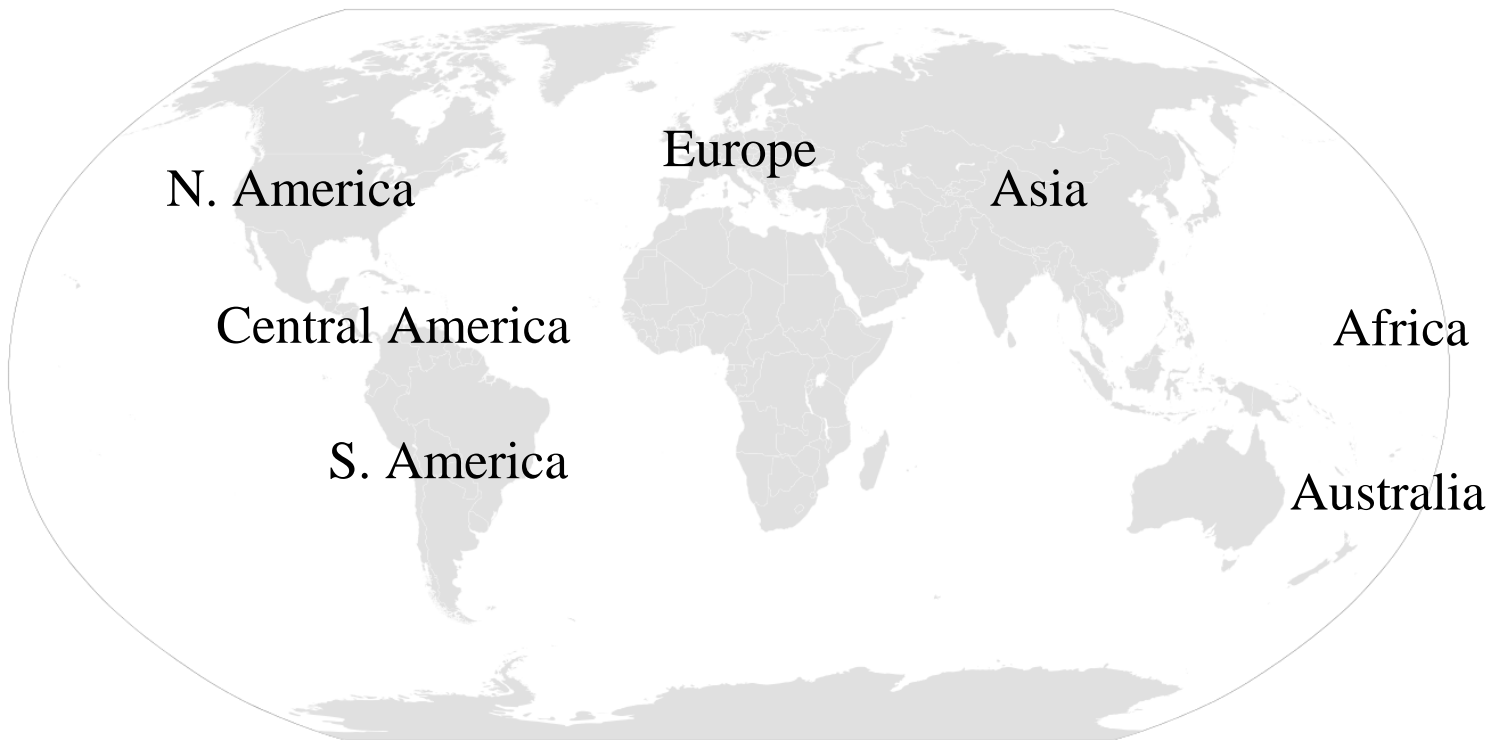


The History of Borough Road School/College from
its Origins in 1798 until its merger with Maria Grey
College to form West London Institute of Higher
Education in 1976



Borough Road School/College Overseas

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The following pictures came from the Archives of the British and Foreign School Society with their permission

1. Borough Road Lancaster's Schoolroom (1817)
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The following pictures were taken by the author at the British School Museum with their permission

Please note that pictures 5 and 6 show some modernisation of the Lancaster's Schoolroom e.g. radiators

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All these pictures are to be seen in the appropriate appendices.

The Glossary

BFSS British and Foreign School Society

CNAAC Council for National Academic Awards

HCPP House of Commons Parliamentary PapersHis/Her

HMI His/her Majesty's Inspector

MRST Member of the Royal Society of Teachers

NACTST National Advisory Council for the Training and Supply of
Teachers

NUET National Society of Elementary Teachers

NUT National Union of Teachers

SPCK Society for the Propagation of Christian Knowledge

TRC Teacher Registration Council

Preface

This book is concerned with the development of the education of the children of poor parents from its early beginnings. The introductory chapters provide an historical review of the lives of the poor children and their meagre education over the centuries. Initially the types of schools available to the children of the poor were very limited with the dominant one being a charity school. Very many children got little or no education.

With the advent of the industrial revolution in the mid-eighteenth century education started to assume some importance for these children. As a result of the need to teach these children, it was a necessity to start training teachers.

The book covers the work of Joseph Lancaster with poor children initially in the locality of his home in Borough Road, Southwark and then its rapid spread across England and to other countries across the world. By 1814 Joseph Lancaster's work became part of the British and Foreign School Society, which administered the Borough Road School and its associated training college until the teacher training college was merged with another teacher training college in 1976.

