in the House of Lords in 1834 it was said that the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge, which had been founded in 1827, had caused a reduction in the price of books by one-third.² So important were these "booksellers" that many schools used only the books they supplied. The first list of books supplied to the London Lead Company Schools at Nenthead and Middleton was drawn from the S.P.C.K. lists, although the schools were giving non-denominational teaching, while the Blue Coat School at Durham declared it would only use books provided by the above society or the National Society.

In 1830 the number of books in use in schools was insignificant yet with the help of the societies and the government, especially in granting financial help, the amount of reading material increased rapidly in the 1840s and 1850s. It was a question of priorities. In the early part of the century the important factors were the buildings and the teacher; as more buildings were erected the

1. See Minutes of the Durham Diocesan Society 1836 to 1857.
2. Parliamentary Debates. House of Lords. April 16th 1834.

the finances were turned to the next priority, that of equipment. Society was finding itself able to afford these erstwhile luxuries as the National Income increased.

As was stated above, the Bible was the most common book found in use in schools. The New Testament seemed to be overworked,¹ probably because the life of Christ is the easiest section for the younger children to understand. Less common, but frequently found, were prayer books and psalters. The various denominations, except for the British Society, provided catechisms and doctrinal works for their schools, the children being made to learn much of the material by rote. It is interesting to see the list of books excluded from the National Society's supplies. Books on ancient history, on ancient and modern languages, biographies, historical and geographical accounts of separate countries other than England, Scotland and Ireland, reading lesson books not forming part of a series, and collections of vocal music unaccompanied by instruction were all excluded. The bias was heavily in favour of religious and 'moralising' works. Some of the above types of books did get into the classroom but not through the National Society channel. Assistant Commissioner Foster tells of the high standard at the Middleton School belonging to the London Company where "out of 27 children into whose hands White's English History was put after being opened at random, 21 read fluently though with strong local accent."² White's book would be

1. Newcastle Commission Report. Vo. II p.337 & p.338.
2. Newcastle Commission Report. Vol. II p.369.

typical of the compendious geography and history books of the time with the material presented in digest; factual and precise. These became more common in the latter half of the century as schools began to be able to afford a wider range of books. One feels, on examining this type of book, that the purchaser was aiming to get as much information as possible for his payment, economic pressures once again determining the type of education provided. At the charity school at Stranton, near Hartlepool, three books were recommended for school use - Pearson on the Creed, Hammond's Practical Catechism and the Whole Duty of Man. This latter work, the authorship of which seems to be unknown, became semi-official in status. It had been published about 1660 and was in some places given almost equal significance with the Bible, both being chained in the churches. In the late 18th and early 19th Century the book came to form the basis of much of the religious education, in charity schools in particular. As the title indicates, the book laid down the duties of the Christian - go to church, pay tithes, avoid drunkenness etc. This book was the typical contemporary school book, religious but moving slightly away from the archaic Biblical language. In 1861, the Blue Coat School at Durham ordered twenty copies of the book and twenty copies of "The Importance of a Religious Life." In slightly less heavy vein was "The Basket of Flowers", a rather beautiful yet morbid piece of fiction which is steeped in morals and

persecution for sinning.¹ This appears to have been published some time about 1850 and was in common use throughout the rest of the century. Even the short pieces of fiction which were finding their way into spelling books pressed home some moral point. Such stressing of the religious way of life, of committing no sin, of doing good deeds, must have had some impact on the young children who were subjected to it. One can see in this flow of 'moral' literature the seeds of the later Victorian prudery. Certainly books with religious content were most numerous, Stockton National School, when examined in 1850, was found to have only one secular reading book and this was a History of England. At Eggescliffe, in the same year, no history was taught at all.² The Rev. Mr. Watkins asked the mistress at Stockton Industrial School on Dec. 6th 1849 why she taught no geography and was given the curt reply, "Will geography help your housemaid to scour the floor?" Whereas religious instruction was expected to give an end product in the shape of an amenable and Christian servant or worker, geography teaching appeared to offer no concrete resultant. Today we accept that subjects such as geography and history should be taught during many of the years in a child's education but this was not so in 1850. In Roman Catholic Schools, for instance, Mr. T.W.M. Marshall found that only 19.28% of the pupils were learning history while 58.43% were learning geography in 1852.³

1. See Photocopies of pages of this & other books in
appendices.
2. Minutes of the Committee of Council 1850. Rev. F.
Watkins Report.
3. ibid. 1852

Here again it was a question of priorities; arithmetic, reading and writing and religious knowledge were given top place as almost essential, with reading being most necessary. In many schools sufficiently high standards were not achieved in these subjects to permit the use of time on such subjects as geography and history. As more school time became available, later in the century through better attendance, and as teaching methods improved, so more time could be allocated to these less essential subjects.

Writing books and paper were not frequently used before 1850. What writing there was done on paper was usually only done in what were termed 'copy books'. These were exercise books into which the corrected exercises were transcribed after they had been worked on slates individually or on the blackboard by the teacher. Some exquisite examples of lettering can be seen in the copy books of this period,¹ and the exercises give some indication of the advanced work achieved by the brightest pupils in our elementary schools around the middle of the century. In some schools where copy books were used the children were expected to provide them themselves. Where it was financially impossible for such books to be provided out of the income of the school, and where the children were too poor to be able to afford them, it was not uncommon for the children to be asked to provide paper on which to write. Such a school was Houghton-le-Skerne where the rector furnished many reading books and

1. In Folder. The Prior's Kitchen has an early copy book dated 1805 which belonged to J. Booth.

the master was expected to provide slates and pencils out of his income. The children attending the school had to supply their own writing paper.¹ The financial condition of the school, of the master and of the parents, ^{determined} who should provide these materials. At the Barrington School at Bishop Auckland, at the London Lead Company's Schools and at the Tow Law Schools this equipment was provided gratuitously and possibly this was so at many of the schools which were financially sound.

It seems that at certain schools coals were demanded from the children for the heating of the school. The Weardale Schools, under Bishop Barrington, were to provide coals for the heating of the schools out of money provided from the general fund of the Weardale Schools Committee, but in 1824 the committee found that "some of the masters have been in the practice of charging the children for brooms to sweep the schools and also requiring them to furnish fuel for lighting the fires."² It was realised that children should not be required to do this nor to pay for the brooms. Dr. Hartwell's endowment had set aside £2 yearly for the provision of primers, psalters and coals for the poor children and this was to be administered by the master of Stanhope School.³ It is not clear how the poor children were to benefit from these coals, but it seems that this was a

1. Charity Commissioners' Reports 1819-1837. Under
Haughton-le-Skerne.
2. Minutes of the Weardale Schools Committee. June
4th 1824.
3. Charity Commissioners Reports. Hartwell, Charity,
Stanhope.

concession to the poor children who were thus not expected to provide coals for the school.

From 1800 onwards the amount of equipment to be found in schools increased steadily but not quickly. With the growth of the National Income and higher personal incomes more could be afforded. The government grants in the 1840s and 1850s facilitated the purchasing of extra apparatus, and the growing belief in the necessity of giving all children the fundamentals of education, stimulated the buying of more books, slates and paper. Yet even as late as 1860 conditions were far from satisfactory. Foster tells us of the colliery schools where there was no method, little or no superintendance and no proper apparatus for teaching.¹ Later he states that in many cases where there was apparatus, he found few blackboards, and the maps that were used were "usually begrimed with dirt," while slates were often broken and lesson cards tattered.² It has been left to the twentieth century, with its tremendous increase in affluence, to progress rapidly towards the provision of a seemingly plentiful supply of apparatus, yet the author began his school career in the late 1930s and still used slates for the early writing and number exercises. The type of apparatus in schools depends on general economic circumstances and future students of educational history might wonder why we in the mid-twentieth century were so slow in introducing television and

1. Newcastle Commission. Vol.II p.335

2. *ibid* p.337

teaching machines as standard forms of teaching apparatus. Society in the early nineteenth century felt it could only afford a few books, a blackboard or two, some slates and a few other items of apparatus, even though farseeing persons of the time might suggest items such as "gymnastic frames and ropes, circular swings and other apparatus" to contribute "both to mental and bodily growth and well-being."¹ We have the same problem today in that recommendations for new apparatus are being made, yet the inability to find enough funds prevents these recommendations being expressed in practice.

1. Poor Law Commissioners' Report. 1843. Report of Mr. S. Tremenheere and Mr. E. Twistleton.

Chapter 14.
Teachers and Their Salaries.

Before 1840 few teachers had had a comprehensive training such as we expect of our teachers today. There were many ways of entering the teaching profession and many types of schools in which one could teach. There was no standard form of training till the government intervened in the 1840s with its pupil teacher system and its certificates of merit. Most teachers before 1840 then were unqualified by modern standards. Many people opened schools when they had difficulty in finding a source of income or when they wanted a supplementary source. Private schools had as varied a group of teachers as one could find by taking a random sample of people from the general population. The endowed schools too tended to attract some of the worst members of society. Some training was acquired by those who had been monitors under either the Madras system or the Lancasterian system and many of the larger schools had adopted one of these methods by 1840. Bell himself had assisted personally in the setting up of his plan in several schools in the county, most notably in the Barrington at Bishop Auckland, at the Blue Coat at Durham and at the Bishopwearmouth National School. The British Schools in the County adopted Lancaster's system as did the Walton Charity Schools at Bishop Auckland and Shildon.¹ In these schools children of school age could gain some narrow

1. Society of Friends. Durham quarterly Meeting.
dated 14th June 1834.

experience of teaching as monitors, but most of these children did not continue to become masters. In the first years after the founding of the Barrington School at Bishop Auckland nine boys were boarded and lodged in the house for the purpose of learning the system of teaching but this was soon changed and instead adults were taken.¹ These adults were usually teachers from Church of England Schools in the County and they were accepted on the following conditions:-

(a) that they brought a testimonial from a minister which stated they were members of the Church of England, were Communicants and attended regularly

(b) that they had taught in their schools

(c) that they signed an agreement that they would take the children to church

(d) that they would obey the master and inspectors of the Barrington Schools

(e) that they would bring a recommendation from the Diocesan Society and would be examined by the Master of Barrington.²

There was no demand for a Bishop's Licence yet Bishop Barrington's Visitation of 1792 mentions licensed teachers at Staindrop.³ The licensing of teachers seems to have almost died out in the 19th Century although Subscriptions appear to have been made by Grammer School masters as late

1. M. Ritchley. History of Bishop Auckland.
2. Second Annual Report of the Society for the Encouragement of Parochial Schools.p.6.
3. Bishop Barrington's Visitation 1792. Durham Chapter Library.

as the 1840s. The only Subscriptions from an elementary master I have been able to find is that for William Compston of Witton Gilbert (See ~~Appendix~~ ^{Folder}) who subscribed to the Articles of the Established Church and agreed to conform to the Liturgy of the Church.

The trainee teachers attending the Barrington School were boarded and lodged free although those with greater means were expected to maintain themselves in lodgings outside the school. Their stay at the school was generally a few weeks, long enough to study the Madras system so as to be able to apply it in their own schools when they returned. Any teacher who showed merit received a certificate of good conduct and in some cases a reward of £2 when he left the Barrington School. Only a minority of teachers could benefit from this training, and most were left to their own devices to find out by trial and error how to teach. Most schools were too small to be able to use the monitorial system yet it is possible that many teachers would use the abilities of the brighter child in some way to assist, if not to teach, the slower child.

Monitors were drawn from the brighter children of the older age groups although it was not uncommon to find a child of nine being used as a monitor.¹ Even as late as 1845 the average age of monitors in boys' schools was only eleven years.² In the early part of the century, when fewer of the older children attended school, one might expect to

1. Minutes of Committee of Council 1855. Mr. Watkin's Report on Monitors in the Northern District.
2. *ibid.*

find still younger children acting as monitors. Efficiency was not the only aim that the monitorial system had; it was as important to make the costs as low as possible even though by making it cheap, its effectiveness was somewhat reduced. At the Blue Coat School at Durham three monitors were appointed for each year, their parents signing an engagement to that effect.¹ At the end of the year, on satisfactory completion of their duty, they were given money by the Governors of the School to fit them out for service. Further distinction at school could be rewarded by a medal. The girl monitors, or assistants as they were called, were expected to take turns to clean the school-room and the mistress's house, while as a sign of their superior position in the school they were allowed to wear clothing which was better than that worn by the ordinary children.² The senior assistant was known as the Usher.

As the type and quality of teacher varied, so did the salary, and as the century progressed so the salary tended to increase. In the first decade of the century, when the provision of elementary education came principally from the charity schools, salaries of masters and mistresses tended to be low. George Harle, master of the West Rainton School, was paid £10 for two years' service in 1801.³ This salary, which represented much less than the Speenhamland System offered, would have to be supplemented by either taking a

1. R. Chadwick. op.cit.p.10.

2. ibid. p.13.

3. Londonderry Account Book. June 5th 1801.

few paying pupils or by taking a second occupation. Mr. Walker of Boldon combined the work of schoolmaster and parish clerk and for his teaching he received £20 per annum in 1809.¹ His income would be almost equal to the income of the average lead miner and agricultural worker, but still less than most coal miners and iron workers at the same period. Higher salaries were available to those who became masters of bigger schools. In 1805, for example, a Mr. Lampson was replaced by Mr. Thomas Veitch as master of Blue Coat Durham, the new master to be paid £50 per annum together with a free house.² In 1826, the master of the Barrington School at Bishop Auckland had a salary of £100 per year,³ but this post represented the peak for the teaching profession in County Durham. Most teachers' salaries in the first twenty years of the nineteenth century would be between £10 and £30 per year while in the next two decades it would probably have risen another £5. Many, however, were still paid low salaries by the middle of the century. The master at Coniscliffe Day School was paid only £16 per annum in 1849.⁴

In many cases monitors were paid nothing for their services, in other cases they were paid a few pence. Where these children were not paid, parents tended to remove the children from the school, especially when there was

1. Boldon School Accounts. 1809.
2. R. Chadwick. op.cit. p.14.
3. Charity Commissioners' Reports. 1821-1826.
Summary of Accounts.
4. See, for example, Mr. Watkins' Report. 1845.

little prospect of them becoming masters of schools as there was later under the Pupil Teacher System. The monitorial system suffered severe criticism by the government inspectors after 1839,¹ as being too mechanical, lacking inspiration, and being a hindrance to discipline and progress. By 1840 the system was inadequate for the demands then being made in education. In 1840 Kay Shuttleworth at his Battersea College introduced new ideas and methods for teaching. Instead of the rule of thumb monitorial methods such as were at that time taught at Borough Road, he brought a spirit of experiment and free inquiry.

In the 1840s we get the development of new methods of training teachers. Many new training colleges were opened; by 1845 there were no fewer than twenty-two Church training colleges in England and Wales, including the Durham Diocesan Training College, now Bede College. Yet the number of teachers availing themselves of a training college course were still few in 1858. In 1850 there were only 16 students in residence in the Durham Training College.² The students at this college attended the Model School four times a week and were given a course of training not dissimilar to the present system, although many spent only a short time in the college and would leave without obtaining the certificate. In 1850 there were said to be only 7 certificated men and 2 certificated women in the whole of

1. See, for example, Mr. Watkins' Report. 1845.
2. Fordyce. *op.cit.* Vol.I. p.328

County Durham.¹ Indeed the total output of training colleges throughout the country in the 1850s was no more than a few hundred per annum.² In 1851 there were only 996 certificated men teachers and 401 certificated women teachers in England and Wales.³ Up to the time of the Newcastle Commission the certificate teacher was numerically insignificant yet important inasmuch as he set some standard to which trainee teachers could aspire. Some progress had been made by 1858; in Mr. Foster's area of inspection 38.8% of masters had been trained in college and 23.4% of mistresses in 1858.⁴

The training colleges awarded three grades of certificate to those who passed the examination at the end of the course. Some teachers could sit the examination for the certificate even though they had not attended a college or normal school.⁵ Three non Church of England teachers in the County had achieved certificates by 1850. Mr. T. Chapman, master of St. Cuthbert's R.C. School at Durham had a Second Class Certificate (Division III) Certificate; Mr. J. Mc'Swiney master of Sunderland St. Mary's R.C. School had a First Class Certificate (Division Three); G. Bartlett master of Darlington Boys' School had a Third Class Certificate (Division Three).⁶

Below the certificated and trained teachers came the pupil teachers. The conditions for entry to a pupil teachership

1. Minutes of the Committee of Council. 1850/51. Vol. II. Rev. F. Watkins Report.
2. F. Smith. Elementary Education 1760-1902. p. 220.
3. Michael Sadler. Educational Reports p. 541. The Newcastle Commission quotes 845 male and 328 females. Vol. I. p. 658.
4. Newcastle Commission. Vol. I. p. 640
5. Minutes of Committee of Council. 1846
6. *ibid.* 1850/51 Vol. I.

were set up in December 1846 by the Committee of Council. An inspector was to decide first of all whether the master was capable of supervising the apprenticeship. Moreover the school had to be well furnished and likely to stay in existence for at least the length of the apprenticeship. Candidates were to be at least thirteen years of age and had to have a certificate from a priest as to moral standards of the candidate. Certain educational abilities were demanded such as the four rules in arithmetic, simple parsing and elementary geographical knowledge. Besides this, a specimen teaching lesson had to be given before an inspector. Some indentures were cancelled - "in one case from want of punctuality, in another from insubordination, in a third from manifest stupidity."¹ Inspector Morell stated that the pupil teachers had exceeded his expectations of them; some had ruined their health through over-work. The Assistant Commissioners for the Newcastle Commission admired the pupil-teachers - "They are persons of respectability in the best sense of the word."² At least they were far more effective than the monitors although they were more costly, having to be paid while in training. Some people felt that the pupil teachers were worked too hard with a customary week of 9½ hours a day for 5 days. Over 76 per cent. of all pupil teachers became candidates for Queen's Scholarship which entitled them to go to training college if there was room. Most of

1. Minutes of the Committee of Council 1850. Mr. Mr. Morell's Report on British Schools.
2. Newcastle Commission. Vol.I.p.100.

this 76 per cent. obtained the scholarship.¹ Some of the 24 per cent. who did not enter for a Queen's Scholarship took up teaching without going to college. One great advantage of this training scheme was that no matter whether the pupil-teacher failed or passed he had benefitted society by teaching while he was being paid. The institution of this system was an economically-motivated action. Just as the monitorial system was introduced when the nation felt it could afford nothing better, so the pupil-teacher system was introduced when the nation felt it could afford something better but still not afford enough to pay for better teachers. This sort of problem is still with us. The problem of size of classes, school buildings, teachers' salaries and training of teachers is a question of what the nation can afford. The pupil teacher system was a logical economic step beyond the monitorial system.