In due course of time children, who had learnt to read and write, taught younger pupils. These children were known as monitors. Promising monitors were taken to live with Joseph Lancaster in his own house in order to train them as teachers. In effect he had started a primitive teacher training institution.

Initially Joseph Lancaster's teacher training programme merely took three months. At the end of the training the monitors went to spread the Lancasterian system of elementary education across the country and soon to countries across the world.

The life and the substantial work of Joseph Lancaster are given in some detail and his relation with a vast array of eminent people is noted. Many of these people, regarded as social reformers, included William Allen, William Wilberforce and Elizabeth Fry. To this list may be added the Revd Dr Andrew Bell and Mrs Sarah Trimmer, who were members of the Church of England whilst Joseph Lancaster was a member of the Society of Friends.

Mrs Trimmer and Revd Dr Andrew Bell had serious concerns with Joseph Lancaster's means of teaching and engaged in controversy with him.

Then the development of his training school is examined in some depth. Joseph Lancaster devised a strategy for the operation of his school having a monitor-general and a number of monitors to undertake the teaching. Every aspect of the running of the school and the teaching of the pupils was clearly articulated. Hence the Lancasterian system of elementary school teaching was established.

In 1814 the control of the Borough Road institutions passed from Joseph Lancaster to the British and Foreign School Society. For some years this society was sustained by subscriptions and donations and so was a voluntary organisation.

The first chapter of the main text, which deals with the 1790 decade, includes the opening of Joseph Lancaster's school in 1798 in Borough Road, Southwark. Then the main part of the book is devoted to the development of the Borough Road institutions and their activities decade by decade. Each chapter considers changes in legislation and how educational initiatives were created and implemented.

Throughout the text Geography is used to demonstrate how these changes in the schools and the teacher training colleges were enacted.

The epilogue outlines the merger of Borough Road College with Maria Grey College to form West London Institute of Higher Education in 1976.

Acknowledgements

In preparing this book, I have had the help and support of many people. Ex-colleagues and ex-students of Borough Road College have very willingly provided much valuable personal information. In addition many other institutions/organisations have provided relevant information by replying to my specific questions for information very quickly.

As a member of the staff of Borough Road College from September 1967 I have had an interest in the British and Foreign School Society as a charitable organisation providing support for deprived children. I was appointed a British and Foreign School Society governor of a school associated with Borough Road College for many years in 1981. The school was Isleworth Grammar School, which was located opposite Borough Road College but later renamed Isleworth and Syon School when the reorganisation of schools took place.

I wish to acknowledge the following for giving me so much of their time.

1. Staff of the Archives of the British and Foreign School Society located within Brunel University. Phaedra Casey, Penny Lyndon, Mandy Mordue and Joshua Connolly have made every effort to find specific references for me.
2. The staff of the British Schools Museum in Hitchin for allowing me to take photographs of the complex of buildings and the only remaining Lancasterian Schoolroom in the world.
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5. The staff of Senate House, London for providing me with details of qualifications gained by ex-graduates who had trained or taught at Borough Road College and took London University degrees.
6. In preparing the text of the book I have had considerable help from National Archives, both at Kew and Norwich and members of staff in the Parliamentary Archives at the Houses of Parliament. In particular I wish to express my grateful thanks for the help and support of Judy Nokes, the Policy Adviser at National Archives in Norwich.

Many of the references cited in the reference list are attributed to different parts of the government's activities over the centuries including Acts of Parliament, Parliamentary Papers, Hansard records, Royal Commissions, Royal Charters, Select Committees, Departmental Committees and Joint Committees. A significant number of these publications were prepared by the Board of Education (1840 to 1944), the Ministry of Education (1944-1964) and the Department of Education and Science (1964 – 1976) relevant to this book. In particular many circulars for schools and teacher training colleges form a significant part of this history and made freely available by government. From 1964 government publications cited are made available under the terms of the Open Government Licence. The various governmental documents are itemised individually in various appendices at the end of the book.

Over the years from 1798 to 1976 publishers have merged with other publishers, changed names or become extinct. As a result some detective work was needed to ensure that the reader could identify the change(s) from the original to the current time. Organisations which have changed their name are:

- (a) College of Preceptors – now College of Teachers

(b) National Society - now Church of England Education Division and National Society

7. Derek Gillard's website entitled '*Education in England: the history of our schools*' was discovered some time after I had started writing this text.
8. A large number of universities, both in Great Britain and the United States of America, have responded to my E-mails for information. I wish to acknowledge the contributions made by staff in the libraries of the following universities:

UK Universities

Aberystwyth

Bath

Bristol

Brunel

London

- a) Senate House Library
- b) Institute of Education Library
- c) King's College Library
- d) London School of Economics Library
- e) University College Library

Liverpool Library

Manchester Library

Open University

Reading Library

Surrey Library

Swansea Library

Warwick Library

American Universities

Columbia

Pennsylvania

Rutgers

Texas at Austin

Toronto

In addition a number of public libraries have assisted in my endeavours, namely Belfast, Bristol and Hounslow.

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National Association of Head Teachers
National Museum of Scotland
National Society (later to become Church of England)
National Union of Teachers
Parliamentary Archives
Privy Council
Royal Geographical Society
Society of Authors
Society of Friends Library in London
Society for the Propagation of Christian Knowledge

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11. Lastly support from my husband over the years whilst I wrote this book.