Monitors were still used in the 1850s and of course will always be used to some degree by all teachers. Nevertheless the monitorial system as it had been promulgated by Bell and Lancaster was destined to die out in the face of new methods and ideals. Stipendiary monitors were to be slowly replaced by pupil teachers. After 1846 a scale of payments was instituted by the Privy Council for both types of assistants, the pupil teacher at the end of the first year being paid £10 as opposed to the stipendiary monitor's

£5². The monitors could be employed till they were seventeen

1. *ibid.* Vol. I. p. 105.

2. Minute of Committee of Council dated 21st Dec. 1846.

years old provided that at the end of each year they passed an examination. No indenture was needed for the monitor. There was no great difference between the two types of assistants except that the pupil-teacher was assumed to be of higher academic standard and was aiming to enter the teaching profession; he, too had to take an examination each year. The pupil teacher's salary rose £2.10s each year up to the maximum of £20 at the end of the fifth year; the monitor's salary rose by the same amount each year up to £12.10s. at the end of the fourth year. A Queen's Scholarship was worth £20 to £25 per year to the successful pupil teacher. Unfortunately for the pupil teacher he was only paid at the end of each year of training, and indeed sometimes the Committee of Council were so dilatory in paying, that a further three months had passed before the pupil-teacher received his salary.¹ It is interesting to note that in his last year of apprenticeship the pupil-teacher was receiving somewhere about half of the average adult wage and as much as many private school teachers. Some of the larger schools in the county received large amounts from the government in payment for apprentices. Houghton-le-Spring National School in 1850 had seven apprenticed assistants and the government paid a total of £145 per year to the school as payment to the pupil-teachers and in augmentation of the master and mistress's salaries for training them.² Sunderland St. Mary's Roman Catholic

1. Newcastle Commission Report. Vol. I. p. 101.
2. Minutes of Committee of Council. 1850. Statement of Annual Grants to Teachers.

School had six apprentices for whom the government paid £11.10s.0d. in 1850.

Masters and mistresses who had the supervision of pupil-teachers benefitted financially under the government scheme. For one pupil teacher £5 per year was paid, for two £9 was paid, for three £12, and an extra £3 was paid for each additional pupil-teacher. The scale of payments for stipendiary monitors was £2.10s. for one, £4 for two, £6 for three and £1.10s. for every extra one. In return for this payment the master or mistress had to supervise the work of the apprentices and had to give instruction to them for one and a half hours on each of the five days a week and additional gratuities could be earned for instructing the apprentices in cooking, gardening and washing.

In 1846, when the new schemes for teachers and assistants was introduced, the average salary for masters and mistresses was about £30 to £35.¹ The average salary for masters would be near £40 while for mistresses would be nearer £25.² From 1846 to 1858 there was a considerable increase in teachers' salaries largely due to the change in attitude of the government towards the teaching profession and indeed between these dates the teaching profession was given some semblance of 'professional' status, by the enforcing of standards of entry and qualification. Mr. Watkins in

1. This is based on a calculation made from the National Society's General Inquiry of 1846/7.
2. Inspector Mr. Fletcher gives £38.7s. and £22 respectively for a sample taken from British Schools in 1846. See Minutes of Committee of Council. 1846. Inspector Mr. Watkins gives £43.12s. and £32.4.8 respectively. See Minutes 1845.

1851 said that the average stipend of teachers did not reach £50 per year in the Northern Counties but he did not point out the variations between the certificated and uncertificated and between masters and mistresses. By 1856, for instance the average salary for certificated masters in the four northern counties was £91.1s.1d. while that for certificated mistresses was only £63.3.9d. The uncertificated master got an average of £45.17s.0d., while the uncertificated mistress received on an average £34.13.8d.¹ The worth of a certificate was indicated in the salary structure - a certificated mistress tended to earn more than an uncertificated master. The certificate master would usually obtain a much better post than the uncertificated; hence the salary tended to be almost twice as large. Most of the larger schools after 1846 demanded a certificate qualification from applicants for masterships and were prepared to pay salaries high enough to attract such candidates. Blue Coat School Governors in Durham demanded a certificate in 1850 when they offered a salary of £100 per annum to the new master.² The difference in salaries would be sufficient incentive for students to try to obtain a certificate. It is interesting to note that the certificated teachers in the four northern counties received salaries higher than the national average while the uncertificated received less

1. See Appendix 19
2. R. Chadwick, p.17.

than the national average.¹ This was probably due to a scarcity of certificated teachers in the north in relation to the whole number of teachers; thus the better schools would be competing for this small select group of teachers. By 1858 the average salaries had increased still further and the Newcastle Commission felt that salaries were by then, sufficiently high.² The national average for certificated masters had reached £94.3s.7d. and for certificated mistresses £62.13s.10d.³ In some cases, said the Commission, salaries of £300 and above were paid to teachers, although this certainly did not apply to any master or mistress in County Durham. The Commission felt that high salaries were earned too early in life and that a salary of £100 per annum at the age of 20 or 21 years of age was not an incentive to progressive teaching after this age. Incremental scales were suggested.⁴ The teacher's position had improved financially since the time when Kay-Shuttleworth had said that the master of an elementary school was commonly in a position which yielded him neither honour nor emolument. Kay-Shuttleworth had said of the thirties that at that time a master's salary was very little greater than that of an agricultural labourer and very rarely equal to that of a moderately skilful mechanic, and he recommended that £90

1. See Appendix 19.
2. Newcastle Commission Report.Vol.I.p.160
3. See Appendix 20.
4. Newcastle Commission Report. Vol.I.p.160.

per year should be the salary for a master.¹ Largely due to his efforts as Secretary of the Committee of Council the average salary for certificated masters had reached this level by 1858.

Very few teachers were able to benefit from retirement pensions. After 1846 those teachers who were rendered incapable by age or infirmity of continuing school could apply to the Committee of Council for a pension, provided that they had conducted a school efficiently for fifteen years, seven years of which the school must have been under government inspection. Testimonials from Inspectors and managers were demanded by the Committee of Council and if the pension was sanctioned then it could be no more than two-thirds of the salary which had been received while the school was under government inspection.² Only a handful of teachers could have received these pensions, for between 1839 and December 1859 only £2923.1s.8d. was paid by the Committee of Council for pensions of teachers throughout England ^{and} Wales.³ This represented little more than half the amount granted for scientific apparatus during the same period. Any pension paid outside the government scheme depended on the managers or societies of the schools involved. The Crewe Trust, for example, paid £10 in 1811 to Abraham Smith, a superannuated schoolmaster at Bishop Auckland,⁴

- 1. J.Kay-Shuttleworth.Four Periods of Public Education. p.474.
- 2. Minutes of the Committee of Council 1846.
- 3. Newcastle Commission Report. Vol.I.p.579
- 4. Lord Crewe Trust Minutes. Feb. 2nd 1811.

£5 per year to the late master of Washington National School for life from 1821¹ and £10 to Joseph Heslop in 1831 late schoolmaster of the Middleton-in-Teesdale Endowed School.² Mr. Dote, retiring as master of the Barrington School, Bishop Auckland in 1855, was granted a pension of £6⁰ per annum but it seems likely that this would come from the Committee of Council; the £60 was exactly two-thirds of the salary then paid to the master.³ The Weardale Schools Committee granted £10 per annum to Mr. T. Coulson, retiring master of Eastgate School in 1835, who had been schoolmaster of the parish for "upwards of forty years," but the Committee financed this by deducting £10 from the salary of his successor.⁴ Only the best teachers, in terms of service and character, received these pensions and up to 1858 there can have been no more than a score of teachers in the county who had benefitted from pensions provided by others.

Teachers in workhouses were generally worse off than those teaching outside. By the 1834 Act the Boards of Guardians were responsible for the education within the workhouse and thus appointed the schoolmaster. In many cases education, was provided in nearby schools so no master was appointed. By the 1850s Stockton, Sunderland, South Shields and Gateshead had schools associated with the workhouse. After 1846 conditions improved for workhouse

1. *ibid.* 2nd June 1821.
2. *ibid.* 21st July 1831.
3. Ritchley (*op.cit.*) quotes this from the accounts of the school in 1855, which have since disappeared.
4. Minutes of the Weardale Schools Committee. Dec.25th 1835.

teachers possibly due again to the efforts of Kay-Shuttleworth who had had experience of workhouse education as a Poor Law Commissioner after 1835. As Dr. Kay, Poor Law Commissioner, he had said in 1836 "The education provided for the children sent to the workhouses was valueless and the children born and bred there were idle and profligate."¹ An attempt to remedy this was made in 1846 when a grant was made by the government of £30,000 per year to supplement the salary of teachers in workhouses. Application and execution of the Parliamentary grant was under the Secretary of State for the Home Department who demanded the right of inspection, of dismissal and appointment of teachers in receipt of the grant. He also demanded that teachers should have suitable apartments, enough free time, an ample supply of books and no extraneous duties. The grant aimed at providing each workhouse master with £30 and each mistress with £15, but the amount received depended on the grade of certificate held by the teacher. There were four grades of certificate, each of the top three grades having three divisions, thus giving ten divisions in all.² The minimum grant for those masters with Certificates of Efficiency was £30, the maximum £60. For the lowest grade master only £15 was paid per year. The corresponding figures for mistresses were £24, £48, and £12 per annum. The average salary for the 383 workhouse schoolmasters in the country in 1850 was only £31 per year while the average for 501 workhouse schoolmistresses

1. Poor Law Commission Reports. 1836. Appendix B.
2. A full table is given in the Newcastle Commission Report Vol. I.p.360.

was £21.¹ To these salaries must be added the value of free board, which would certainly lift the earnings to a respectable level. The first-class master in the workhouse was said to be earning on an average £65 per year in 1852 compared with an average in common elementary schools of £133 per year.² One of the reasons for the low salary of workhouse masters was that the Poor Law Board would not raise teachers' salaries above those of the Workhouse Master and Nicholls gives their average salary as £37 in 1850.³ Only the worst of teachers would face the conditions which held in many workhouses - "For instance, it appears unreasonable that a schoolmaster of upwards of thirty years of age should be compelled to be within the workhouse walls at nine o'clock, or half past nine, every night; or that he should on every occasion be obliged to ask leave of the master of the workhouse before he can go outside."⁴ There is no doubt that in many cases a teacher found himself under a workhouse master who was his inferior in intelligence and educational standard and who exploited the teacher. "It is certain that workhouse school teachers are often so overweighted with duties as to produce very poor results in every way" it was said as late as the 1870s. Poor teachers and poor pay seems to have been the pattern in

1. Sir G. Nicholls. History of the English Poor Law.p.406.
2. Newcastle Commission Report.Vol.I.p.362.
3. Nicholls. op.cit. p.406.
4. Local Government Board 5th Report. p.142.

workhouses up to at least 1860.

Teachers' salaries formed the greatest part of expenditure on schools. In almost all schools about three quarters

Amount Spent on Teachers' Salaries out of Each £1 Expenditure.

(Newcastle Commission Report. Vol.I. p.582).

Church of England Schools (inspected)	13s. 6½d.
" " " (uninspected)	14s. 1½d.
British Schools (inspected)	15s. 9½d.
" " (uninspected)	16s. 3¼d.
Denominational (inspected)	14s. 5 d.
" (uninspected)	15s. 8¼d.
Non-denominational (uninspected)	16s. 3½d.

of all expenses to maintain and run the school were on teachers salaries. It was a smaller proportion in the better schools e.g. the Church of England inspected schools, as they tended to be able to afford more equipment, books in particular, and was slightly higher in the poorer schools. The proportion allocated to teachers' salaries depended to a great extent on the income of the school and on the quality of teacher demanded. Before the 1850s the proportion spent on teachers' salaries would be even higher as there was less spent on equipment. Many schools operated without blackboards in the early nineteenth century. The teacher and his salary were focal points in the early history of education in England. Buildings and equipment such as books and blackboards were secondary in importance to the teacher in

the estimation of managers and trustees. A school can exist without any equipment, however inefficient, yet without a teacher there can be no school. English education history in the 19th Century shows that the order of growth was essentials first, refinements later; teachers were essential from the beginning, hence their importance; hence to the financial significance of the teacher's, salary.

Chapter 15.

Attendance and Absenteeism.

The principal reason for sending a child to school must have been to acquire some form of education, yet in the case of young children, under say eight years of age, it may have been the desire to have the child "minded" that he or she was sent to school. A school providing good instruction in the basic subjects could attract many pupils, while a poor teacher would find his numbers decreased fairly quickly. Eaglescliffe school was overcrowded in 1849 because a new teacher had proved his worth and had attracted many new pupils.¹ Mr. Marshall, inspector of Roman Catholic Schools, said that at the excellent schools run by the Sisters of Mercy the greatest punishment was to be prevented from attending school. "To be at school has become a real happiness and to be excluded from it a serious affliction."² Not only the parents but the children appreciated a good education. However, it was not uncommon to arrive at school on Monday and find the teacher absent, possibly drunk.³ The quality of the service offered by schools determined the attendance in the first place.

Attendance was obligatory at the works schools belonging to the Crowleys, the London Lead Company and the

1. Inspector's Report. Minutes of Committee of Council 1848/9.
2. *ibid* 1350.
3. Newcastle Commission Report. Vol.II p.336.

Beaumonts. At the Crowley school the master had to get the consent of the Governors and two of the Council if he wished to grant any holiday to his pupils or allow them to be absent except in sickness.¹ Under the compulsory scheme of the London Lead Company 94.15 per cent. of all boys between the age of six and twelve years attended day schools, this being far in excess of the average of 59.8 per cent. for the five Unions inspected by Mr. Foster.² If a child were absent from the Company's school or any other school which he was allowed to attend he was expected to furnish a doctor's certificate or otherwise make up his absences so that he had the six years' schooling demanded by the Company.³ No boy was allowed to begin work for the Company unless he produced a certificate from his schoolmaster showing that he had complied with the regulations imposed by the Company.⁴ A further incentive to good attendance and good work was the ticket system. The London Company's children received tickets for Sunday attendance only, but at the Beaumont schools tickets were given as a reward not only for attendance on Sunday but for attendance and work at week day schools. Four tickets could acquire a Bible. Further prizes of books, mathematical instruments, pictures and maps could be obtained for larger numbers of tickets. These tickets

1. The Law Book of the Crowley Ironworks. Law 97 Clause 4.
2. Newcastle Commission Report. Vol. II p.369.
3. Regulations of the London Lead Co. Schools. Rules 7&9.
4. *ibid.* Rule 10.

were given for good work, good behaviour, good attendance etc. and could be forfeited for shortcomings in the same spheres.¹ At the Beaumont Schools only the agent could sanction extra holidays. Moreover attendance registers were to be kept and a monthly report was to be sent to the agent. The London Company used another lever to enforce compulsory education; if a child did not attend school regularly his father was taken to task at the next quarter's engagements and if no reasonable excuse was forthcoming he might be refused work.² Sometimes fines of up to 5 shillings were levied on the parents for bad attendance by their children but Inspector Foster said he could find no case where a man had been refused work because of bad school attendance. Insofar as schools controlled by industry are concerned it was possible to enforce something near full attendance but the success of this enforcement depended greatly on the administrative machinery and on the regulations and coercions available. Certainly the Lead Companies appear to have been successful; little evidence is available to assess how successful the Crowley organization was in the few years it operated in the 19th Century on the Tyne. Although the compulsory system imposed by the Lead Companies seemed to be successful not only in getting children to school but also in causing a

1. Newcastle Commission. Vol.II. p.389

2. *ibid.* Vol.II. p.367

moral and intellectual improvement in the community there was still a great deal of opposition to the enforcing of school attendance. "English sentiment is unmistakably opposed to compulsion," wrote Mr. Snell to the Newcastle Commission in 1858, and he felt that as the provision for education was increasing there was no need to compel children to attend.

The capitation grant of 1853 was an attempt by the government to encourage attendance. The grant was paid for 176 days attendance per year by any child, but it seems that this proved unattainable by the majority of pupils for the Committee of Council in 1859 said that only 41.28 per cent. of children claimed the capitation grant. By paying this grant the government was encouraging teachers to improve their schools and to persuade children to attend more frequently but one wonders how far this persuaded parents to send their children. A good school did tend to have better attendance and the schools receiving the capitation grant had to be inspected before the grant was sanctioned so it is most probable that the grant did cause some all-round improvement in schools so encouraging parents to send their children.

It was argued by some that the charging of school fees would encourage attendance, in the belief that parents, once they have paid the weekly pence, would make certain the child attended the full week to receive a full-week's

education. Almost as many argued the opposite way, that high fees were a deterrent to attending school as many parents could not afford to pay the pence, or at least found fees a disincentive towards sending their children to school. Mr. Richard Bailey, schoolmaster and village stationer of Willington believed that school fees were a real stimulus to parents to keep their children "more regularly at school,"¹ and almost all of the educationists from County Durham interviewed by the Newcastle Commission hold the same view. The Rev. J. Cundill of St. Margaret's, Durham City sums up this body of opinion when he says "My belief is that generally the school pence are too low. What costs little, parents value but little."² The government inspector, on visiting the Houghton-le-Spring boys school on Feb. 27th. 1849 was told that the attendance had fallen off owing "to an increase in the school fee, to some new schools being opened in the district and to the enforcement of punctuality and regularity of attendance,"³ but the impact of higher fees may not necessarily have been a cause of declining attendances here. Where there are three probable causes, it does not follow that any one is a cause of the resulting actions. Any generalisation on this question of the incentive or disincentive is impossible. Each parent would assess the value of the education offered

1. Newcastle Commission Report. Vol.II.p.422.
2. Newcastle Commission Report. Vol.II.p.412.
3. Minutes of Committee of Council. 1848/9.

in terms of many factors, the school fees being only one. Some fees would be so high as to be a deterrent, others would be so low as to have a marginal effect or none at all. Those who paid on Monday would certainly try to make certain the child attended the full week, but on the other hand those who did not pay on Monday because^{of} the child being absent would most probably keep the child away for the rest of the week rather than pay the pence for a part of a week. School fees were an incentive to some but a disincentive to others.