Section A Background

Historical Introduction

The Development of the Education of Children of Poor Parents over the Centuries

Originally it was only the male offspring of wealthy parents who received a formal education. The first grammar schools appeared around the 600s and provided a classical education in Latin. A clergyman was the head of the grammar school and these schools were often associated with cathedrals. The children attending these schools were likely to make the next generation of clergymen or lawyers.

As far back as 597 a grammar school called the King's School was founded by Saint Augustine of Canterbury in Canterbury (Hinde 1990). In 871 Alfred, King of Wessex, expressed concern for education (Fisher 1936 p.183). Over time the curriculum was expanded to include Ancient Greek and Hebrew. With the Norman Invasion in 1066 French replaced English as a vernacular medium for teaching.

From the 1100s there was a gradual increase in the types of schools available for children. As more children received a basic education a growing interest in seeking higher education appeared. In the 1200s the first university colleges were established at Oxford (Sager 2005). Nearly two centuries later independent schools start to appear e.g. Winchester School in 1382 (Leach 1899 and Eton in 1440 (Card 2001). Later these schools became known as public schools. They received their finances from fees paid by parents and endowments.

The start of the seventeenth century saw an expansion of schools. From around 1600 the grammar schools began to flourish in many parts of England e.g. York, Lincoln. Later grammar schools were even to be found in small market towns e.g. Horncastle in Lincolnshire (Leach 1911 p 281). Until about 1800 most grammar schools provided a classical education in Latin and they had to be presided over by a clergyman.

In the grammar school the classical education was provided free to local children and the term '*free school*' was used. Later the curriculum was broadened so that it included a range of subjects besides the classical languages. Such subjects included English, natural science, mathematics, history, geography and European languages. Many parents felt that their offspring should be taught to read and write and undertake some mathematics.

Apprenticeships were developed in the Middle Ages and they came to be supervised by craft guilds and own governments. A master craftsman was entitled to employ young people as an inexpensive form of labour. In return the apprentice, who was contracted to the master craftsman, was provided with food, lodging and formal training in the appropriate craft. The apprenticeship normally lasted for a period of seven years. Although most apprentices were male some were female. The female apprentice was likely to be contracted to a master seamstress, tailor, baker and stationer.

The Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge was founded in 1698 (Jones 1938). It soon campaigned to establish charity schools for the education of the poor. Originally the charity school was organised and maintained by the parish using monies provided by the local inhabitants. The school made provision for educating the poor of the parish to read and write.

By the middle of the century endowed schools for primary education started to appear. The Ripley Free School in Harrogate was founded in 1702 with the endowment of Catherine and Mary Ingoldby. They provided a master who was to be a member of the Church of England and able to teach and instruct young people in reading, writing and simple arithmetic (Curtis 1957 p.188).

Charity schools started in London and quickly spread across the urban areas of the country. The larger charity schools provided free education and their scholars wore uniforms. Hence they were often known as the Blue Coat Schools. The first Blue Coat School founded and located in Newgate, London in 1552 (Morpurgo 1984). By the nineteenth century English elementary schools were mainly charity schools.

In the eighteenth century there were rigid class distinctions between upper/middle classes and the poor working class. The class distinctions divided society. The upper and middle classes were anxious to maintain their

place in society. They considered that schooling for the poor would be dangerous in that teaching them to read would lead to disorder. This view was held by the established Anglican Church.

On the other hand there was an alternate view that simple schooling of the poor could be a benefit. If the poor could read the scriptures and earn a useful living, the economy of the country would improve. In addition it was hoped that the children of the poor would follow the teachings of the established church having been exposed to their doctrines.

In the eighteenth century only children of rich parents were educated as they could afford to pay for their children's education. For the children of the working class there were very limited opportunities for them to learn to read and write. At that time very young children of working class parents had to make a contribution to the finances of the family household. Often the whole family living in urban areas worked in factories. For factory workers it was not felt necessary to educate them (Kydd 1847). The vast majority of the workers, who were not literate, learnt their job doing it. However children destined to be lawyers, doctors or churchman needed to be highly educated in public schools.

Towards the end of the eighteenth century the Industrial Revolution had commenced in earnest. With the gradual move of people from the countryside to the towns and the increase in manufacturing, industrial and commercial activity, there was an acknowledgement that educating all children would be profitable for the economy of the country. However the concentration of people in close proximity to each other started to present problems of health, housing and finances.

With the onset of industrialisation factory and mill owners employed paupers and orphaned children as '*apprentices*'. These apprentices were not paid wages but they received lodging and they were fed and clothed. However their working and living conditions were very poor. Children could be employed as young as six years of age in the factories and mills.

At the start of the nineteenth century Great Britain was leading the world in industrial and commercial developments of all kinds. Prior to the start of the nineteenth century there were few schools for children of the lower working classes in society. The schools that existed were associated with the churches.

For the poor education was simple and much undeveloped. Children and adults learnt their skills on the job as many businesses were family run. In particular the morals, politics and religious attitudes of the rich people were all important. Furthermore the government had no control over education provision.

However there were some early attempts to tackle this lack of education provision amongst the working class because the living and working conditions of children working in factories, mills and mines were becoming known to be totally inadequate and some influential people felt that something needed to be done to improve conditions for these children.