If fees were a disincentive to attendance, this was only one of many reasons why the child should be kept from school. Probably the strongest influence was the ability of a child to move from the debtor to the creditor side of the family by staying from school and earning some small wages. The Lord Bishop of Durham pointed out that so greedy were some parents for the small earnings of the children that he felt that the children required some protection "against the cupidity of their parents."¹ There was indeed much scope for child labour. Durham was primarily an agricultural and coal-mining area and it is in these spheres that children found most work available. The Rev. Alan Greenwell, the Chaplain of the County Goal, Durham, said that in the pit districts of Durham a very puny boy could

1. Newcastle Commission Report. Vol.V. p.142.
Letter dated Aug. 11th 1859.

earn sufficient to maintain himself.¹ It was believed by many farmers that the only way to produce a good farmer was to start early as children were put to work on the farms at as young as six years of age. It was possible to make as much as sixpence a day watching sheep or pigs, or scaring crows. Picking stones off the land, gathering weeds, cutting turnips or even leading horses were jobs which could be done by the very young. In the coalmines the very young children were employed at 'trapping', that is the opening and closing of trap doors to guide the air circulating through the underground passages. This could be done by the very young. The older children could grease tubs, push tubs or lead the ponies which pulled the tubs. Despite the 1842 Mines Act which fixed the minimum age for working in the mine at ten years, many children worked in the mine below the age of ten. Before 1842 children of as young as four years of age had worked in the mine. In 1850 girls of 7 or 8 years were reputed to be still working in the mines at Stella.² This is corroborated by Mr. Foster in 1858 when he says that in defiance of the law children of even six years of age go into the pits.³ For this situation he blames the parents. Inspector Stewart writing in 1853 gives much the same picture - "It is notorious that for some years back

1. Newcastle Commission Report, Vol.II.p.409.
2. Minutes of Committee of Council. T.W. Marshall's Report. p.682.
3. Newcastle Commission Report Vol.II. p.348.

children have been able to obtain employment at such an early age as to put aside all chances of their education."¹ Girls found greater difficulty in acquiring work for wages. Some were able to find work as housemaids but most of the older ones were employed at home by their parents doing domestic work or attending to younger members of the family.² Female labour was used in the Durham carpet factory and some work was available on the land especially at harvest time. Indeed during the months of July, August and September some schools were often empty except for the very small children who could not get work at harvest. Sherburn school was inspected on September 14th 1848 and only eighteen children were in attendance out of fifty-four who were in ordinary attendance.³ The children, apart from the little ones, were in the harvest field. Indeed the only period when schools in the agricultural areas were full was in March and April when there was little work available for the children.⁴ At Winston School in 1856 there was an average of sixteen absences per day out of a total of about forty five children in September. November was the month which produced the best attendance with an average absence of approximately three - the agricultural work had been completed.⁵ The summer months certainly attracted many

1. Fordyce. op.cit. Stewart's visit to Houghton-le-Spring National School.
2. See W.A. Scott's letter to Marchioness of Londonderry July 28. 1858.
3. Minutes of Committee of Council 1848/9
4. Minutes of Committee of Council 1845. See Mr. Watkins remarks on the Northern District.
5. Extracted from Winston School Attendance Registers.

children into the fields and out of the classroom.

Another fairly common source of income for children was the running of errands. This was a usual form of employment in towns and it was estimated that in the 1850s half-a-crown a week could be earned in this way.¹ At Seaton Carew, in the summer months older boys were employed by visitors to the place "who resort here for sea bathing,"² but in what way they were employed is not certain. It would appear that children's work could be found in many spheres if the parent or child were prepared to look around.

The wages earned by children varied according to age and ability, according to the economic situation and according to where the children lived. Some remarkably high figures are quoted for children's wages by those interviewed from County Durham by the Newcastle Commission.³ Colonel Stobart, the Etherley colliery owner, estimates that a fifteen year old could earn up to about fifteen shillings a week and the Master of St. Oswald's School, Durham gives about the same figure for children in the mine. Most of the others interviewed regard earnings of between ten and twenty shillings a week to be possible for the fifteen year old. The Vicar of Shincliffe said that a child between the ages of ten and twelve could earn from tenpence to one shilling and treepence a day; The Master of St. Oswald's

1. Newcastle Commission Report. Vol.I. p.186.
2. Minutes of Committee of Council. Tabulated Reports of Schools in Co. Durham 1850.
3. Newcastle Commission Report. Vol.II. p.411.

quotes six shillings to eight shillings a week underground. Lower wages are given by Mr. William Henderson, carpet manufacturer of Durham but presumably he is thinking of his own establishment when he gives two shillings to three shillings and sixpence a week for those up to fifteen years. Even those from eight to ten years of age, says the Master of St. Oswald's, could earn up to six shillings a week at the mines above ground. These assessments of the earnings of the children in the mines agree fairly closely with the payments made by the Stella Coal Company operating in North West Durham.¹ Trappers earned one shilling a shift almost continually from 1848 to 1865, thus giving a weekly wage of five shillings, five shifts a week being most common.¹ Presumably these trappers would be ten years of age, or below ten if they were working illegally. One Shilling and fourpence a shift was paid in 1855 for coupling and greasing tubs, a job that would be done by those children about twelve years of age. Slightly more, up to one shilling and tenpence a shift could be earned for leading props and rails and this could be done by boys of twelve or thirteen provided they had not to load. Drivers of ponies were paid from one shilling and ninepence a shift to two shillings and threepence and water-leaders received about the same. By the age of fifteen a youth would be given the lighter work of an adult, and might be able to get over three shillings

1. Stella Coal Company Pay Bills 1848-1865.

a week as a 'putter' i.e. someone who moves the full tubs from the seam. The full-grown adult earned from about three shillings and fourpence a shift to over four shillings a week. the overmen being paid the most at four shillings and sixpence a shift in 1855. Thus from these pay-bills one can see that a young child could earn almost a third of a man's wage while the older child, depending on his strength, could come very near the man's wage. This was a big incentive to put the child to work as soon as possible, a feature of British social life which is even now hindering educational development. One can still find examples of children who are denied further education because of the need for the earnings the child can bring to the family, although fortunately these examples are becoming more rare.

The Lead Companies did not allow children to work till they were twelve years old and then they were usually put to work at lead washing. "Apart from the winter period, few boys under eighteen were employed underground in the Beaumont and London Lead Company's mines".¹ The adults working for the lead companies received much smaller incomes than did the coalminers. From 1836 to 1847 the London Company's basic rate was only 12s.6d. a week but the Beaumont Company tended to pay about 1s. 9d. higher than this.² By 1860 the London Company's miners were earning up to sixteen shillings, which was coming near to their

1. A. Raistrick and B. Jennings. A History of Lead Mining in the Pennines. p.308.
2. *ibid.* p.295.

colleagues in coal. It is impossible to assess the earnings of the boys employed in washing lead because the amount of work they got fluctuated, depending on the amount of lead coming from the mine, on water supply, in a dry spell and on frost in winter. Their wages, in any case, did not determine attendance at school for this was predetermined by the Company after 1818.

Children's wages outside the collieries were lower. In agriculture a weekly wage for a child of ten to twelve years would rarely be above two or three shillings. The agricultural labourer, himself, rarely got over twelve shillings. At the iron foundry it was possible to get slightly more than this; Fordyce quotes nine year old boys earning three to four shillings a week at Tow Law.¹ At the brick works ten year olds could earn up to six shillings a week in the 1850s. Most other occupations received less than this, but even two shillings a week, which could be earned as a housemaid or errand boy, was welcome when there was so much poverty. Moreover, it must be remembered that families were large, so that it was possible for several children to add to the income of one family. At school, a child was a financial burden; at work he was at least offsetting his cost to the family, if not providing for himself. The Registrar-General's Report from the Census of 1851 sums up the position - "Children of

1. Fordyce. *op.cit.* Vol.I. p.646.

the labouring classes are employed at an early age - some permanently, others temporarily - at a rate of recompense which, though apparently but trifling, is sufficient for their maintenance, and more than sufficient to induce their parents to remove them from school. It is evident that even the lowest amount of wages which the child of a labouring man will receive (from 1s.6d. to 2s.0d. per week) must be so great a relief to the parents as to render it almost hopeless that they can withstand the inducement, and retain the child at school in the face of such temptation. And this inducement will be almost equally powerful whether or not the school be one where payments from the children are required. It is, not for the sake of saving a penny per week, but, for the sake of gaining a shilling or eighteen pence per week, that a child is transferred from the school to the factory or the fields; and the more opportunity of saving the penny by sending the child to a free school would not restrain the parents from making a positive addition to their weekly income, if the absence of the child from school could ensure it."

One cannot generalise about the attitude of industrialists and farmers towards employing the young. The Rev. J.G. Cromwell, Principal of Bede College thought that pitowners wanted lads down the pits at an early age,¹ and this is most probably true of the colliery owners if one assumes that "an early age" implies about nine or ten

1. Newcastle Commission Report. Vol.II. p.412.

years of age. This would be the age at which most boys entered the mine around 1850, but six or seven would be more common at the turn of the century. Farmers also preferred to have children begin work as soon as they were old enough. There were exceptions of course; the Marchioness of Londonderry was as much concerned about her schools as her industrial interests; the Lead Companies would not permit working under the age of twelve. There must have been other industrialists or farmers who would not employ very young children on principle but it must be remembered that industrial and agricultural prosperity was thought to depend on cheap labour and so most entrepreneurs felt that economics demanded they use the labour of children. One industrialist seemed to get the best of both worlds, both education for the young and also their labour when he needed it. At Deptford, one and a half miles west of Wearmouth, some little boys were paid weekly wages while at school so that the shipbuilder who paid for them could "claim their services when it suited him"¹. It is not certain who this shipbuilder was, but it was probably James Laing, the eminent shipbuilder, who had provided the land for the school built at Deptford in 1835.

Illness caused a decline in attendances. Only the exceptionally severe cases of epidemics are quoted, but as illness in the young was a common occurrence the total

1. Fordyce op.cit. Vol.II p.530.

effect must have been not insignificant. Many children were poorly clothed and inadequately fed to withstand the onset of disease and illness. Few of the children at South Shields St. John's School understood the luxury of shoes or stockings said the government inspector on his visit to the school in May 1848.¹ He was impressed by the standard of work and said it was "striking to see the little ragged creatures with naked feet writing in a style that might serve to make copy-slips for most children of their own age." Similarly, on visiting Gateshead Boys School on August 2nd 1849, the government inspector found a great many, even in the upper classes, without shoes or stockings. The outbreak of cholera in 1848, which affected the whole country and provided the stimulus needed to set up the Board of Health of that year, caused declining school attendances in most of the bigger towns in the county. Sunderland had many fatal cases of cholera in 1848 and 1849, so much so that attendance at the Sunderland Gray School Boys was reduced to nearly one-half in August 1849.² This school was set in a poor part of the town where there were 'narrow streets, filthy and ill-ventilated, cholera being one of the concomitants of these conditions. Indeed, so bad were the conditions in the area in which the Gray Schools were situated, that in 1850 the mistress of the Girls'

1. Minutes of Committee of Council 1847/8. Vol.II.
Report of J.D. Morell.

2. Minutes of Committee of Council 1848/9. Inspection
Aug. 1st. 1849.

School had to leave due to ill-health brought on by the "insalubrious situation" of the school.¹ The attendance at both the boys' and girls' schools at Escomb was much affected by measles in the summer of 1850.² When one considers the prevalence of diseases such as cholera, typhoid, influenza, measles and small-pox, the overall effect of illness on attendances must have been great.

The religious question, which is made much of in the standard texts on history of education, seems to be very insignificant insofar as attendances are concerned. The British Schools from their inception were open to all denominations. The Society was designated "the Institution for promoting the Education of the Labouring and Manufacturing Classes of Society of every Religious Persuasion..." and in its schools there was to be no denominational teaching. The Religious question only arose here, when parents or priests thought it essential to have the children taught the doctrines of their own church. Commissioner Foster said that in some cases Roman Catholic children were kept away from Protestant schools usually at the dictate of the priests, but it is most probable that the Protestant schools he refers to would be Church of England schools where the doctrines of the Established Church would be taught.³ Yet he added that parents sent their children to whichever

1. ibid 1850. Tabulated Reports of Inspected Schools.
2. ibid. 1850. Tabulated Reports.
3. Newcastle Commission Report. Vol.II. p.347.

they deemed the best school, "quite irrespective of religious peculiarities," and moreover the National Society were not so determined about demanding Sunday church attendance as a condition of attending weekday schools, thus lessening the religious obstacle. Many Wesleyans attended Church of England schools primarily because of the lack of Wesleyan schools.¹ The parents in some cases had no choice of schools, only the choice of sending the child to school or not. In the 1849 Report on Roman Catholic Schools by the government inspector he states that in some Roman Catholic schools protestant children were in the majority.² Foster knew of no case where a child had gone against its parents religion because of attending a day school of another denomination.³ "I have been the manager of schools for 400 children for ten years" said the Principal of Bede College in 1858," and I have never heard a whisper about the religious question"⁴ yet the significance of this remark must be moderated by the fact that the schools to which he was referring were the Blue Coat schools where there would be few Roman Catholics as this religious group had its own school, St. Cuthbert's in the City of Durham, and probably there would be as few Methodists for their day school had been opened in Old Elvet in 1847. Nevertheless,

1. Shincliffe C. of E. School had R.C. and Dissenters' children in 1850s. Newcastle Comm. Report. Vol.II. p.429
2. Minutes of Committee of Council.1849.Mr. Marshall's Report on R.C.Schools.
3. Newcastle Commission Report Vol.II.p.347
4. ibid. Vol.II.p.410.

if anyone were able to assess the religious question it must have been the Rev. J.G. Cromwell the then Principal of the Church of England training college. In Wesleyan Schools Wesleyan hymn books were used and the Wesleyan catechism was taught yet parents could keep their children from Sunday attendance at chapel if they wished on religious grounds.¹ Most religious groups who were providing schools appear to have pushed the religious question into the background in the hope of filling their schools. In Weardale an agreement was made between the Bishop of Durham and the London Lead Company over the religious question. The Company sent their children to the Barrington Schools but parents were to be allowed to choose which church their children attended on Sunday. The Company were not so concerned about the doctrinaire teaching, though many of their workmen were Quakers; The Company wished that the children of their workmen would receive the rudiments of "religious and useful education and in some degree realise the expectations entertained by the Bishop of Durham."² Parents could send their child to any church or chapel on Sunday so long as they got a ticket or card to show they had attended. The religious question seems to have been of fringe importance in its effect on attendance; all one can say is that there would be some parents who kept their children from school because they felt so strongly about religion that they would

1. *ibid.* Vol.I. p.60.
 2. Minutes of the London Lead Co. Jan. 19th 1819.

choose to deny their children some form of education rather than risk the influence on the child's mind of some possible doctrinal teaching.

Other reasons for poor attendance were suggested by the various inspectors and commissioners. One inspector suggested that better attendance registration would induce better attendance. At Stella, near Newcastle, the monthly list of attendances was hung up at the church door in 1849 in an attempt to encourage, parents and children to more frequent attendance at school,¹ but one doubts the impact of this when so many other forces were at work to defeat the object. Inspector Mr. Fletcher, suggested that the shortage of clocks was one of the reasons for lack of punctuality and to a lesser degree for poor attendance.² In some cases long distances between home and school deterred children, especially in the winter months, but this factor must have become less important as the century progressed and more schools were built. By 1860 few areas in the centre of the county would be without a school within a distance of one or two miles, yet this could be sufficient of a deterrent in winter months. In the more isolated valleys in the west, distance to school could be much further, and the condition of travel much worse. In these regions distance must have prevented regular attendance especially

1. *ibid.* 1848/9. Mr. Marshall's Report on R.C. Schools.
2. *ibid.* 1846. Mr. Fletcher's Report on British and Foreign Schools.

in the winter. Apathy on the part of parents was regarded as one of the more important reasons for poor attendance.¹ The Vicar of Byers Green pointed out that many parents never felt the need for education, as children were capable of getting work without it.² In some cases pit-owners preferred the non-educated workmen because he was usually less prone to join in trade union affairs and was found to have less scruples. The Rev. John Cundill, Vicar of St. Margaret's Durham went so far as to say that so apathetic were parents that the supply of educational facilities was in excess of demand, although he was alone in saying this.³ One outstanding exception to this supposed general apathy was when an inspector went to visit a school in "a town in Durham" and was overtaken by a mother literally driving with a strong whip her boy to school, flogging him up to its door and with every lash, giving him the mocking encouragement - "Hand away, that's a cannie man."⁴ Then there was the shining example of William Reid of the Londonderry School who was recommended for a special prize because he worked at the colliery every night from 6 p.m. till 2 a.m. and still found time to attend school regularly.⁵

With so many factors hindering regular attendance, how much schooling did children receive? Lord Brougham's

1. Newcastle Commission Report. Vol.II p.347
2. *ibid.* Vol.II.p.408.
3. *ibid.* Vol.II p.406.
4. Minutes of the Committee of Council. 1845. Mr. Watkins Report on the Northern District.
5. Report of W.A. Scott to Marchioness of Londonderry concerning Londonderry Schools.

Committee estimated that the proportion of day scholars to the whole population in 1818 was one to 17.25. Lord Kerry's figures for 1833 were one in 11.27, and the census of 1851 quoted one in 8.36. Even though these figures might be questioned they do indicate an increasing number of children attending school, after allowing for statistical errors. But 'attendance' can mean anything from one day to twelve years. The Assistant Commissioners in 1858, for instance, failed to discover any considerable number of children who did not attend school for some time at some period of their lives.¹ Various estimates were made of the average length of time spent at school. Inspector Watkins said that for the Northern District, which included all the northern counties, 90 weeks of irregular, interrupted attendance was about the average length of time spent at school by boys.² This would represent about two years spent at school between the ages of 3 and 15 which were the limiting ages. This figure is very near to that of the Master of St. Oswald's School, Durham City, who in 1858 said that 500 days was often the extreme amount of schooling a boy received and that was scattered over a period of six years.³ In comparison the average of 5.7 years quoted by the Assistant Commissioners for the whole country seems exceptionally high,⁴ and one doubts that the

1. Newcastle Commission Report. Vol.I. p.85.
2. Minutes of Committee of Council 1845.
3. Newcastle Commission Report. Vol.II.p.415.
4. *ibid.* Vol.I. p.85.

attendance in the northern area was so much less than the rest of the country. It seems that the Commissioners' figures represent an average based on the time of first going to school and the time of leaving finally, ignoring the many gaps due to absence. Presumably the Master of St. Oswald's would have attendance statistics available with which to make his assessment. The gaps left in the attendance register at times were big. A Northern Schoolmaster said that in his school in 1845 the average attendance for the boys was only $4\frac{1}{3}$ weeks in the year.¹ Later in the Newcastle Report more detailed statistics are drawn from a sample of 1740 weekday public schools and 3450 private schools, and a lower average is given of about 4 years. From the figures quoted we can say that the average length of time spent at school was somewhere between two and four years, with many children getting less than two years education, in the middle of the century.² The Durham coalfield with its high wages for the young, would most probably have a lower average than this, while the lead mining region away from the coalfield with its stricter discipline on attendance would have somewhat higher. The London Lead Company for instance had 94.15 per cent. of boys between the ages of six and twelve at school, this being far above the average for Foster's region as a whole -

1. Minutes of Committee of Council. 1845. Mr. Watkins Report. Letter to the Committee dated Dec. 9. 1845.
2. The statistics gathered by Michael Sadler give 2 years effective education as the average for 1851.

59.8 per cent. of those between 6 and 13.¹

Many children attended less than half the number of days the school was open. In Mr. Foster's area 36.2 per cent. of pupils attended less than 100 days while over half failed to attend more than 150 days. (See accompanying table).

Percentage of Children attending Specified Number of Days per Year.

<u>Number of Days</u>	A Percentage for Whole Country	B Percentage for Mr. Foster's Area	Cumulative Percentage for A	Cumulative Percentage For B
Less than 50	17.4	16.6	17.4	16.6
50 to 100	18.9	19.6	36.3	36.2
100 to 150	20.7	19.3	57.0	55.5
150 to 200	24.4	24.8	81.4	80.3
Above 200	18.6	19.7	100.0	100.0

(From Newcastle Commission Report. Vol. I p.172 and p.651)

These figures are remarkably similar to those for the whole area covered by the Newcastle Commission. Less than one-fifth of the pupils attended over 200 days, and exactly 200 days attendance would mean absences at least equal to four school weeks besides holidays. Probably a better indication of absenteeism could be had by saying that about one-sixth of the pupils attended less than ten weeks out of the customary forty four. If these days absent were scattered throughout the year the handicap to the teacher must have been tremendous. The effectiveness of continuous education would be gone almost entirely. The number in attendance

1. Newcastle Commission Report. Vol.II.p.369.

each day seems to have been about three-quarters of the total number on the books.¹ Only about one-third of the children were attending regularly, at least regularly enough to attend 175 days or more.

Of those who were at school at any one point of time around 1850, one quarter only were over the age of ten.² The colliery schools had the same attendance pattern, having three-quarters of their children younger than ten years.³ Almost half the children at school were between the ages of six and ten, although the private schools had many children below the age of six.

Many children seemed to move frequently between schools. Certainly the Durham coalfield had a mobile population during the early part of the century, miners being prepared to move to the better pits. Children then had to move to another school. The Committee of Council calculated that 40.96 per cent. of scholars attended the same school for less than a year and over 65 per cent. attended the same school for less than 2 years.⁴ Mr. Foster calculated for his region that 43.4 per cent. of children attended the same school for less than one year and 67 per cent for less than two years.⁵ Over one third of the children in Mr. Foster's region had attended some other school. Those

1. Minutes of Committee of Council. 1845. Mr. Watkins Report on Northern District.
2. See Appendix 31.
3. Newcastle Commission Report. Vol.II. p.335.
4. *ibid.* Vol.I. p.172.
5. *ibid.* Vol.I. p.659

children who found work in the summer months during harvest might have been withdrawn from the register at the beginning of September when the new school year started then re-admitted nearer the New Year. This would possibly be the reason why the number admitted and the number left each year were so high. Houghton-le-Spring Boys School, for instance had 98 children in ordinary attendance in 1850 yet during that year 97 had been admitted and 91 had left.¹ The mixed school at Newbottle had 75 in ordinary attendance in the same year and had admitted 69, with 60 having left.² A still more rapid turnover was achieved by Sunderland Gray Boys School, which, with 210 in ordinary attendance, had 260 admissions and 259 leavers. Thus some schools had a complete change of pupils from one year to the next. Inspector Morell remarked on this in 1849 - "the majority of schools I have visited," he said, "admit each year at least two-thirds of their average attendance and in some instances almost an entire change of pupils has taken place between one annual inspection and another."³ From a sample of forty schools in County Durham taken from the 1852 Report of the Reverend D.J. Stewart, inspector for the north, I found there were 3029 admissions, and 4165 ordinary attendances which agrees with Morell's estimates.⁴ The only admissions register I have been able to find for this period is that for Dame Mary Calverley's

1. Minutes of Committee of Council 1850. Tabulated Reports.
2. *ibid.*
3. Minutes of Committee of Council. 1848/9/50. Vol. II. Report on British Schools.
4. The first 40 schools with figures available were taken.

School at Darlington.¹ It not only gives the date of admission but also the date of leaving so one can find out how long the children remained at school. Of seven children who were admitted on November 23rd 1810, for instance, one left on November 23rd 1811, one left in 1812, two in 1813 and by May 2nd 1814 they had all left. On the 15th of January 1822 eleven children were admitted and by the 14th January 1824 they had all left. Indeed one of these children left the school on the 1st of October 1822 the same year as he was admitted. It would appear that most schools had this sort of rapid turnover of pupils throughout the early 19th Century.

The 1851 Census estimated that in 1833 about one-third of children between the ages of 3 and 12 years had been at week-day schools, while in 1851 the proportion had reached a half. Assistant Commissioner Foster estimated 59.8 per cent. of children between six and thirteen at weekday schools in the five Unions he inspected for the Newcastle Commission. The figure for the age group 3 to 12 years would be slightly higher in Foster's region because of the higher proportion of children at school between the ages of three and six years. Returns made by collieries in the Durham Union give 3,814 children between the ages of 3 and 10 years at day school out of a total 4886 children living

1. Register for Dame Mary Calverley's School is in the Darlington Public Library.

in the areas around the collieries,¹ i.e. 78 per cent. of children between these ages at school. Littleton, for example, had 62 children between 3 and 10 at week day school out of 80 children; Hetton had 674 out of 932 children between these ages at school; Sherburn had 263 out of 387. In 1858, then probably about two thirds of all children between 3 and 12 years were on the registers of weekday schools whereas the proportions had been about a half in 1851 and about one-third in 1833. One can only estimate that in 1820 there would only be about one-fifth of the children receiving full-time education, and considerably less in 1800.

In conclusion it seems that the value of the education received by children in the early nineteenth century must have been lessened by the short, intermittent time spent at school. The school life was not in most cases, of long duration and was made of less value because of the many absences interspersed with the attendances. It is no wonder that some children attended school for two years and were unable to read and write at the end of it. In 1858 it was found that 22 per cent. of the fathers of the children at that time at school could neither read nor write,² and 28 per cent. of the mothers could neither read nor write. These were the people who had been educated between 1820 and 1840 presumably. It must be remembered, too, that

1. Newcastle Commission Report. Vol. II. p. 579. Appendix D.
2. *ibid.* p. 332.

writing probably amounted to no more than the ability to inscribe one's name. Even so this was a "great advance upon the condition of matters twenty years ago when very few of the pitmen signed their engagements otherwise than by mark."¹ Conditions were improving as the century progressed, attendances were rising, the length of school life was increasing, yet there was a long time to wait for compulsory education.

1. *ibid.*

Chapter 16.

Conclusion.

Economics is the study of human behaviour in its relationship with scarce resources and the choice of ends to which these resources can be put, both resources and ends being capable of extension over periods of time. Our demands grow as our wealth increases and as science and new techniques provide us with a wider range of ways in which to spend our growing incomes. Demand is constantly greater than the supply of goods and services, so society is, and will always be, faced with choice, choice is how to spend a limiting income and choice in how to produce and what to produce to satisfy these insatiable demands. Economics studies scarcity and choice.

At any one point of time society determines how the available factors of production, land, labour and capital, shall be used, and when the decision is taken as to what to produce with these factors, society has to accept the fact that it has to forego the alternative end products; it is a case of this or that, not both this and that. Choice involves selecting from a variety of ends. Just as contemporary society has to decide between more schools or more hospitals, more doctors or more teachers, more roads or more houses, 19th Century society had to make its choice in how to apply its scarce resources although this was at a lower level of material welfare. In order to fully comprehend the economics of early 19th Century education

it is essential that we are aware of the alternatives open to society of that period in the use of scarce resources and also clear as to what was the scale of preference of that society, what it regarded as absolutely essential and what it regarded as less essential.

The first chapter gave some indication of the economic and social conditions of the country between 1800 and 1860, and it is unnecessary to repeat the whole of this picture, but economic choice is so dependent on this background that it is essential a reconsideration be made of the fundamental features of the early nineteenth century social situation. There were many ways in which the increasingly efficient economy could apply its resources to make life more satisfying for the many poor. Life in itself was a struggle. The infant mortality rate was as high as 156 per 1000 in 1851, a startling figure in comparison with the figure of less than 20 per 1000 for the present day; the expectancy of life must have been little over 30 years, with some areas having life expectancy of less than 20 years in the first years of the century. As late as 1860, out of every five operations performed in the Glasgow, Edinburgh and London hospitals two were fatal, a consequence of inadequate buildings and insufficient medical care. There were only a few medical schools for the training of doctors in 1850. Bristol, Manchester, Sheffield, Leeds, Newcastle and Liverpool opened medical schools between 1818 and 1832 but these trained only a handful of doctors and still left

the country with a shortage of medical services. Long hours worked by men, women and children in the factories and mines, militated against health, causing illness and deformity leading to early death. Poverty and malnutrition were widespread in an era when the supply of fresh food was limited by the inadequate transport facilities of the pre-railway age, and when high levels of unemployment occurred in the downswing of the trade cycle, this new phenomenon which had appeared with the industrial revolution, In 1834 the new Poor Law made conditions worse by introducing a stricter control over the administration of poor relief, so much so that the expenditure on relief declined from nearly £7 million in 1831 to £4,700,000 in 1841 despite an increase of population in England and Wales from 14 to 16 million. Workhouse accommodation was inadequate, life inside was harsh, the destitute to a large extent ignored. The early decades of the 19th Century faced this problem of extending life and building a healthy population while the expanding industrial economy demanded a large share of the increased national product to be ploughed back in reinvestment on new capital projects, new machines, new factories, railways and the like. Sacrifice was enforced on the poor in the form of low incomes and long hours of work so that a larger part of the national income could be used for industrial development rather than on social services and benefits to health, later generations being able to reap the rewards of this investment. The supremacy of

Britain in the late 19th Century in industrial techniques rested on the foundations laid on the sacrifice of preceding generations.

With such low incomes, high rents for houses could not be charged and the result was that houses were built which, although lacking the advantages of good sanitation and fresh water supply, at least had the advantage of being let at rents which the working classes could afford. In the short run slums were economic. Laissez-faire applied in house building during our period and everything was sacrificed to cheapness, thus leaving society with a shortage of sanitation provision and fresh water supplies, two essentials to modern society. It was uncommon in the early years of the century to find streets lighted or paved; the confidence in gas as the best means of lighting was only established in the first three or four decades of the 19th century, while the need for cobbling or paving of streets only arose with the increased use of carriages later in the century. The earliest use of gas for street lighting was in Manchester in 1807. As far as is known there were no municipal fire brigades before 1873 when Chamberlain introduced one in Birmingham, although prior to this most fire insurance firms had their own, but operated a policy of "laissez-bruler" for non-insured properties.

Society determines what has to be produced from its scarce resources of land, labour and capital and how the resulting national income has to be distributed. Early

19th Century society had a wide choice in deciding what was to be produced. The factors of production could be used to build railways, hospitals, industrial plant, improved housing, more food and so on. Against these demands, the provision of educational facilities, which also required factors of production, was facing an uphill task. One could not expect the poorest classes to pay an economic price for their education - these classes had other more pressing needs such as providing a shelter for themselves and food to keep themselves alive. Education had to be bestowed from above if it were to be successful, to be granted by the richer classes as a concession to the lower classes and to their conscience. The government intervened but slowly in educational provision in the period up to 1860 and one can realise why when the problem of revenue is considered. Only by either enforcing a much more progressive system of tax so as to make the rich pay, or by restoring income tax at fairly low incomes so as to make the poor pay could sufficient revenue be gathered to provide a national system of elementary education as had been proposed in the early years, yet the former method was anathema to the rich Members of Parliament while the latter was impossible without enforcing poverty and starvation on large numbers. Succeeding governments after 1833 found sufficient revenue to increase the expenditure on education slowly year by year without increasing the burden on the taxpayer or the poor. As conditions of life improved and

as real wages increased, so more was set aside for education, but at the same time factors of production were expended on improvements in the fundamentals of life such as food, shelter and warmth. Slow progress in all spheres, rather than rapid progress in one section of society at the expense of others was the feature of nineteenth century economics and so education received its share of an increased efficiency in the economy alongside other social benefits. The latter half of the century witnessed the extension of elementary education to almost all children under eleven and the gradual building up of more social and medical benefits.

Deane and Cole estimate the 1851 National Income at £523.3 million.¹ Out of this total over £5 million was spent on relief of the poor under the Boards of Guardians and approximately £1½ million was expended on elementary education by all bodies public and private from all sources.² Thus no more than 0.3% of the National Income went on elementary education in 1851. The total amount spent on education in the years 1963 to 1964, excluding the private sector, was £958,804,852³ out of a National Income of about £27 thousand million, which represents about 3.5%. However, since 1851 considerable extensions to educational provision have been made in the spheres of secondary and further

1. Deane and Cole. op.cit. Table 166.
2. The Newcastle Commission quotes £1,017,154 annual income from all sources for education in religiously supported schools in 1858. Vol.I.p.582.
3. Education Statistics published by I.M.T.A. for 1963/4. p.5.

education, so it is better to relate the percentage of the National Income spent on elementary education in 1851 with the amount spent on primary education today. The 1963/4 figure for the amount spent on primary education including nurseries but excluding the amounts spent on medical inspection, milk and meals and teacher training, comes to £273,950,180 and even after adding the costs of teacher training, inspection and administration which were included in the 1851 figures and not in the 1963/4 figures, the percentage of the National Income spent on primary education today can only be about 1.3%. It would appear that about five times as much of the National Income is spent on elementary education today than in 1851. It is interesting to note that the proportion spent on teachers' salaries has not altered significantly since 1851. In the 1850s about 75% of all expenditure was consumed by teachers' salaries while today the proportion is about 68%.¹ There appears to have been a general increase in expenditure on all items - teachers, buildings, furniture, equipment etc., with no particular item of expenditure gaining over the others. As the wealth of the country has increased, so has the amount spent on education. We spend more today on education facilities because this stands high on our scale of preferences and we realise that the future of the economy depends on investment in education as much as investment of other sorts. Society in the 1840s considered that investment in railways

1. *ibid* p.7. Out of £63 per head cost in primary schools, £43 goes on teachers salaries.

for instance would bring greater increments of return than would investment in education, for did not the government sanction over £265 million worth of capital investment in the railways in the single year of 1847 while educational investment in buildings and training of teachers languished behind at much less than half a million pounds. Subsequent years proved the success of this economic choice, for the railways brought industrial prosperity in their wake, cheaper foods, varied diets and many social benefits. The economic predominance of Britain between 1850 and 1875 rested to a large extent on such investment.

Value judgments are dangerous in a study of history. Unless the historian places himself in the actual social and economic context of his period and "breathes the social atmosphere" with the ordinary people of the time, then he will most probably draw the wrong conclusions. It is unfair for us to say what were right and wrong decisions in earlier periods. We should not criticise our ancestors of a century ago for choosing to spend their income on railways rather than schools, for to them the benefits accruing from railways were much more significant than those arising out of better education. One benefit is concrete and apparent; the other is more abstract and less obvious. Moreover it is doubtful whether the demand for educational facilities was to any great extent greater than the supply. Several people interviewed by the Newcastle Commission suggested that the contrary applied, that in fact supply

exceeded demand. The lower classes saw a conflict between the need for a better education for their children and the need for more money to provide them with a higher standard of living. The child could earn and so contribute to the well-being of the family or he could attend school and thus become a burden on the family. On one hand he was an economic asset, on the other an economic liability. Demand for even elementary education was bound to be low under such a conflict. In economics, demands are indicated by spending. If more bread is needed then it is indicated by the amount paid by consumers and is evident through the price mechanism in rising prices. Similarly if more education is demanded, it is shown by full schools and the acceptance of higher fees by the parents. Attendances at schools in the early 19th Century illustrate that there was no great surplus of demand, for many schools had room for more children.