For the poor education was very restricted as many of them, both children and adults, could hardly read and write. Factors against them becoming educated were four fold of which the most important was the clear distinction between the classes. Secondly there was political control of newspapers and magazines due to the stamp tax imposed after the Napoleonic Wars. For the people of the working class there was a lack of leisure and the rate of literacy was low.

Sunday Schools for the children of the poor started on a very small scale. The people of Savannah in Georgia, United States of America claimed that John Wesley originated the Sunday school. As a young Anglican minister John Wesley went to Georgia to preach to the Indians. Whilst in Savannah in 1737 he had a small group of children of the parish on Saturday and Sunday mornings to whom he taught the catechism (Bowden 1993).

In England the rise in Sunday schools progressed slowly. It was reported in 1751 that instruction of sixteen poor children took place every Wednesday and Sunday evening in the vestry of St Mary's Church in Nottingham (Hood 1910).

Sunday schools were gradually to be found in various places across the country and over a period of time (Townsend Mayer 1880). In 1763 Revd Theophilus Lindsey and Mrs Cappe opened a Sunday School in Catterick, Yorkshire. In 1768 Hannah Ball, who was a Wesleyan Methodist, opened such a Sunday school in High Wycombe. A Sunday school in Bright Parish in County Down, Northern Ireland was started by Dr Kennedy in 1770.

Revd Robert Raikes became best known for fostering the Sunday School Movement. In 1780 Revd Robert Raikes started the Sunday School Movement in the home of Mrs Meredith in Gloucester (Gregory 1877 p.27). At first the Sunday schools provided some education but only on a Sunday as this day of the week was the only one when working class people, both adults and children, were not at work. The Sunday school aimed to teach poor children to read and write and there was a hope that they would become full members of the Anglican Church.

Hannah More was a friend of William Wilberforce and other members of the Clapham Sect. William Wilberforce stayed with her at her home in Somerset (Smith 2002). As a result of discussions with William Wilberforce, Hannah More with her younger sister founded a Sunday school in Cheddar in 1789 (Thompson 1838).

In the late eighteenth century Mrs Sarah Trimmer came to prominence with regard to the education of children. She was an Anglican who was also a philanthropist. Mrs Trimmer was well connected with people of the upper classes and some members of the Royal Family She founded a school of industry, several charity schools and Sunday Schools within her neighbourhood of Brentford in Middlesex. The idea of forming a school of industry was suggested to Mrs Trimmer by Mrs E Denward of Canterbury around the year 1786. In 1786 Mrs Trimmer offered spinning to the children who attended the school of industry in Brentford (Adamson 1930 p.19).

Mrs Sarah Trimmer was inspired by the work of Robert Raikes and she founded her first Sunday school in Old Brentford, Middlesex in 1786 and several others across the parish in subsequent years (Yarde 1972 p.31).

Mrs Trimmer was a prolific writer of religious pamphlets and educational books on different subjects for a variety of audiences ranging from adults to children. The subjects ranged from fables for small children to critiques on religious themes. Her book entitled *The Charity School Spelling Book* was adopted around 1800 by Revd Dr Andrew Bell for the children in his school in Aldgate, London (Curtis 1957 p.207). She also edited a periodical entitled *The Guardian of Education* which contained articles for both adults and children (Humphrey 1893).

As an ardent and active member of the Anglican Church Mrs Trimmer intended to promote the established church and its doctrines of Christianity.

Further she was convinced that people belonged to a particular social class and their whole life should be conducted in that class.

In the early nineteenth century there were several types of schools which provided very basic education for the children of the working class. The Sunday schools were run by various religious denominations for or at a very nominal cost. They offered a minimum curriculum which concentrated on the religious needs of the children attending the Sunday school.

Dame schools could be considered to be as an early form of a private elementary school, which were usually run by women. They provided a very basic education for the small children in their charge. Even very young children were taken into the dame schools for which the parent paid a modest fee. These schools had very poor accommodation and could be likened to nurseries since they looked after the smaller children whilst mothers went to work. The older children were given some education.

The concept of ragged schools is attributed to John Pounds who was a crippled cobbler in Portsmouth. In 1818 he opened a free school in which he taught basic reading and writing skills as well as a number of skills appropriate to the working place (Barnes-Downing et al 2007). The term '*ragged school*' seems to have been introduced by the London City Mission and in 1840 the term first appeared in its annual report.

These schools were started when it was realised that very poor children, who wore ragged clothing and were dirty in appearance, were often excluded from the existing schools. Subsequently the term came to be applied to independent nineteenth century charity schools. Such schools provided free education as well as food, clothing and lodging for people who were unable to pay their way.

Mostly the ragged schools were to be found in working class areas where industry was expanding and the resulting environment for the factory workers, their families and housing was of very poor quality (Barnes-Downing 2007). In 1835 the London City Mission was established by David Nasmith in the Hoxton area of east London (Thompson 1985). The early work of the mission was directed towards the poor and destitute. The first ragged school was started in Westminster with the support of Lord Shaftesbury and some of his friends.

In 1844 the Ragged School Union was formed between the London School Mission and ragged schools in order to provide schooling for those unable to pay the small fee demanded by the voluntary schools. The founder and first president of the Ragged School Union was William Wilberforce, who was assisted by Angela Burdett-Coutts (Walvin 1982).

A very small number of endowed elementary schools for the poor existed alongside the charity schools, the Sunday schools, the schools of industry and the dame schools. They existed because the original endowment stated the level of education or the endowment funds were insufficient to maintain a grammar school.

The 1802 Factories Act, otherwise known as the Health and Morals of Apprentices Act, directed cotton and woollen mill owners to provide education and accommodation for the children employed in their mills (Honeyman 2007). Instruction in reading, writing and arithmetic was to be given during the first four years of their apprenticeship. The minimum age for having such apprentices was nine years of age. For children under the age of nine years the factory owner had to enrol them in an elementary school. If no such elementary school existed the factory owner had to establish one.

Pauper children, both boys and girls, were taught in schools known as '*Schools of Industry*'. These schools, which were a type of charity school, combined learning and work skills for the pauper children. These schools gave children of low educational ability the opportunity to acquire skills likely to enable them to earn a living in the future. It was likely that such children would work in factories or be employed as servants to the upper classes.

As far back as 1673 Thomas Firman opened a spinning factory where children of four and five years of age were taught to read and spin (Gray 1905). In 1697 John Locke wrote a memorandum on Poor Law Reform. At the time he was Commissioner of Trade and Plantations and he proposed the adoption of a '*workhorse school*' in every parish.

Children between the age of 8-14 years of age were to be sent to a working school. At the working school each child would be taught spinning or knitting or some other woollen manufacture. Each child was to have an

allowance of bread and in winter some gruel. The children underwent religious instruction (Fox Bourne 1876).

During the early part of the nineteenth century schools of industry increased as owners of factories and mills realised the work which they could obtain from children.

A known school of industry, which was started in 1799, was to be found in Kendal in Westmorland (Mannex 1851). The school had both boys and girls who were divided roughly by their ages. All were taught to read and write as well as studying some geography and religion. Different practical skills were given to the boys and girls. For young boys the carding of wool was often the skill whilst older boys might be instructed in the art of shoe making. For the young girls knitting might be the normal practical skill undertaken whilst for the older girls there was likely that several different tasks such as laundry and spinning might be offered.

All the skills for the girls were given to educate them for running a family home in the future whilst for the boys the skills were aimed at preparing them for work in a range of industries (Hadow 1926 p.4). The skills were practical and included gardening, carpentry, knitting, spinning, and sewing, washing and plaiting straw.

William Corston wrote an article in 1812 stating that leghorn, a form of straw, could be used to make hats. The products, which were produced, were sold to bring funds to the school. Unfortunately the income from the sale of the goods was not capable of supporting the schools entirely. Each school also relied on donations from benefactors. These schools of industry declined markedly with the growth of factories.

The schools of industry were to be found in many parts of the country. Mrs Trimmer was instrumental in founding several of these schools in the Brentford area (Yarde 1972 p. 43). In addition Mrs Trimmer also founded local charity schools (Smith 1931 p.58). She distinguished between the charity schools and the schools of industry. For all pupils attending these two types of schools she felt strongly that the pupils should be made aware of their position in society. They would constitute the future workers whether it would be working in an industry/factory or as servants in the houses of the upper classes.

The other type of school was the monitorial one. Joseph Lancaster and Revd Dr Andrew Bell had the same concept of wishing to provide education to the poor working classes as cheaply as possible. In their schools the children, who had to be a minimum of six years of age, were taught to read, to write and to undertake simple mathematical calculations. The children were taught by monitors who were trained to a standard higher than the children in their class. Thus one pupil learns the material and he was rewarded for successfully learning by teaching.

Joseph Lancaster was generous in the range of rewards which were given to the pupils. A range of toys, which included bats, balls and kites, were also purchased for good performances in the classroom along with purses, silver pens, engraved half crowns, star medals and other tokens to celebrate good performance. The method of teaching was very mechanical and today is known as peer tutoring.

At the start of the nineteenth century the middle classes were gaining status due to growth in their industrial activities. Samuel Whitbread, Member of Parliament for Bedford, was a successful business man who felt strongly that the poor had very few opportunities in life. He became a reformer who sought to abolish slavery, gain religious and civil rights for all, reform Parliament and establish a national education system (Fulford 1967).

On 20th February 1807 Samuel Whitbread proposed to introduce a new Poor Law Act in the House of Commons to deal with the Poor Law. As part of this bill there was a section which dealt with the education of the children of the poor in England and Wales (Corston 1840 p.31). In this act a scheme to give an increase of financial help to the poor was devised. Samuel Whitbread advocated that the parish should be responsible for the education of children and give them two years of education between the ages of seven and fourteen.

The rationale for proposing the bill was an attempt to reduce crime and pauperism among the children of the poor. This act was introduced when the quarrel between Bell and Lancaster was fierce.

Alas the proposal was considered too expensive to implement and also it was felt that the introduction of such a scheme would remove people from manual work at a time when there was a need for manual workers. Furthermore it was felt that such an educational experience might create

unrest in the poor children with their position in society. The bill was defeated in both houses of parliament mainly by the bishops of the Anglican Church.

In the period 1816 – 1818 two reports of the Parliamentary Committees on the Education of the Lower Orders in the Metropolis and Beyond were produced under the auspices of Henry Brougham. In the year 1816 the committee reported on the education of children in London. Subsequently a second report was produced in 1818 in which the remit of the committee was extended beyond London. It was concluded that the monitorial system used by Joseph Lancaster and Andrew Bell was rejected by Henry Brougham's Select Committee. At the time the government was not persuaded that the children of poor parents needed an education (Adams 1882 p.50).