Society chose from its scarce resources and education was low on the list of priorities. Economic and social conditions gave the background against which this choice had to be made and so poor was the way of life of the average working family that education for the children was considered of secondary importance to other more obvious necessities. The benefits to be derived from a good education today far exceed the benefits attainable by the educated person of a century ago. What was the value of learning to read and write for the working man? Could he

hope for promotion and a higher standard of living? The returns from denying the family two or three years income from child labour in order to have the children able to read and write were negligible. Education, for the working class family, was a bad investment economically. Only when he could see some returns for his denial, or when he had education provided at low cost, would the working man choose to send his child or children to school.

Supply and demand tend to an equilibrium. If there is an increase in demand then increased supply is usually forthcoming. This is as true of the nineteenth century as of any other century. Had there been the demand for more educational facilities, then private schools would have emerged in much greater numbers to fill the gap. But society did not choose to have more schools. The supply must have been sufficient, at the fees charged, to balance demand. It may be, however, that left to their own devices, parents would always demand less in the way of education than is good for society. John Stuart Mill in his essay *On Liberty* (1859) pointed this out when he said "Is it not almost a self-evident axiom, that the State should require and compel the education, up to a certain standard of every human being who is born its citizen?" He felt that parents were not sufficiently wise to be left with the decision, so the state should intervene. Yet compulsory education was a long way off. The hindrances were not solely economic but were also religious and political - "An attempt says

the Newcastle Commission "to replace an independent system of education by a compulsory system, managed by the government, would be met by objections, both religious and political, of far graver character in this country than any with which it has had to contend in Prussia."¹ Thus compulsory education was pushed further back until society could afford it and was prepared to accept the religious and political problems accompanying it.

In judging the shortcomings of the early 19th Century, it is necessary to distinguish mistakes of avarice and blindness from those which were due to inadequacy of technique and insufficiency of national income. To twentieth century educational historians the paucity of educational provision may seem atrocious yet in terms of the economic and social struggle with which society was then faced, the amount of education provided represents a considerable achievement in a period when there were so many alternative ways of using scarce resources to good advantage.

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1. Newcastle Commission. Vol.I. p.300.

A P P E N D I C E S .

Appendix 1

List of places having Charity Schools endowed or re-endowed in County Durham before and during the 18th Century, according to M.G.Jones in "The Charity School Movement in the 18th Century". (Excluding those for Grammar Schools).

St.Andrew Auckland
 -St.Helens Auckland
 Bishop Middleham
 Chester-le-Street
 Darlington
 Easington
 Gainford
 Hart
 Haughton-le-Skerne
 Houghton-le-Spring
 Hurworth
 Jarrow
 Lanchester
 Middleton-st-George
 Middleton-in-Teesdale
 Staindrop
 Great Stainton
 Stanhope
 Stockton
 Stranton
 Sunderland
 Whickham
 Winston
 Witton Gilbert.

Appendix 2

Full List of Permanent Charitable Endowments for Education in County Durham up to 1800 compiled from Fordyce, History of Durham and Charity Commissioner's Reports (1818 - 1843).

<u>Place</u>	<u>Donor</u>	<u>Date</u>	<u>Approximate Value</u>
Durham City	Aldermen of the City	1708	
" "	Jane Finney	1728	£7.10s. a year income.
" "	Jane Smith	1785	£60 endowment.
" "	Rev. John Cock	1701	£4 a year income.
* Witton Gilbert	Jane Finney	1728	£11.2s.6d. a year income.
Tudhoe	Henry Wilson	1746	16s.0d. a year income.
Darlington	Dame Mary Calverley	1713	£1,000 endowment.
"	Richard Lindley	1785	£150 endowment.
"	Robert Noble	1719	£2 a year income.
"	Jane Dance	1799	£300 endowment.
Hurworth	General subscription	1770	£26.12s. a year income.
* Dinsdale	Mary Wirill	1668	£6 a year income.
Haughton-le-Skerne	General subscription	1768	-
"	Eliz. Alexander	1789	£40 endowment.
Sadberge	General Subscription	1789	£273 endowment.
Heighington (Grammar)	Eliz. Jennison	1601	£11 a year income
" "	Bishop Talbot	1724	4s.0d. a year income.
Bishop Auckland			
(Grammar)	Anna Swyfte	1605	£10 a year income.
" "	Ralph Maddison	?	£6 a year income.
" "	Richard Maddison	?	4s.0d. a year income.
" "	Wm. Wall	1679	15s.0d. a year income.
" "	Lord Crewe	1720	£20 a year income.
" "	Ed. Walton	1768	£500 endowment.
Sildon	Ed. Walton	1768	£500 endowment.
* West Auckland	Eliz. Donald	1789	£5 a year income
" "	Margaret Hubbock	1798	£10 a year income
Witton (Grammar)	John Cuthbert	1783	£200 endowment
Wolsingham (Grammar)	Bishop of Durham	1612	£56.10s. a year income.

Appendix 2 (Ctd.)

<u>Place</u>	<u>Donor</u>	<u>Date</u>	<u>Approximate Value</u>
Wolsingham (Grammar)	Jonathan Wooler	1789	£100 endowment.
* Stanhope	Dr.Hartwell	1724	£8 a year income.
* Westgate	Richard Bainbridge	1681	£70 a year income.
* Boltsburn	Geo.Collingwood	1762	£2.10s. a year income.
* Frosterley	John Hinks	1735	£120 endowment.
* Barnard Castle	John Dent	1706	£133 endowment.
* Middleton-in- Teesdale.	Mary, Elizabeth, Margaret & Grace Robinson.	1729	£16 a year income.
Newbiggin	Wm.Tarn	1799	£11 a year income.
* Forest and Frith	Robt.Brumwell	1724	£80 endowment.
* Staindrop	John Grainger	1710	£300 endowment.
Winston	Lord Crewe	?	£70 endowment.
* Gainford	Henry Greswold	1691	£100 endowment.
Stockton (Bluecoat)	General Subscription	1721 and after.	£250 a year income by 1833
(Some considerable endowments were made to this School in the 18th Century)			
Norton (Grammar)	Bishop of Durham	1650	£15.10s. a year income (1850)
" "	Lord Crewe	1720	£11.6s. a year income.
Middleton-St.George	General Subscription	1768	£75 endowment plus building
* Hartlepool	John Crooks	1742	£20 a year income
* Stranton	Rev.Chris.Fulthorpe	1707	£30 a year income
* Stainton-le-Street	Rev.Thos.Nicholson	1745	£100 endowment
"	Lord Crewe Trust	1771 and 1779	£160 endowment
"	Anthony Hubbock	1779	£60 endowment
Sedgefield	Unknown	?	£10.10s. a year income.
* "	Richard Wright	1790	£300 endowment
"	John Lowther	1782	£600 endowment
Fishburn	Lord Crewe Trust	?	£5 a year income
* Trimdon	Henry Airey	1680	£5 a year income
* Sunderland	Eliz.Donnison	1764	£1500 endowment
"	Ed.Walton	1768	£500 endowment

Appendix 2 (Ctd.)

<u>Place</u>	<u>Donor</u>	<u>Date</u>	<u>Approximate Value</u>
Easington	Dr. Gabriel Clarke	1662	£60 endowment
Hawthorn	Robt. Forster	1736	£200 endowment
Shotton	Ed. Walton	1768	£500 endowment
"	Wm. Dunn	1760	£40 endowment
Houghton-le-Spring (Grammar)	Many varied subscriptions	1574 and after	£181.8s.4d. a year income by 1837
Houghton-le-Spring	Sir Geo. Wheeler	1719	£600 endowment
Shiney Row	Sir Henry Vane	?	£15 a year income
West Rainton	Lord Crewe Trust	?	£5 a year income
* Chester-le-Street	Elizabeth Tewart	1718	£6 a year income
* Tanfield	Robert Robinson	1730	£6 a year income
* "	Elizabeth Davison	1762	£500 endowment
* Lanchester	Geo. Clavering	1793	£265.10s. endowment
"	Jane and Eliz. Tempest	1785	£350 endowment
Ryton	Lord Crewe Trust	?	£5 a year income
Crawcrook	Miss Simpson	?	Not known
* Whickham	Dr. Thomlinson	1745	£100 endowment
"	Jane Blackiston	1714	£100 endowment
"	John Hewett	1738	£1.10s. a year income
"	Robert Marshall	?	£20 endowment
"	Thomas Bowes	1721	£23 a year income
"	Geo. Bowes	1739	£10 a year income
Fellside	Earl of Strathmore	?	£10 endowment
Hunstanworth	Lord Crewe Trust	?	£5 a year income
* South Shields	Christopher Maughan	1749	£100 endowment
* "	Ann Auburne	1760	£100 endowment
"	Lord Crewe Trust	c.1769	£100 endowment
"	Henry Wilkinson	c.1769	£100 endowment
"	Lockwood Broderick	?	£100 endowment
* Gateshead	Dr. Theophilus Pickering	1701	£300 endowment.

* The charities asterisked are those listed by Eisel in his thesis entitled "A brief history of education in County Durham in the 18th

Appendix 2 (Ctd.)

Century with a special reference to elementary education". p.96.

The only charity from Eisel's list I have omitted is one granted by Hercules Brabant to Brandon. I can find no evidence that this charity was ever applied to educational purposes.

The charitable endowments of Jane Dance and Richard Lindley are to be found in the Society of Friends Account of Trust Property (1886) to be seen in the Library of the Society of Friends at Darlington. See pages 18 and 17 respectively.

Appendix 3

List of Permanent Charitable Endowments for Education instituted between 1800 and 1860 for County Durham compiled from Fordyce, History of Durham and Charity Commissioner's Reports (1818 - 1843):-

<u>Place</u>	<u>Donor</u>	<u>Date</u>	<u>Value</u>
Bishop Middleham	Eliz. Ambler	1828	£300 endowment
Aycliffe	Wm. Bell	1809	£100 endowment
Wolsingham (Grammar)	Geo. Wooler	1826	£100 endowment
" "	Wm. Newcombe	1846	£200 endowment
7 Weardale Schools	Bishop Barrington	1820	£88.14s.4d. a year income
St. John's Chapel	Barbara Chapman	1829	£12 a year income
Frosterley	Mary Todd	1824	£200 endowment
Stockton (Blue Coat)	Geo. Sutton	1815	£550 endowment
Hartlepool	Eliz. Prissick	1826	£200 a year income
Grindon	Geo. Fleetham	1816	£80 endowment
Sedgefield	John D. Bainbridge	1811	£45 endowment
" (Grammar)	William Soulsby	1832	£300 endowment
Fishburn	Miss Chilton	1839	£200 endowment
Easington	Archdeacon Prosser	1814	£1000 endowment
Bishopwearmouth	Dorothy Scurfield	1819	£1.1s. a year income
"	Rev. Robert Gray	1825	£30 endowment
"	Eliz. Woodcock	1841	£1000 endowment
Ryhope	Dorothy Scurfield	1819	£3.3s. a year income
Lamesley	Hon. Thos. Liddell	1856	£600 endowment
Lanchester	John Smirke	1815	£100 endowment
Cornsay	Wm. Russell	1811	£12 a year income
Ryton	Walker Lawson	1804	£60 endowment
South Shields	Margaret Glazonby	1810	£200 endowment
"	Joseph Ogle	1820	£100 endowment
West Boldon	Rev. Henry Blackett	1808	£200 endowment
Usworth	Susan Peareth	1814	£1,100 endowment

Appendix 4

Value of Educational Charities. Sir J.K.Shuttleworth's figures
to Newcastle Commission (Vol.1V p.274)

<u>Value</u>	<u>No. of Charities</u>
Less than £5 per annum	13,331
£5 and under £10	4,641
£10 " " £20	3,908
£20 " " £30	1,866
£30 " " £50	1,799
£50 " " £100	1,540
£100 " " £500	1,417
£500 " " £1000	209
£1000 " " £2000	73
Over £2,000	56
	<hr/>
	28,840
	<hr/>

Appendix 5

Value of Education Charities in County Durham - compiled from Appendix 2 estimating a 4 per cent. dividend on investment.

<u>Value</u>	<u>No. of Charities</u>
Less than £5 per annum	39
£5 and under £10	20
£10 " " £20	20
£20 " " £30	13
£30 " " £50	3
£50 " " £100	4
£100 " " £500	1
	100

This list is compiled from those charities the value of which is known or can be assessed.

Appendix 6Annual Payments made to schools by the Crewe Trust, 1829.

(According to the Charity Commissioners Reports)

£10 per annum to Aycliffe, Easington, Howick, Washington and Whitburn.

£20 per annum to Sunderland and Thornton.

£8 per annum to Sherburn.

£6 per annum to Brafferton.

£5.5s. per annum to Beadnell.

£5 per annum to Bishopton, Brancepeth, Cockerton, Cornsay, Darlington, Edlingham, Ellingham, Fishburn, Fleetham, Harewood, Holy Island, Hunstanworth, Hurworth, Lanchester, Lucker, Muggleswick, North Charlton, Sunderland, Norton, Ovingham (Yorks.), Ryton, Shotley, Shadforth, Sadberge, Shotley Bridge, Seaton Carew, Sunderland Bridge, Trimdon, Thorpe.

£4 per annum to Eastgate.

Total £263.5s.0d.

Appendix 7Expenditure by the Lord Crewe Trust (Average for years 1827, 1828
and 1829).

Average expenditure	£5,452.19s.3d.
Average income	£8,126. 8s.4d.
Payments to schools	£263. 5s.0d.
Payments to Bamburgh School	£160. 0s.0d.
Expense of boarders at Bamburgh School	£257. 8s.3d.
Payments to Blanchland School	£100. 0s.0d.
Payments to school buildings	£116. 0s.0d.
Exhibitions	£60. 0s.0d.
Annuities and donations	£517.14s.8d.
Donations and subscriptions to charitable institutions	£450.18s.0d.
<hr/>	
Total	£1925. 5s.11d.
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From the Charity Commissioners Reports 1819 - 1837.

Appendix 8Income of the Lord Crewe Trust, 1829. (Charity Commissioners Report
1819 - 1837).

Rental of the estates in Bamburgh and Norham	£5495.17s.6d.
Rental of the estates in Blanchland, Edmondbyers, Hexham and Shotley.	£2093.13s.6d.
Rental of fishery at Tweedmouth	£200. 0s.0d.
Paid by tenants at Bamburgh for not having performed the services stipulated in case of wreck.	£83. 8s.4d.
Dividends on Stock	£253. 9s.4d.

Total	£8126. 8s.8d.
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Appendix 9

National Schools in County Durham united either to the National Society or to the Diocesan Board, 1847. (National Society Report 1847).

<u>School</u>	<u>Scholars</u> (may include some evening only or Sunday only)	<u>Finances</u> Payment by National Society.	Other forms	E = Endowment P = Payment of fees S = Subscription
Hunwick	126 mixed	£35	E	
St. Andrews Auckland (Industry)	37 girls		S.P.	
Coundon	177 mixed	£50	S.P.	
Byers Green	93 mixed	£55	S.P.	
Newfield	134 mixed	£60	S.P.	
Old Shildon	69 boys	} £85	S.P.	
Old Shildon	61 girls		S.P.	
Middridge	60 mixed			
Etherley	231 mixed		S.P.	
Hamsterley	99 mixed		S.P.	
Great Aycliffe	137 mixed		E.S.P.	
Wolviston	60 mixed		E.S.	
Bishop Middleham	87 mixed		E.P.	
Cornforth	58 mixed		S.P.	
Bishopton	70 mixed		S.P.	
St. Andrews Bishopwearmouth	81 boys	£120	S.P.	
Deptford	85 girls		S.P.	
Bishopwearmouth Infants	40 mixed		S.P.	
Ryhope Chapel (Bp. Wearmouth)	50 mixed		S.P.	
Burdon Chapel (Bp. Wearmouth)	32 mixed		S.P.	
South Hylton Chapel	96 girls		S.P.	
South Hylton Chapel	72 boys	£10	S.P.	
Brancepeth	40 mixed		S.P.	

Appendix 9 (Ctd.)

<u>School</u>	<u>Scholars</u> (may include some evening only or Sunday only)	<u>Finances</u> Payment by National Society.	Other forms
Tudhoe	40 mixed		S.P.
Willington	25 mixed		S.P.
Brandon Dame	17 mixed		P.
Castle Eden	54 girls		S.P.
Castle Eden	48 boys	£50	S.P.
Chester-le-Street	72 boys		S.P.
Chester-le-Street	80 girls		S.P.
Lamesley Chapel	117 mixed		S.P.
Old Engine	30 girls		S.P.
Barrington	51 boys		S.P.
Barrington	30 girls		S.P.
Tanfield Chapel	77 mixed	£50	E.S.P.
Darlington St.Cuthberts	358 mixed	£250	E.S.P.
Cockerton	98 mixed	£100	S.P.
Trinity Darlington	199 boys	£110	S.P.
Trinity Darlington	174 girls		S.P.
Belmont Durham	60 mixed		S.P.
St.Margaret's, Durham	118 mixed	£10	S.P.
Blue Coat, Durham.	360 boys		E.S.P.
Blue Coat, Durham	157 girls		E.S.P.
St.Oswald's, Durham	160 boys		E.S.P.
St.Oswald's, Durham	120 girls		E.S.P.
St.Oswald's, Durham	70 infants		E.S.P.
Croxdale	89 mixed		S.P.
Eaglescliffe	67 mixed		S.P.
Easington, So.Hetton and Haswell Colliery	63 boys		S.P.
- ditto -	56 girls		S.P.
Haswell Colliery	163 mixed		S.P.
Edmundbyers	20 mixed	£5	E.S.P.

Appendix 9 (Ctd.)

<u>School</u>	<u>Scholars</u> (may include some evening only or Sunday only)	<u>Finances</u>	
		Payment by National Society.	Other forms
Hunstanworth	28 boys		S.P.
- ditto -	27 girls		S.P.
Gainford	132 boys		S.P.
- ditto -	112 girls		S.P.
Barnard Castle	241 mixed	£120	S.P.
Denton	42 mixed		S.P.
Denton	30 mixed		P.
Gateshead, St.Mary and Trinity (2 schools)	585 mixed	£110	S.
Friar's Goose	123 mixed	£25	S.P.
Gateshead Infants	220 mixed		S.P.
Gateshead Free (2 schools)	134 mixed	£150	S.P.
Wrekenton (2 schools)	100 mixed	£30	S.P.
Greatham	70 mixed		S.P.
Greatham girls	43 girls		S.P.
- ditto - infants	13 mixed		S.P.
Haughton-le-Skerne	44 boys		E.S.P.
- ditto -	40 girls		E.S.P.
Sadberge	48 mixed		E.S.P.
Houghton-le-Spring (National & Barrington Schools)	160 boys	£120	S.P.
Houghton-le-Spring	193 girls		S.P.
- ditto - infants	57 mixed		S.P.
Hetton-le-Hole (National & Barrington)	181 mixed		S.P.
West Rainton	153 mixed		S.P.
Hurworth	75 boys	£90	E.S.P.
- ditto -	72 girls		S.P.
Jarrow St.Paul (2 schools)	128 mixed	£130	S.P.

Appendix 9 (Ctd.)

<u>School</u>	<u>Scholars</u> (may include some evening only or Sunday only)	<u>Finances</u> Payment by National Society	Other forms
Heworth Chapel	98 boys	£30	S.P.
- ditto -	78 girls		S.P.
St.Alban's	73 boys		S.P.
- ditto -	75 girls		S.P.
Westoe	163 boys		E.S.P.
Kelloe	100 boys		S.P.
- ditto -	60 girls		S.P.
Thornley Colliery	64 boys		S.P.
- ditto -	72 girls		S.P.
Lanchester, Holmside	96 mixed	£55	S.P.
Lanchester	105 mixed		S.P.
Lanchester Colliery (2 schools)	80 mixed	£62	E.S.P.
Esh	92 mixed		S.P.
Satley	40 mixed		E.P.
Cornsay	30 mixed		E.P.
Merrington	46 mixed		S.P.
Middleton-in-Teesdale (2 schools)	61 mixed	£85	E.S.P.
Egglestone (2 schools)	94 mixed		S.P.
Middleton-St-George	- no return -		
Castle Eden	57 boys		S.P.
- ditto -	64 girls		S.P.
- ditto - infants	56 mixed		S.P.
Monkwearmouth	219 mixed		E.S.P.
Southwick (2 schools)	481 mixed		S.P.
Norton	145 mixed	£30	S.P.
Pittington	- no return -		
Redmarshall	- no return -		
Ryton	114 mixed		E.P.
Greenside	94 mixed		E.P.

Appendix 9 (Ctd.)

<u>School</u>	<u>Scholars</u> (may include some evening only or Sunday only)	<u>Finances</u> Payment by National Society	Other forms
Seaham	113 boys	£100	S.P.
- ditto -	78 girls		S.P.
Shadforth (2 schools)	98 mixed	£40	E.S.P.
South Shields Trinity	179 boys		S.P.
- ditto -	235 girls		S.P.
Shincliffe	159 mixed	£23	S.P.
St. John's Chapel	54 mixed		E.P.
Westgate	126 mixed		E.S.P.
Heathery Cleugh	66 mixed		E.S.P.
Eastgate	53 mixed		E.S.P.
Frosterley	51 mixed		E.S.P.
Stockton-on-Tees	300 mixed	£200	E.S.P.
Stockton Trinity Blue Coat School	137 boys	£100	E.S.P.
Stockton School of Industry	64 girls		E.S.P.
Middleton	71 mixed	£35	P.
Seaton Carew Boys	50 boys	£120	S.P.
- ditto - Girls	58 girls	"	S.P.
Sunderland Gray	280 boys	£480	E.S.P.
- ditto -	277 girls		E.S.P.
Trimdon		- no return -	
Washington	62 mixed		S.P.
Usworth	92 mixed		E.P.
Whickham	149 boys		E.S.P.
- ditto -	60 girls		E.S.P.
Whitburn	117 mixed		E.S.P.
Cleadon	32 mixed		S.P.
Whitworth	101 mixed	£80	S.P.
Winlaton Chapel	175 mixed	£50	S.P.
Witton Gilbert	82 mixed	£80	E.S.P.

Appendix 9 (Ctd.)

<u>School</u>	<u>Scholars</u> (may include some evening only or Sunday only)	<u>Finances</u> Payment by National Society	Other forms
Sacrison	141 mixed		S.P.
Witton-le-Wear	103 mixed		S.P.
Wolsingham	63 boys	£240	S.P.
- ditto -	47 girls		S.P.
- ditto -	29 infants		S.P.
Thornley	74 mixed	£80	S.P.
Tow Law (Schools not yet completed)		£200	

Appendix 10

Collections made in Churches in County Durham in response to the Queen's Letter 1840. (National Society Report 1843).

	£. s. d.		£. s. d.
St. Andrew's Bishop Auckland	2.16.0 $\frac{1}{2}$.	Gainford	2.10. 0.
St. Ann's Chapel, "	2.16.4.	Barnard Castle	3.17. 8.
St. Helen's, "	1. 2.6.	Gateshead, St. Mary's	7. 4. 6.
Etherley Chapel	16.9.	Trinity Chapel, Gateshead	2.13. 1.
Hamsterley Chapel	1. 0.0.	St. Edmund's Chapel, "	1. 3. 0.
Aycliffe	4. 0.0.	Gateshead Fell	3. 1. 0.
Billingham	1. 2.8.	Greatham	1.13. 6.
Bishop Middleham	2. 7.1.	Hart	13. 6.
Bishopton	2. 0.0.	Hartlepool	5. 8. 0.
Bishop Wearmouth	13.16.6.	Haughton-le-Skerne	4. 5. 9.
South Hylton Chapel	1. 1.6.	Sadberge Chapel	1. 0. 6.
St. Thomas's, Bishopwearmouth	6. 4.0.	Heighington	3. 0. 0.
Ryhope Chapel	1.14.0.	Houghton-le-Spring	6. 9. 3.
Brancepeth	3.13.0.	West Herrington	2. 2. 0.
Chester-le-Street	3. 1.0.	West Rainton Chapel	3. 1. 0.
Lamesley	6. 3.6.	Hurworth	2. 6. 0.
Tanfield	3. 7.7.	Heworth Chapel	3. 1. 3.
Staindrop	1.17.3.	Westoe Chapel	2. 7. 0.
Coniscliffe	1. 0.0.	Ebchester Chapel	1.10. 2.
Darlington	9. 6.0.	Esh Chapel	1. 4. 0.
Holy Trinity Darlington	4. 0.0.	Medomsley Chapel	10. 0.
Low Dinsdale	1. 5.0.	Merrington	15. 4.
St. Giles, Durham	2. 3.6.	Ferryhill Chapel	11. 2.
St. Oswald's, Durham	3.11.5.	Egglestone Chapel	2. 8. 4.
Croxdale Chapel	15.0.	Monkwearmouth	2.14. 0.
Egglecliffe	2. 0.0.	Muggleswick	2.13. 4.
Holy Trinity Stockton	3. 0.0.	Norton	6.10. 1.
Easington	3. 8.0.	Redmarshall	13. 2.
Elwick Hall	4.15.0.	Holy Cross, Ryton	7. 4. 6.
Seaham	1. 0.0.	Sedgefield	4.10. 0.
Shadforth	14.6.	So. Shields, St. Hilda's	5.10.10.

Appendix 10 (Ctd.)

	£.	s.	d.
Trinity Church So. Shields	1.	4.	8.
Shincliffe	2.	6.	0.
Eastgate Chapel	7.	7.	0.
Heathery Cleugh		10.	6.
St. John's Chapel	1.	0.	0.
Stockton-on-Tees	10.	1.	11.
Stranton	2.	5.	9.
Seaton Carew Chapel	1.	16.	5.
Sunderland Parish	8.	1.	10 $\frac{1}{2}$
St. John's, Sunderland	2.	6.	9 $\frac{1}{2}$
Trimdon	2.	0.	0.
Wolsingham	2.	7.	0.
Washington	1.	5.	0.
Usworth Chapel		10.	0.
Whickham	5.	0.	0.
Whitburn	4.	11.	4.
Whitworth	3.	0.	9.
Winlaton	2.	18.	0.
Winston	2.	12.	6.
Witton Gilbert	2.	1.	7.
Witton-le-Wear	2.	16.	2.

254.13. 3 $\frac{1}{2}$

Appendix 11

Annual Expense of Educating each child in different parts of the North of England. (Minutes of Comm. of Council 1846).

Average expense per child over whole region	14.6 $\frac{3}{4}$.
- ditto - in Chester-le-Street	13.8.
- ditto - in Barnard Castle	12.7.
- ditto - in Castle Eden	12.3 $\frac{3}{4}$.
- ditto - in Shildon	18.7 $\frac{3}{4}$
- ditto - in Whitworth	1.4.3 $\frac{1}{2}$.

Appendix 12

Schools United to the Society for the Encouragement of Parochial Schools.
(Nat. Soc. Report 1838)

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1811. Barrington School, Bishop Auckland.
Bishopwearmouth. | 1820. Stanhope
Heathery Cleugh
Wearhead
St. John's Chapel
Westgate
Eastgate
Boltsburn |
| 1812. Bishop Middleham
Gateshead Friars Goose
Stockton
Stockton Trinity Church Sunday School. | 1821. Wolviston
Trimdon
Sunderland
Shincliffe |
| 1813. Greenside. | 1822. Billingham
Gateshead Fell
Ryhope |
| 1814. Aycliffe
Easington
Haughton-le-Skerne
Long Newton
Usworth
Washington | 1823. Sadberge
Norton
Fishburn
Cleadow
Whitburn |
| 1815. Ryton
Heworth
Barnard Castle | 1824. Thornley
Sedgefield
Redmarshall and Carleton
Shadforth
Hunstanworth
Summerhouse Croxdale |
| 1816. Rushyford
Hartlepool
Middridge
Winlaton
Winlaton Girls | 1825. Cockerton
Hurworth |
| 1817. South Shields Westoe
Sherburn
Heighington | |
| 1818. Durham Blue Coat
Witton-le-Wear | |
| 1819. Darlington | |

Appendix 12 (Ctd.)

- | | | | |
|-------|---|-------|--|
| 1826. | Whickham
Lanchester
Bishopton | 1831. | Dalton-le-Dale
Houghton-le-Spring
Jarrow
Dunston
Blaydon
Sunderland North |
| 1827. | Harwood
Middleton-in-Teesdale
Thorpe (Grindon) | 1832. | Shildon
Greatham
Greatham Infants
Eighton Banks
Cooper Haugh
Edmundbyers
Egglestone
Seaham Harbour
Coundon
Hunwick
Newbiggin |
| 1828. | Woodland
West Auckland
Tanfield
Sunderland Bridge
Seaton Carew
Staindrop
Crawcrook
Merrington
Healeyfield
Cornsay
Crossgate
Brafferton
Brancepeth
Tudhoe
Crook
Willington
Chester-le-Street
Byer's Green | 1833. | Gainford
Etherley
Gilesgate
Hamsterley
Winlaton Mill
Hebburn |
| 1829. | West Rainton
Lamesley
Pittington
South Shields (Sunday)
South Shields Trinity | 1834. | Whorlton
Southwick
Seaham
Hetton
Belmont
Denton
Cornforth |
| 1830. | Sockburn
South Shields Brunswick (Sunday)
Kelloe | 1835. | Esh
Windy Nook
South Hylton
Stranton. |

Appendix 12 (Ctd.)

1836. Witton Gilbert
Monkwearmouth
Satley
South Hetton
Haswell

1837. Burdon (Castle Eden)

1838. Evenwood

88 schools outside County Durham were also united to the Society.

Appendix 13

Schools which received payment from the Diocesan Society from 1811 to 1841 (inclusive). (Nat.Soc.Report 1847).

<u>School</u>	<u>No.of Donations.</u>	<u>Years payment made.</u>	<u>Total Amount.</u>
Aycliffe	28	1814 to 1840	£156. 3s. 0d.
Bishop Wearmouth	2	1812 and 1813	80. 0s. 0d.
Barlow (Winlaton)	2	1839 and 1840	30. 0s. 0d.
Barnard Castle	5	1814 to 1837	95. 0s. 0d.
Bishop Middleham	1	1818	15. 0s. 0d.
Bishopton	2	1827 to 1830	5. 0s. 0d.
Brafferton	2	1823 to 1833	38. 0s. 0d.
Byers Green	5	1830 to 1841	60. 0s. 0d.
Billingham	4	1823	12.10s. 0d.
Brancepeth	1	1830	5. 0s. 0d.
Blaydon	1	1831	30. 0s. 0d.
Carleton (Redmarshall)	4	1824 to 1829	11. 3s. 0d.
Chapel-in-Weardale	6	1813 to 1820	47. 0s. 0d.
Cockerton	4	1825 to 1829	85. 0s. 0d.
Cowpen	1	1822	5. 0s. 0d.
Crook	1	1828	10. 7s. 0d.
Cornforth	2	1823 to 1834	20. 0s. 0d.
Cleadon	2	1830 to 1831	20. 0s. 0d.
Croxdale	1	1838	2. 0s. 0d.
Chester and Lumley	2	1829 to 1841	10. 0s. 0d.
Coniscliffe	1	1839	5. 0s. 0d.
Coundon	1	1841	25. 0s. 0d.
Darlington	17	1812 to 1837	393. 1s. 4d.
Dalton-le-Dale	1	1831	1. 0s. 0d.
Dunston	2	1819 and 1825	90. 0s. 0d.
Durham Blue Coat	1	1817	50. 0s. 0d.
Crossgate, Durham	2	1832 to 1833	14. 0s. 0d.
Gilligate, Durham	1	1833	5. 0s. 0d.
Belmont	1	1836	20. 0s. 0d.
Framwellgate, Durham	1	1840	20. 0s. 0d.
Edmundbyers	2	1840 and 1841	3. 5s. 4d.

Appendix 13 (Ctd.)

<u>School</u>	<u>No.of Donations.</u>	<u>Years payment made.</u>	<u>Total Amount.</u>
Egglestone	1	1826	£5. 0s. 0d.
Etherley	3	1834 to 1837	40. 0s. 0d.
Egglescliffe	1	1839	15. 0s. 0d.
Fishburn	1	1823	5. 0s. 0d.
Friar's Goose, Gateshead	3	1837 to 1841	13. 0s. 0d.
Greenside	3	1812 to 1839	65. 0s. 0d.
Gateshead	6	1827 to 1839	90.10s. 0d.
Gateshead Fell	4	1829 to 1837	52.10s. 0d.
Greatham	4	1832 to 1836	10. 0s. 0d.
Gainford	1	1833	3. 0s. 0d.
Haughton-le-Skerne	1	1814	50. 0s. 0d.
Heworth	7	1815 to 1841	105. 0s. 0d.
Hartlepool	1	1816	10. 0s. 0d.
Hamsterley	9	1822 to 1841	47.10s. 0d.
Hunstanworth	1	1824	5. 0s. 0d.
Harwood-in-Teesdale	2	1827	15. 0s. 0d.
Hurworth	3	1825 to 1832	40. 0s. 0d.
Houghton-le-Spring	1	1833	50. 0s. 0d.
Hetton-le-Hole	1	1834	30. 0s. 0d.
South Hylton	4	1836 to 1839	55. 0s. 0d.
Hett	2	1838 and 1840	5. 0s. 0d.
Hartburn	1	1823	2. 0s. 0d.
Jarrow	4	1831 to 1840	40. 0s. 0d.
Lanchester	6	1824 to 1838	88. 0s. 0d.
Middleton-in-Teesdale	4	1827 to 1836	17. 0s. 0d.
Merrington	2	1828 and 1838	12.10s. 0d.
Middridge	1	1830	3. 3s. 0d.
Monkwearmouth	1	1836	5. 0s. 0d.
Norton	1	1823	3. 0s. 0d.
North Sunderland	1	1837	3. 0s. 0d.
Newfield	1	1841	25. 0s. 0d.
Pittington	8	1827 to 1833	80. 0s. 0d.
Rushyford	7	1816 to 1837	26. 4s. 0d.

Appendix 13 (Ctd.)

<u>School</u>	<u>No. of Donations.</u>	<u>Years payment made.</u>	<u>Total Amount.</u>
Ryhope	3	1823 to 1839	£20. 0s. 0d.
Ryton	12	1828 to 1838	53. 0s. 0d.
Rainton	8	1829 to 1839	77. 0s. 0d.
Sherburn	5	1822 to 1836	19. 1s. 6d.
South Shields	13	1817 to 1837	227. 5s. 9d.
Shincliffe	7	1821 to 1840	68. 12s. 0d.
Sheraton	2	1821 and 1823	18. 0s. 0d.
Sunderland	3	1822 to 1826	170. 0s. 0d.
Summerhouse	5	1822 to 1840	32. 0s. 0d.
Shadforth	5	1823 to 1841	77. 2s. 0d.
Staindrop	3	1828 to 1831	9. 0s. 0d.
Sedgefield	1	1824	100. 0s. 0d.
Sockburn	2	1830 and 1831	4. 0s. 0d.
Sunderland Bridge	1	1831	1. 0s. 0d.
Seaham Harbour	3	1832 to 1836	32. 0s. 0d.
Shotley	1	1831	20. 0s. 0d.
Sildon	7	1835 to 1841	56. 0s. 0d.
Stranton	3	1835 to 1840	33. 0s. 0d.
Southwick	1	1836	30. 0s. 0d.
Satley	1	1836	2. 0s. 0d.
Trimdon	4	1821 to 1835	24. 2s. 0d.
Tanfield	2	1828 to 1831	8. 0s. 0d.
Thornley (Wolsingham)	7	1824 to 1841	40. 0s. 0d.
Usworth	2	1831 and 1833	3. 0s. 0d.
Washington	11	1814 to 1823	199. 1s. 0d.
Winlaton	6	1816 to 1840	55. 0s. 0d.
Witton-le-Wear	1	1818	30. 0s. 0d.
Weardale Schools	1	1822	50. 0s. 0d.
Whitburn	3	1824 to 1827	35. 0s. 0d.
Westoe	1	1830	15. 0s. 0d.
Wolviston	2	1834 and 1836	22. 0s. 0d.
Whorlton	1	1834	3. 0s. 0d.