In 1819 the Cotton Mills and Factories Act included some educational clauses. The act prevented the employment of children under the age of nine years and limited the hours that other children could work in cotton mills to twelve hours a day.

During the first half of the nineteenth century a number of acts were passed which aimed to make the conditions of women and children working in the factories, mills and mines better (Table 1). Also legislation was passed to ensure that the safety and working conditions of chimney sweeps could be improved with its first specific act (Chimney Sweeps Act, 1834). As the century proceeded the safety, well-being and education of the workers acquired momentum.

The 1802 Act stated that factory owners had to obey the law. In particular the walls of the factories had to be well ventilated and lime-washed twice a year. Factory owners had to look after the children's welfare as set out in the act. In particular the children had to be supplied with two complete outfits of clothing. The boys and girls had to be housed in different sleeping quarters with no more than two children to any one bed. The work hours of the children had to start after 6.00 am and end before 9.0 pm. Overall a maximum of two children were permitted in any one bed. For the first four years of their apprenticeship each child had to receive instruction in reading, writing and arithmetic. On Sundays each child was to have one hour's instruction in the Christian religion. In addition mill owners were also required to attend to any infectious diseases.

Fines of between £2 and £5 could be imposed on factory owners, but the Act established no inspection regime to enforce conditions. The act failed to provide a clear law of the hours one is permitted to work and failed to include supervision to make sure the law was being followed. The law was largely ignored by the factories but paved the way for more factory acts to follow at a later date as seen in table 1.

Table 1: Acts of Parliament Relating Especially to the Employment of Children and Women

<u>Date of Act</u>	<u>Name of Act</u>	<u>Main Features of the Act</u>
1802	Health and Morals of Apprentices	Maximum of 12 hours per day for children in textile mills. Prohibited night work for children. Required minimum standards of accommodation. Required to provide some elementary education
1819	Cotton Mills and Factories	No child under 9 years to work in cotton mills. 12 hour day for children over 9 years
1825	Cotton Mills and Factories	Maximum hours for under 16 year olds to 12 hours a day between the hours 5.00 am to 8.00 pm with ½ hour for breakfast and 1 hour for lunch
1831	Cotton Factories and Mills	12 hour day for people under 18 years with maximum of 9 hours on a Saturday
1833	Mills and Factories	Younger children were to attend school for 2 hours a day for six days a week. Holidays for children were to be given on Christmas Day, Good Friday and 8 x ½ days. Inspectors allowed to check conditions for very young children
1834	Chimney Sweeps	Minimum age for apprentices 10 years
1840	Chimney Sweeps	Minimum age for child apprentices – 16 years. No person under 21 years compelled or knowingly allowed to ascend or descend any chimney
1840	Coal Mines Act	Women, children and boys under 10 years banned from working underground. Inspectors to enforce act. Winching to be done by adults or boys over 15 years

1842	Mines and Collieries	Prohibited employment of women and children (under 10 years) to work underground in mines and collieries
1844	Labour in Factories	Factory machinery had to be guarded. Working age of children reduced to 8 years.
1847	Ten Hours Act	Maximum hours for women and children to be 10 hours a day and overall 58 hours per week
1850	Factories	Increased working hours for women and children to 60 per week.
1850	Coal Mines	Inspectors had permission to Inspection check working conditions Underground. Coal mine owners had to keep a plan of the mine

Alas the young apprentices often died very young as factory and mill machinery did not have guards. Many suffered from ill health as a result of working in atmospheres where there was a lack of fresh air and ventilation in the factories and the mills was very dusty and dirty. The children working in this sort of environment were exposed to large quantities of dust which caused respiratory diseases. Further they worked very long hours with no period of time to relax.

The schooling for the apprentices had to be between the hours of 6.00.am to 9.00 pm. In addition one hour of instruction in the Christian Religion on a Sunday was essential. The hours during which the apprentices were allowed to work in the factories were stated in the acts. A maximum of eight hours was permitted for apprentices between the ages of nine and thirteen years and a maximum of twelve hours between the ages of thirteen and eighteen. The factory or mill owner could be fined if these requirements were not met. It was difficult to ensure the age of the apprentice as birth certificates were not yet mandatory. Also there was no means of enforcing the clauses in the act as government had no effective means of policing the factories.

The elementary schools faced two major problems. In the early days finances were a constant problem. Due to a lack of sufficient funding most schools had but one teacher, who had to ensure that all children received an education. Hence the use of monitors became commonplace. The other major problem was concern over the erratic attendance of the pupils and the total time that they spent in the school.

In fact religious bodies provided most of the formal education for the children of the working class. Their rationale for providing such education was to ensure that the next generation should be trained to read the Bible and come to accept the Christian faith. Then at the end of the eighteenth century two people emerged to bring elementary education to the children of the poor. Their names were Revd Dr Andrew Bell and Mr Joseph Lancaster. Andrew Bell was associated with the Church of England whilst Joseph Lancaster's vision was non-denominational, although he was of the Quaker persuasion.

The Revd Dr Andrew Bell introduced the idea of mutual instruction whilst working with orphan children in an asylum in Madras, India. The name '*Madras System*' was given to his method of mutual instruction. In the Madras system discipline was all important so that the monitors were empowered to teach the orphan children. Bell thought that his system of teaching could be adapted to teaching the children of the poor in England.