Appendix 13 (Ctd.)

<u>School</u>	<u>No. of Donations.</u>	<u>Years payment made.</u>	<u>Total Amount.</u>
Windy Nook	1	1836	£10. 0s. 0d.
Witton Gilbert	1	1838	19s. 3d.
Whitworth	1	1841	25. 0s. 0d.
			<hr/>
		Total	£3884. 7s. 11d.
			<hr/> <hr/>

Note: The Society also paid £1,916.13s.9d. to Northumberland Schools and £5 to Alston 1811 to 1841.

Appendix 14

Abstract of the Durham Diocesan School Society's Receipts and Payments
for the establishment in 1811 to 1841. (Nat.Soc.Report 1847).

<u>Date</u>	<u>Receipts</u>		
	<u>Annual Subs.and Donations</u>	<u>From County Fund</u>	<u>For Books Sold</u>
1811/2	£459. 0. 0.	-	-
1812/3	150. 2. 6.	-	-
1813/4	89.19. 0.	-	-
1814/5	142.19. 0.	-	-
1815/6	268.18. 6.	-	-
1816/7	218.10. 0.	-	£73.12. 0.
1817/8	264.10. 0.	-	80.12. 1.
1818/9	235. 0. 6.	-	-
1819/20	203. 2. 0.	-	62. 0. 0.
1820/1	139. 2. 0.	-	92. 6. 3.
1821/2	213. 2. 0.	-	66. 0. 0.
1822/3	194.12. 0.	£145. 0.0.	45. 5. 0.
1823/4	195. 7. 6.	170. 0.0.	75. 0. 0.
1824/5	120.18. 0.	100. 0.0.	54. 5. 7½
1825/6	198.16. 6.	110. 0.0.	58. 0. 3½
1826/7	180.14. 6.	55.10.0.	75.11. 6.
1827/8	192. 7. 6.	70. 0. 0.	-
1828/9	162. 8. 6.	85. 0.0.	-
1829/30	176. 0. 5.	122. 0.0.	-
1830/1	155.17. 6.	30. 0.0.	-
1831/2	175.15. 6.	91.10. 0.	-
1833	194.10. 6.	60. 0.0.	-
1834	167. 6. 6.	45. 0.0.	5. 5. 0.
1835	187. 3. 6.	50. 0.0.	-
1836	185. 0. 0.	135. 0.0.	-
1837	149.19. 0.	20. 0.0.	-
1838	173. 3. 6.	25. 0.0.	-
1839	185. 0. 6.	108. 0.0.	-
1840	196.10. 0.	122. 0.0.	-
1841	275. 0. 6.	-	-

Appendix 14 (Ctd.)

Abstract of the Durham Diocesan School Society's Receipts and Payments for the establishment in 1811 to 1841. (Nat.Soc.Report 1847).

<u>Date</u>	<u>Payments.</u>			
	<u>Paid in Grants</u>	<u>Printing and advertising.</u>	<u>Incidentals</u>	<u>Books bought</u>
1811/2	£130. 0.0.	£95.10. 1.	£1.19. 0.	-
1812/3	142.11. 0.	10. 0. 0.	2.19. 4.	£59. 3. 0.
1813/4	134.14. 0.	12.14. 6.	6. 1. 7.	-
1814/5	126. 0. 0.	14.19. 6.	31.18. 9.	74. 0. 6.
1815/6	98.15. 0.	16.12.11.	3. 1. 9.	66. 8. 5.
1816/7	216.12. 0.	17.10. 3.	5. 6. 7½	100.15. 3¼
1817/8	107.11. 0.	15.16. 1.	4. 8.11	131. 6. 5.
1818/9	111.11. 0.	-	4.19. 6.	19. 0. 8.
1819/20	66.11. 0.	14.12. 5.	11.17. 2.	131.12. 2.
1820/1	296.12. 0.	15. 0. 7.	9.13. 2.	93.12. 2.
1821/2	162.12. 0.	14.15. 0.	12.14. 1.	100.10. 2.
1822/3	180.16. 6.	14.19. 0.	6.17.10.	70.13. 5.
1823/4	159.15. 0.	15. 0. 3.	12. 8.11.	124. 3.11½
1824/5	59. 5. 0.	19. 9. 3.	9. 0. 0.	86. 1. 2½
1825/6	110.17. 0.	16.19. 3.	29. 5. 2½	106. 3. 0.
1826/7	77. 8. 0.	14. 3. 0.	24. 9. 9.	80. 3. 1.
1827/8	122. 0. 5.	14.16. 6.	8.15. 6.	-
1828/9	187.10. 0.	11.17. 0.	6. 6. 6.	-
1829/30	175. 8. 4.	12.14. 6.	6. 1. 0.	-
1830/1	144. 0. 5.	14. 7. 0.	4.16. 6.	-
1831/2	149.15. 6.	10.10. 6.	5.14. 8.	-
1833	123. 0. 0.	13.18. 0.	5.13. 3.	-
1834	214. 0. 0.	12. 6. 0.	8. 4. 6.	10. 1. 0.
1835	200. 1. 4.	10.16. 0.	6. 3. 0.	-
1836	211. 0. 0.	11.19. 0.	7. 3. 2.	-
1837	252. 0. 0.	10.12. 0.	7. 3. 8.	-
1838	274. 6. 0.	3. 4. 9.	3. 2. 2.	-
1839	232. 0. 0.	23.13. 0.	7. 1. 7.	-
1840	214. 5. 4.	5.17. 6.	2.10. 4.	-
1841	302.10. 0.	24. 0. 4.	2. 4. 0.	-

Appendix 15

Sums appropriated from Parliamentary Grants for Education in County Durham between 1833 and October 31st 1849. (Minutes of Committee of Council 1850).

Type * (See Code)	Improved Fittings		Attendance in 1849	Teachers and Apprentices.	Maps and Apparatus.
	Paid by Promoters	Paid by Committee of Council			
Barnard Castle B.	-	100. 0. 0.	1838	-	
Barnard Castle F.C.	(23. 5. 0.	90. 0. 0.	1840	155	
		50. 0. 0.	1849		
Barnard Castle W					2.13. 4.
Bishop Wearmouth (Infants) C	224. 7. 0.	150. 0. 0.	1847	-	
Byers Green C		50. 0. 0.	1841	60	
Castle Eden C	29. 4. 2.	163.10. 0.	1844	105	
		50. 0. 0.	1847		
Chester-le-St. C		120. 0. 0.	1842	146	4. 6. 9.
Collierley C	278. 0. 0.	75. 0. 0.	1846	100	
Coundon C		100. 0. 0.	1841	90	1. 0. 0.
Darlington Bridge St. (Infants) B		100. 0. 0.	1841	115	2.12. 2½
Darlington Feethams B					13. 2.
Darlington Holy Trinity C	564.11. 4.	230. 0. 0.	1846	110	29. 0. 0. 6.16. 7½
Deptford St. Andrew's F.C.	25.10. 7.	160. 0. 0.	1843	155	
		30. 0. 0.	1849		
Durham Training School		1000. 0. 0.	1847		

		Improved Fittings			Attendance in 1849	Teachers and Appren- tices.	Maps and Apparatus.
		Paid by Promoters	Paid by Committee of Council				
Durham St.Oswald's	C	493.17. 6.	220. 0. 0.	1845	225		
Egglescliffe	C		40. 0. 0.	1839	93	15. 0. 0.	
Etherley	C		40. 0. 0.	1834	60		
Escombe	C						3.19. 7 $\frac{1}{4}$
Ferryhill	C	297. 6. 4.	98. 0. 0.	1848	65		
Framwellgate Moor	C		50. 0. 0.	1846	-		
Gateshead	C		{ 252. 0. 0.	1842	420		
			{ 140. 0. 0.	1837			
Greatham F.C.			{ 30. 0. 0.	1836	50		
			{ 30. 0. 0.	1837			
Hetton-le-Hole	C		110. 0. 0.	1840			
Heworth	C		58. 0. 0.	1837	56		
Heworth	C		85. 0. 0.	1838			
Holmside	C	{ 130.15. 8.	42. 0. 0.	1847	41		
		{ 106. 6. 4.	30. 0. 0.	1849			
Houghton-le-Spring	C				156	115.10. 0.	
Hylton South	C		110. 0. 0.	1837	143		
Lynesack & Softley	B		50. 0. 0.	1840	25		

Type (See Code)	Improved Fittings		Attendance in 1849	Teachers and Appren- tices.	Maps and Apparatus.
	Paid by Promoters	Paid by Committee of Council			
Middleton-in-Stranton C		50. 0. 0.	1840	32	
Middleton-in-Teesdale C		45. 0. 0.	1841		
Monkwearmouth C	400. 0. 0.	180. 0. 0.	1848	200	
Newfield C		200. 0. 0.	1841	60	
Pelton Girls F.C.	170. 17. 8.	40. 0. 0.	1848		
Sacrison C.	148. 4. 0.	60. 0. 0.	1845	51	
Seaham Harbour C	561. 18. 2.	(40. 0. 0. 273. 0. 0.	1837 1849	221	3. 18. 2½
Seaton Carew C		115. 0. 0.	1844	33	31. 10. 0.
Sherburn Hill C		45. 0. 0.	1845	44	1. 0. 2¼
Shildon C	125. 8. 0.	(55. 0. 0.	1837	124	
		(70. 0. 0.	1841		
		(45. 0. 0.	1847		
Shincliffe C		82. 0. 0.	1840	86	
South Church C	243. 8. 6.	200. 0. 0.	1848		
South Shields C		225. 0. 0.	1835		
South Shields C		200. 0. 0.	1837		

Type * (See Code)	Improved Fittings		1848	Attendance in 1849	Teachers and Appren- tices.	Maps and Apparatus.
	Paid by Promoters	Paid by Committee of Council				
South Shields St. John's Sessional C.	537. 0. 0.	400. 0. 0.	1848	194	29. 0. 0.	
So. Shields Trinity C.				265	57. 0. 0.	4. 19. 1 $\frac{1}{4}$
So. Shields Union				218		6. 10. 8
Southwick C.		150. 0. 0.	1837			
Great Stainton C	157. 15. 0.	54. 0. 0.	1848	22		
Stockton-on-Tees B.		100. 0. 0.	1841	70		
Stockton-on-Tees (Industrial)				76		1. 13. 1 $\frac{1}{4}$
Stockton-on-Tees C.	1218. 5. 6.	300. 0. 0.	1847	261		
Sunderland B.		30. 0. 0.	1840			
Sunderland C.		90. 0. 0.	1836			
Sunderland Gray C.				420	29. 0. 0.	12. 6. 7 $\frac{1}{2}$
Sunderland St. Mary's Rc				408		9. 13. 7 $\frac{1}{2}$
Tanfield C		100. 0. 0.	1844	80		
Thornley C	130. 0. 0.	75. 0. 0.	1845			
Thornley Colliery C						1. 8. 2.
Tow Law C	510. 0. 0.	400. 0. 0.	1849			3. 1. 8.
Whitworth C		100. 0. 0.	1840	33		
Windy Nook C		60. 0. 0.	1843			

Type * (See Code)	Improved Fittings		Payments	Attendance in 1849	For Teachers and Appren- tices.	For Books, Maps and Apparatus.
	Paid by Promoters	Paid by Committee of Council				
Witton Gilbert C	108. 0. 0.	35. 0. 0.	1845	30		
Wolsingham C	618.19. 6.	250. 0. 0.	1845	126		
Wolviston C		49. 0. 0.	1838			
Wrekenton C		65. 0. 0.	1842	32		

Code:- B = British and Foreign Society School.
C = Church of England or National Society School.
W = Wesleyan School
Rc= Roman Catholic School
F = Grant for Fittings

Total Grants for buildings to C.of E.	£6656.10. 0.
" " " " British Schools	380. 0. 0.
	<u>£7036.10. 0.</u>

Paid for teachers to C.of E.	£306. 0. 0.	(none to British)
Paid for books -	46. 0. 3 $\frac{1}{4}$	to C.of E.
	20.10.10 $\frac{3}{4}$	to others
	3. 5. 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	to British & Foreign
	<u>£ 69.16. 6$\frac{1}{2}$</u>	

Appendix 16

Payments made by the Diocesan Society in 1838 (abstracted from Minutes of the Quarterly Meetings).

11th Jan.1838.	To Hamsterley for books. *	£2. 0s. 0d.
	To Aycliffe for general purposes. *	4. 0s. 0d.
	To Gosforth Sunday Schools	5. 0s. 0d.
	To Castle Garth, Newcastle, for Sunday Schools.	5. 0s. 0d.
	To build a Sunday School in Castle Garth.	25. 0s. 0d.
	Conditional grant to St.Andrews, Newcastle.	50. 0s. 0d.
	To Windygate, Longhorsley.	10. 0s. 0d.
12th April 1838.	To Sunday Schools at Winlaton. *	4. 0s. 0d.
	To South Hylton School. *	10. 0s. 0d.
	To Sunday School at Walbottle.	2. 0s. 0d.
	For books for new schools at Bell's Close, Newburn.	3. 0s. 0d.
	To Sunday School at Croxdale. *	2. 0s. 0d.
12th July 1838.	To St.Anne's Sunday School, Newcastle.	5. 0s. 0d.
	For education at Tweedmouth, general purposes.	5. 0s. 0d.
	To schools at Milkridge.	20. 0s. 0d.
	Towards a school at Castle Garth.	25. 0s. 0d.
	To Lanchester School. *	3. 0s. 0d.
	To Merrington School. *	2. 0s. 0d.
	To solve a deficiency of funds at Heworth. *	10. 0s. 0d.
11th Oct.1838.	To Tynemouth School.	25. 0s. 0d.
	To Ancroft School.	3. 0s. 0d.
	To Ryton School. *	4. 0s. 0d.

* Schools in County Durham.
The rest in Northumberland.

Appendix 17

Numbers of departments and numbers of scholars in County Durham day schools according to denomination in 1858. (Newcastle Commission Vol.1 p.600)

<u>Denomination</u>	<u>No. of Departments</u>	<u>Total No. of Scholars</u>
C. of E.	310	24,844
British	13	2,138
R.C.	17	2,322
Wesleyan and Methodist	16	1,529

Appendix 18Expenditure of Denominational Societies in 1859.

Purpose of Expenditure.	National Society.			British and Foreign School Society.			Catholic Poor School Committee.			Wesleyan Education Committee.		
	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
Building Colleges and Schools.	4562.	10.	0.	2978.	8.	7.	1340.	0.	0.	1093.	10.	0.
Maintaining Training Colleges	6022.	13.	0.	5680.	5.	5.	1491.	2.	0.	1056.	2.	10.
Maintaining Elementary Schools	Nil			658.	14.	5.	1105.	0.	0.	Nil		
Inspection and Organisation	561.	15.	0.	1785.	17.	0.	208.	9.	3.	380.	10.	0.
Grants for Books and Apparatus	1758.	3.	0.	174.	5.	2.	83.	4.	0.	1123.	0.	0.
Total	12905.	1.	0.	11277.	10.	7.	4227.	15.	3.	3653.	2.	10.

(Newcastle Commission Report. Vol.1 p.575).

Appendix 19

Average Salaries of Teachers in 1856 (All Emoluments).

	Average Salary for Country.			Average Salary for 4 Northern Counties.			Counties with Highest Average			Counties with Lowest Average.				
	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.		
Certificate Master	89.	9.	2½	91.	1.	1.	102.	7.	7.	Middlesex	78.	9.	4½	Wales
Uncertificated Master	60.	19.	2½	45.	17.	0.	99.	14.	11.	Middlesex	43.	3.	8.	Midlands
Certificate Mistress	59.	12.	0¼	63.	3.	9.	71.	12.	3.	Middlesex	55.	5.	1.	Berks, Hants, Wilts.
Uncertificated Mistress	37.	0.	¾	34.	13.	8.	50.	5.	10¾	Middlesex	27.	13.	5.	West Country
Certificate Mistress (Infants)	54.	2.	11¾	47.	5.	0.	65.	16.	9½	Yorks.	47.	5.	0.	Northern Counties.
Uncertificated Mistress (Infants)	32.	13.	5.	29.	16.	1.	39.	15.	4¾	Middlesex	23.	6.	0.	West Country.

(Abstracted from Minutes of the Committee of Council 1856).

Appendix 20Average Salaries of Teachers in 1858. (All Emoluments).

Certificate Master	£94. 3s. 7d.
Uncertificated Master	£62. 4s. 11d.
Certificate Mistress	£62. 13s. 10d.
Uncertificated Mistress	£34. 19s. 7d.
Certificate Mistress (Infants)	£48. 3s. 8d.
Uncertificated Mistress (Infants)	£35. 2s. 0d.

(Abstracted from Newcastle Commission Report Vol.1 p.64).

Appendix 211837 P.L.C. Report

Unions in County Durham with population and Average Amount Expended 1834/5/6.

<u>Name</u>	<u>Population</u>	<u>Expenditure</u>
Auckland Union	14,632	£4,574
Chester-le-Street Union	17,178	7,180
Darlington Union	18,883	6,882
Durham	15,550	5,015
Easington	6,984	1,259
Gateshead	31,017	9,011
Houghton-le-Spring	21,093	4,606
Lanchester	7,924	3,077
Sedgefield	5,286	2,088
South Shields	24,427	9,029
* Stockton (the part in County Durham)	17,355	5,735
Sunderland	42,664	10,930
* Teesdale (the part in County Durham)	13,797	5,280
Weardale	12,775	3,590

* Part of these Unions in North Riding.

Appendix 22(1st Local Government Board Report 1871 p.428)

Poor Rates and Expenditure on Relief (1834-1850) in England.

<u>Date</u>	<u>Population.</u>	<u>Total Rate</u>	<u>Expenditure</u>	<u>Levy in the £1.</u>
1834	14,372,000	8,338,079	6,317,255	not given
1840	15,562,000	6,014,605	4,576,965	not given
1845	16,629,000	6,791,006	5,039,703	18s.3d.
1850	17,765,000.	7,270,493	5,395,022	19s.1d.

Appendix 23No. of Paupers in Workhouses in Co. Durham 1841 and 1851.

<u>Workhouse</u>	<u>No. in 1841</u>	<u>No. in 1851</u>
Auckland	32	60
Chester-le-Street	54	51
Darlington	101	69
Durham	56	96
Easington	not given	26
Gateshead	79	185
Houghton	31	28
Lanchester	22	46
Sedgefield	23	22
South Shields	130	147
Stockton	37	36
Sunderland	234	296
Teesdale	101	60
Weardale	46	34

Taken from 1851 Population Census Vol.2. p.13.

Appendix 24.No. of children attending Schools of Union Workhouses in Co. Durham.

(Taken from Local Govt. Board Report 1871 - page 480).

<u>Union</u>	<u>Pop. 1861</u>	<u>Boys</u>		<u>Girls</u>		Amount by Parliament towards teachers <u>salaries.</u>	<u>Observation</u>
		<u>Under 10.</u>	<u>Over 10.</u>	<u>Under 10</u>	<u>Over 10</u>		
Darlington	6,122	17	4	17	6	£20. 0s. 0d.	
Stockton	45,825	24	28	32	23	50. 0s. 0d.	In separate building.
Hartlepool	29,153	17	13	6	6	40. 0s. 0d.	
Sedgefield	11,774						Attend. National School.
Auckland	50,491	7	5	12	10	27.11s.10d.	
Teesdale	20,880						Attend National School.
Weardale	16,418						Attend National School.
Lanchester	27,812						Attend Village School.
Durham	42,462	9	15	19	15	56. 9s. 0d.	
Easington	27,293						Attend National School.
Houghton-le-Sp.	21,773						Attend National School.
Chester-le-St.	27,660	10	2	6	12	25. 3s. 6d.	
Sunderland	90,704	35	34	23	34	137. 2s.11d.	
South Shields	44,849	21	13	9	16	40. 0s. 0d.	In separate building.
Gateshead	59,409	12	17	25	16	98. 0s. 0d.	

Appendix 25Sources of Each £1 of Income According to Type of School.

(Abstracted from Newcastle Commission page 68 Vol.1.)

<u>School</u>	<u>Govt. Grant.</u>	<u>School Fees</u>	<u>Subscription</u>	<u>Endowment</u>	<u>Others</u>
C.of E.inspected	4s.6 $\frac{1}{2}$ d	5.10 $\frac{1}{2}$ d	5.3 $\frac{3}{4}$ d.	1.9 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.	2.5 $\frac{3}{4}$ d
C.of E.inspected	-	4. 9	6.8 $\frac{3}{4}$	6.2	2.4 $\frac{1}{4}$
British inspected	5. 2 $\frac{1}{4}$	8. 1	5.1 $\frac{3}{4}$	-	1.7
British uninspected	-	9.11	6.6 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.1 $\frac{3}{4}$	2.4 $\frac{1}{4}$
Denominational inspected	5s.3 $\frac{1}{2}$	9. 3 $\frac{1}{4}$	4.5 $\frac{1}{4}$	-	1.0
Denominational uninspected	-	12. 1 $\frac{3}{4}$	5.0 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.5 $\frac{1}{4}$	1.4 $\frac{1}{4}$
Non-denominational uninspected	-	7. 7 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.8 $\frac{1}{2}$	9.1 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.6 $\frac{1}{2}$

Appendix 26Expenditure by Parliament 1839 to 31st Dec.1859

(Newcastle Commission Vol.1. p.579)

<u>Object</u>	<u>Amount</u>
Buildings and repairs	1,047,648.17. 8½
Normal School buildings and Training Colleges	172,303. 6. 5
Book, maps and diagrams	36,674. 4. 8½
Scientific apparatus	4,391.17. 6
Augmentation of teachers salaries	435,854. 5. 1
Paying salaries of assistant masters	30,015.10.11
Paying salaries of probationary teachers	448.15. 0
Paying stipends to Pupil teachers	1,487,705.13. 2
Capitation grants	186,230.14. 0
Grants to night schools	2,916. 9.10
Grants for teaching drawing	1,109. 0. 0
Annual grants for Training Colleges	417,953. 5.10½
Grants to reformatory and industrial schools	75,469.11. 2
Pensions	2,923. 1. 8
Cost of inspection	355,807.10. 0½
Administration of office in London	102,128.19.10½
Poundage on Post Office Orders	11,884. 9. 6
Administration of Agency for sale of books etc.	6,717.12. 4
	<hr/>
Total	4,378,183. 4. 9½
	<hr/>

Appendix 27Annual Grants Voted by Parliament.

1833 - 1838 (inclusive)	£20,000	per year		
1839	£30,000	"	"	
1840	£30,000	"	"	
1841	£40,000	"	"	
1842	£40,000	"	"	
1843	£50,000	"	"	
1844	£40,000	"	"	
1845	£75,000	"	"	
1846	£100,000	"	"	
1847	£100,000	"	"	
1848	£125,000	"	"	
1849	£125,000	"	"	
1850	£150,000	"	"	
1851	£160,000	"	"	
1852	£260,000	"	"	
1853	£263,000	"	"	
1854	£396,291	"	"	
1855	£451,213	"	"	
1856	£541,233	"	"	
1857	£663,435	"	"	
1858	£836,920	"	"	
1859	£798,167	"	"	

Appendix 28Total Parliamentary Grants for certain counties having similar populations.(Newcastle Commission Vol.1V p.276)

<u>County</u>	<u>Amount granted by Parliament between 1833 & 1859</u>	<u>Population in 1851</u>	<u>Annual Income of all charities</u>
County Durham	£63,334. 4. 6 $\frac{3}{4}$	390,997	£21,348. 1. 0.
Essex	£44,329. 10. 0 $\frac{3}{4}$	369,318	£21,572. 7. 8.
Hants	£81,866. 1. 6.	405,370	£11,670. 8. 10.
Lincoln	£49,741. 17. 10.	407,222	£36,096. 10. 4.
Suffolk	£43,181. 4. 6.	337,215	£29,948. 13. 5.
Cornwall	£44,566. 15. 9 $\frac{1}{4}$	355,558	£3,251. 11. 2.

Appendix 29

Sums appropriated from Parliamentary Grants for school buildings (erection, enlargement or improved fittings) in County Durham between 1833 and 31st October 1849. (Taken from Minutes of the Committee Council 1849).

Grants by the Treasury

<u>Name of School</u>	<u>Denomination</u>	<u>Parliamentary Grant</u>	<u>Paid by Promoters</u>	<u>Date of Payment</u>	<u>No. of children to be accommodated.</u>
Barnard Castle	British and Foreign	£100	-	1838	-
Eaglescliffe	Parish ?	£40	-	1839	78
Etherley	Church of Eng.	£40	-	1834	101
Hetton-le-Hole	- ditto -	£110	-	1840	-
Gateshead	- ditto -	£140	-	1837	538
Greatham	- ditto -	£30	-	1836	103
Heworth	- ditto -	£58	-	1837	115
- ditto -	- ditto -	£85	-	1838	115
Hylton South	- ditto -	£110	-	1837	204
Lynesack & Softley	British and Foreign	£50	-	1840	105
Middleton-in-Teesdale	Church of Eng.	£45	-	1841	-
Seaham Harbour	- ditto -	£40	£561.18.2.	1837	290
Sildon	- ditto -	£55	£125. 8.0.	1837	332
South Shields	- ditto -	£225	-	1835	-
- ditto -	- ditto -	£200	-	1837	-
Southwick Low	- ditto -	£150	-	1837	-
Sunderland	- ditto -	£90	-	1836	-
Wolviston	- ditto -	£49	-	1838	-

Grants by the Committee of Council

Barnard Castle	Church of Eng.	£90	-	1840	179
- ditto -	- ditto -	£50	£23. 5.0.	1849	179
Bishop Wearmouth (infants)	- ditto -	£150	£224. 7.0.	1847	200
Byers Green	- ditto -	£50	-	1841	214

Appendix 29 (Ctd.)

<u>Name of School</u>	<u>Denomination</u>	<u>Parliamentary Grant</u>	<u>Paid by Promoters</u>	<u>Date of Payment</u>	<u>No. of children to be accommodated.</u>
Castle Eden	Church of Eng.	£163.10. 0.	-	1844	284
- ditto -	- ditto -	£50	£29. 4. 2.	1847	284
Chester-le-St.	- ditto -	£120	-	1842	292
Collierley	- ditto -	£75	£278	1846	99
Coundon	- ditto -	£100	-	1841	200
Darlington Bridge St. (Infants)	British and Foreign	£100	-	1841	200
Darlington Holy Trinity	Church of Eng.	£230.	£564.11. 4.	1846	305
Deptford St. Andrews	- ditto -	£160	-	1843	291
- ditto -	- ditto -	£30	£25.10.7.	1849	291
Durham Diocesan Training School	-	£1000.	-	1847	-
Durham St. Oswald's	Church of Eng.	£220	£493.17.6.	1845	393
Ferryhill	- ditto -	£98	£297. 6.4.	1848	134
Framwellgate Moor	- ditto -	£50	-	1846	118
Gateshead	- ditto -	£252	-	1842	538
Greatham	- ditto -	£30	-	1847	103
Holmside	- ditto -	£42	£130.15.8.	1847	99
- ditto -	- ditto -	£30	£106. 6.4.	1849	99
Middleton-in-Stranton	- ditto -	£50	-	1840	209
Monkwearmouth	- ditto -	£180	£400	1848	265
Newfield	- ditto -	£200	-	1841	178
Pelton Girls	- ditto -	£40	£170.17.8.	1848	117
Sacrison	- ditto -	£60	£148. 4.0.	1845	118
Seaham Harbour	- ditto -	£273	£561.18. 2.	1849	290
Seaton Carew	- ditto -	£115	-	1844	88
Sherburn Hill	- ditto -	£45	-	1845	87
Sildon	- ditto -	£70	£125. 8.0.	1841	332
- ditto -	- ditto -	£45	-	1847	332
Shincliffe	- ditto -	£82	-	1840	160
South Church	- ditto -	£200	£243. 8.6.	1848	200

Appendix 29 (Ctd.)

<u>Name of School</u>	<u>Denomination</u>	<u>Parliamentary Grant</u>	<u>Paid by Promoters</u>	<u>Date of Payment</u>	<u>No. of children to be accommodated.</u>
South Shield St. John's	Church of Eng.	£400	£537. 0.0.	1848	414
Great Stainton	- ditto -	£54	£157.15.0.	1848	56
Stockton-on-Tees	British and Foreign	£100	-	1841	130
- ditto -	Church of Eng.	£300	£1218.5.6.	1847	300
Sunderland	British and Foreign	£30	-	1840	-
Tanfield	Church of Eng.	£100	-	1844	200
Thornley	- ditto -	£75	£130	1845	100
Tow Law	- ditto -	£400	£510	1849	400
Whitworth	- ditto -	£100	-	1840	102
Windy Nook	- ditto -	£60	-	1843	117
Witton Gilbert	- ditto -	£35	£108	1845	66
Wolsingham	- ditto -	£250	£618.19.6.	1845	300
Wreckenton	- ditto -	£65	-	1842	133.

Appendix 30

Sums appropriated from Parliamentary Grants for other than buildings in County Durham between 1833 and 31st October 1849. (Taken from Minutes of the Committee of Council 1849).

<u>Name of School</u>	<u>Denomination</u>	<u>In Augmentation of Teachers Salaries</u>	<u>To Apprentices and Teachers for their instruction</u>	<u>For books and apparatus</u>
Barnard Castle	Wesleyan	+	-	£2. 13. 4.
Chester-le-Street	Church of Eng.	-	-	£4. 6. 9.
Coundon	- ditto -	-	-	£1. 0. 0.
Darlington Bridge St. (Infants)	British & For.	-	-	£2. 12. 2½
Darlington Feethams	- ditto -	-	-	13. 2.
Darlington Holy Trinity	Church of Eng.	-	£29	£6. 16. 7½
Durham Diocesan Training School	- ditto -	-	-	10. 8
Eaglescliffe	Parish ?	-	£15	-
Escombe	Church of Eng.	-	-	£3. 19. 7¼
Houghton-le-Spring	- ditto -	£18	£97.10.0.	-
Seaham Harbour	- ditto -	-	-	£3. 18. 2½
Seaton Carew	- ditto -	£16.10.0.	£15. 0.0.	£3. 3. 4
Sherburn Hill	- ditto -	-	-	£1. 0.2¼
South Shields St. John's	- ditto -	-	£29. 0.0.	-
South Shields Trinity	- ditto -	-	£57. 0.0.	£4.19. 1¼
South Shields Union	- ditto -	-	-	£6.10. 8
Stockton-on-Tees Industrial	-	-	-	£1.13. 1¼
Sunderland Gray	Church of Eng.	-	£29	£12.6. 7½
Sunderland St. Mary's	Roman Catholic	-	-	£9.13. 7½
Thornley Colliery	Church of Eng.	-	-	£1. 8. 2
Tow Law	- ditto -	-	-	£3. 1. 8.

Appendix 31

Percentages of children according to age in public and private week day schools in 1858 (Newcastle Commission Report. Vol.1 p.171). The table is drawn from a sample of 1740 public and 3450 private weekday schools, the latter having fees not exceeding £1 a quarter.

<u>Age</u>	<u>Column 1</u> Percentage of children in Public Schools	<u>Column 2</u> Percentage of children in Private Schools	<u>Column 3</u> Cumulative Frequency for Column 1	<u>Column 4</u> Cumulative Frequency for Column 2.
Under 3	3.0	5.4	3.0	5.4
3 and up to 6	19.8	34.7	22.8	40.1
6 " " 7	11.3	13.4	34.1	53.5
7 " " 8	12.3	11.0	46.4	64.5
8 " " 9	12.4	9.0	58.8	73.5
9 " "10	11.6	7.4	70.4	80.9
10 " "11	10.3	5.8	80.7	86.7
11 " "12	7.9	4.8	88.6	91.5
12 " "13	6.0	3.9	94.6	95.4
13 " "14	3.1	2.3	97.7	97.7
14 " "15	1.3	1.3	99.0	99.0
15 and over	1.0	1.0	100.0	100.0

Appendix 32

A List of Schools in County Durham c.1850 showing Total Cost of
Erection and Number of Pupils to be Accommodated.

(Abstracted from Minutes of the Committee of Council 1845 to 1848).

<u>Name of School</u>	<u>Total Cost of Building</u>	<u>No. of Pupils to be accommodated at 6 sq.ft. each</u>	<u>Cost per Pupil</u>
Chester-le-Street	£516. 1. 1.	300	£1. 7. 8 $\frac{3}{4}$
Coundon	325.17.10 $\frac{3}{4}$	200	1.12. 7.
Coxhoe	450. 0. 0.	200	2. 5. 0.
Deptford	510. 0. 0.	300	1.14. 0.
Durham St.Oswald's	640. 0. 0.	374	1.14. 2 $\frac{1}{2}$
Egglescliffe	257. 0. 0.	84	3. 1. 2 $\frac{1}{4}$
Etherley	230. 5. 0.	110	2. 1.10
Ferryhill	345. 0. 0.	152	2. 5. 4 $\frac{3}{4}$
Great Stainton	203. 0. 0.	54	3.15. 2 $\frac{1}{4}$
Hetton-le-Hole	240. 0. 0.	325	14. 9 $\frac{1}{4}$
Ludworth	300. 0. 0.	120	2.10. 0
Middleton-in-Teesdale	205. 0. 0.	100	2. 1. 0
Monkwearmouth Shore	630. 0. 0.	243	2.11.10 $\frac{1}{4}$
Newfield	380. 6. 1.	179	2. 2. 5 $\frac{3}{4}$
Seaham Harbour (Nat.)	788.14. 1.	313	2.10. 4 $\frac{1}{2}$
Seaton Carew	657. 0.10	168	3.18. 2 $\frac{1}{2}$
Sherburn Hill	120. 0. 0.	85	1. 8. 3
Sildon	210. 0. 0.	400	10. 6.
Shincliffe	271. 8.11.	160	1.13.10 $\frac{1}{2}$
South Shields	576.13. 8.	400	1. 8.10
Stockton (Nat.)	1200. 0. 0.	266	4.10. 2 $\frac{3}{4}$
Tanfield	409. 3. 6.	192	2. 2. 7 $\frac{1}{4}$
Thornley	205. 0. 0.	100	2. 1. 0
Tow Law	1000. 0. 0.	400	2.10. 0
Whitworth	431. 4. 7.	300	1. 8. 8 $\frac{3}{4}$
Windy Nook St.Alban's	278. 3. 0.	225	1. 4. 8 $\frac{1}{2}$

Appendix 32 (Ctd.)

<u>Name of School</u>	<u>Total Cost of Building</u>	<u>No. of Pupils to be accommodated at 6 sq.ft. each</u>	<u>Cost per Pupil</u>
Wolviston	£187. 6. 1.	114	£1.12.10 $\frac{1}{4}$
Wreckenton	294.11. 3.	127	2. 6. 4 $\frac{1}{2}$
Wolsingham	750. 0. 0.	286	2.12. 5 $\frac{1}{2}$
Windy Nook Boys	220. 0. 0.	117	1.17. 7 $\frac{1}{4}$

Average Cost Per Pupil - £2. 0. 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ d.

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