On his return to London Bell outlined his method of mutual instruction in his publication entitled '*An Experiment in Education*' which was published in 1797. A year after reading Bell's book on his system, Lancaster utilised many of Bell's ideas in his own school, which he founded in 1798. Bell included the use of some of the books written by Mrs Sarah Trimmer. Bell did not found a school but introduced monitorial principles into some existing parochial schools. The first school using Bell's method was introduced at St Botolph's School in Aldgate, London in 1798 and then spread to other schools across the country (Gilroy 1997).

From 1798 Joseph Lancaster utilised basically the same method of teaching the children as had Andrew Bell. Lancaster's system utilised monitors whom he taught first so that they could teach younger children. He called his monitors the '*nobility*' of his school (Salmon 1904 p.30). Lancaster's method became known as the monitorial system and in 1803 he published '*Improvements in Education*'. In this publication he explained his teaching method in some considerable detail. Very soon Lancaster's monitorial schools were to be found to be found mainly in the larger towns.

In 1800 Joseph Lancaster acquired a copy of Bell's pamphlet which he read ardently (Salmon 1932 p.9). He was fascinated by Bell's method of self-instruction. Indeed Lancaster acknowledged his obligation to Bell for helping him to clarify his teaching ideas (Adams 1882 p.53). Both Bell and

Lancaster had large classes of children who were instructed by mechanical means. Bell's system was more flexible than the Lancaster system which was very highly organised and consequently rigid. However both men had found a way of providing an education for the children of the poor cheaply (Birchenough 1938 p 242 – 254). Bell and Lancaster were in correspondence with one another and in 1804 Joseph Lancaster visited Bell in Swanage, Dorset, where he was the rector (Salmon 1904 p.25).

In 1805 Mrs Trimmer wrote to Revd Dr Andrew Bell stating *'From the time, sir, that I read Mr Joseph Lancaster's "Improvement in Education" in the first edition I conceived an idea that there was something in his plan that was inimical to the Established Church'*.

[Hamilton 1958 p.3]

As Joseph Lancaster called his monitors the "nobility" of his school, Mrs Trimmer commented about his use of this term: *'When one considers the humble rank of the boys....one is naturally led to reflect whether there is any occasion to put notions concerning the 'origin of nobility' into their heads; especially in times which furnish recent instances of the extinction of a race of 'ancient nobility' in a neighbouring nation, and the elevation of some of the lowest of the people to the highest stations'* (Hamilton 1958 p.3).

In 1806 Mrs Trimmer published a pamphlet entitled *A Comparative View of the New Plan of Education*. In this pamphlet Mrs Trimmer stated that Joseph Lancaster's system of teaching was a serious threat to her belief in the established Anglican Church and the Anglican schools. She sought to demonstrate that the adoption of the Lancastrian System would provide a too generalised system of education for the children for the poor. As a Quaker, Joseph Lancaster's view on religion was much more liberal than that of Mrs Trimmer. Lancaster considered himself to be religious but non-denominational.

Alas the friendliness between Bell and Lancaster was thwarted when Mrs Trimmer persuaded Bell that Lancaster was stealing his teaching methods (Salmon 1832 p.8). A religious rift started to develop as Mrs Trimmer was an Anglican and she felt strongly that children should be reared in that denomination. Mrs Trimmer stated that Lancaster's views were damaging to religion and also damaging to political loyalty and the established norms of society.

Mrs Trimmer wrote an article about Bell's ideas in the Edinburgh Review (Darton 1982 p. 160). In this article she advocated the promotion of Anglicanism. With Bell's support the National Society for Promoting the Education of the Poor in the Principles of the established Church was formed in 1811. Its aim was to establish one of its schools in each parish of England and Wales.

Mrs Trimmer persuaded Andrew Bell to return from retirement in order for him to oppose Joseph Lancaster's views and promote the establishment of an Anglican society. As a result the friendliness of the two men became strained and caused a political crisis. The rift between Bell and Lancaster escalated and their differing views of teaching religious doctrines to the children in their care became hotly debated over the whole country. Furthermore much publicity was given to the differing views of Bell and Lancaster both verbally in pulpits and in written texts over a number of years. Bell was supported by churchmen of the Established Church and the Tories whilst Lancaster was supported by Dissenters and the Whigs. In time the two rival camps formed their own voluntary societies for the education of the poor.

In 1811 Revd Dr Andrew Bell was instrumental in establishing the National Society, which had Church of England connections. The National Society, declared its purpose to be '*that the National Religion should be made the foundation of a national education*' (National Society 1811).

The aims of the National Society were expressed in the Annual Report of the National Society published in 1812 as stated below.

'The sole object in view being to communicate to the poor generally, by means of a summary mode of education lately brought into practice, such knowledge and habits are sufficient to teach them the doctrine of Religion according to the principles of the established Church, and to train them to the performance of their religious duties by an early discipline'.

[National Society Annual Report, 1812 p.19]

Further the Society stated that it would follow the monitorial system devised by Revd Dr Andrew Bell i.e. give the children of the poor a Church of England education. This society placed its schools in many parts of the country and especially in the more rural areas. The Bell system of education

was adopted by existing schools in contrast to Lancaster who formed new schools.

In 1814 the Lancaster monitorial system led to the formation of the British and Foreign School Society. Its aims were given as:

'...the advancement of education, that is, the physical, mental, moral, religious and spiritual development of the whole person regardless of national, racial or cultural background in accordance with the principles of the Christian faith but on a non-sectarian and inter-denominational basis and without credal tests'.

Gradually it was acknowledged that the monitorial system was failing to educate its pupils sufficiently in reading writing and arithmetic. This combination of subjects became known as the '3Rs'. In place of the monitorial system the pupil-teacher system was imported from Holland. This new regime started in 1846.

Early Days of Training Teachers

In the early days of training teachers the term '*normal school*' was used. The purpose of a normal school was to establish teaching standards or norms for people aiming to teach in elementary schools.

In 1685 John Baptist de La Salle formed the first normal school in Reims, France (O'Toole 1980). This term normal school was applied differently in other parts of the world. In the United States of America the term was applied to primary schooling only whereas in Europe the term was applied to primary, secondary and teacher training schools. In England the training of teachers took place in teacher training colleges.

Elementary school teachers did not receive formal training until the nineteenth century in Great Britain. Thomas Bray, an Anglican priest, and a group of friends formed the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge (SPCK) in 1698. This Society, composed of members of the Church of England, sought to fight against the growth of vice and debauchery within Great Britain (Allen and McClure 1898).

Simple efforts to train teachers can be attributed to this Society. In order to execute its plan for tackling these problems the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge provided '*charity schools*'. These schools were designed to help parents to get their children educated to read the Bible. In addition the boys were taught a little arithmetic and the girls were taught basic arithmetic and plain needlework.

The aim of the charity schools was the salvation of souls as their first priority rather than providing basic education for its pupils. The teachers recruited to these schools had to be communicant members of the Church of England and have reached the age of twenty-five years of age or more. In addition the teachers needed to lead a sober life, be well spoken, have a meek temper and be well behaved. Academically the male teachers should have an aptitude for teaching, write neatly and accurately and have a sound knowledge of arithmetic. Female teachers should be able to teach reading and be proficient in sewing and knitting (Jones 1938 p.98).

The SPCK soon realised that teaching was a skilled craft and so their teachers needed to be trained. The idea of establishing a training college was considered but it did not materialise due to a lack of finances.

The SPCK evolved various methods to help recruits to act as teachers in charity schools. To this end the Society commissioned the Revd Dr James Talbot to write a manual of guidance for the teachers. The Christian Schoolmaster, which was first published in 1707, remained in use for many years. School managers were to let the new teacher the opportunity to observe and practice in the presence of experienced teachers. In addition county teachers were offered the opportunity to go to London to study the 'London' method as commended in the Christian Schoolmaster. A secondment scheme was introduced whereby established London teachers could voluntarily exile themselves to the country to teach their method in urban and village schools (Jones 1938 p.102). Another method was the apprenticeship scheme adopted by some schools (Jones 1938 p.101).

In the first half of the eighteenth century many schools were founded under the auspices of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge. However by the middle of the century the influence of the charity schools had started to decline.

Revd Griffith Jones founded a Circulating Schools Movement in Wales in 1731. The teachers of the Welsh circulating schools were chosen with care and gathered together for some weeks before meeting the children. In these weeks the trainees received catechetical and religious instruction. The teaching involved content rather than method.

Revd Griffith Jones selected his teachers with care as given in the following quotation:

'Before being let loose on their charges, they were brought together for training ... "for some weeks", to receive "catechetical instructions" and instruction in "easy, familiar explanatory questions upon the Church Catechism, and so through all plain and necessary things in a body of divinity'.

[Professor Glanmor Williams's Essay in Pioneers of Welsh Education, University College of Swansea Faculty of Education 1965 p.17]

His teachers spent a period of three months in establishing a school in a village and then moved to another village. The teachers provided basic literary using religious texts which were provided by the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge. The schools might occupy barns,

storehouses and other buildings as monies obtained for these circulating schools were not to be used for new buildings. Instead the monies were to provide materials for the school children.

In the early 1780s Revd Charles revived the Circulating Schools in north Wales. He also selected his teachers with care (Jenkins 1908). He gave them initial training and also inspected their work whenever one of his teachers was moved from one place to another.

In the 1780s a teacher training scheme was started by the Society of Friends, otherwise known as Quakers (Vipont 1854). They devised an apprenticeship scheme at Ackworth in Yorkshire (Vipont 1959 p.42)). Boys and girls possessing suitable qualifications and having suitable personalities would be apprenticed until they reached the age of twenty-one years. This teaching scheme continued to be used by Society of Friends for very many years.

Towards the end of the eighteenth century Joseph Lancaster and Andrew Bell opened schools which became known as monitorial schools. Both of these men used pupils as teachers. This principle was not original but both men produced a systematic method by which large numbers of pupils could be taught by one master cheaply. Very soon both these men started to train their teachers.

Towards the beginning of the nineteenth century children were increasingly employed in mills, factories and mines as industrialisation took place. In 1802 the Factory Act required apprentice children employed in factories and mills received education during the first four years of their apprenticeship. As a result of more children being in employment in the nineteenth century, the charity schools became absorbed in other organisations.

In-Service education of teachers started very early. Often it could not be easily distinguished from some initial teacher training schemes. In the early nineteenth century the British and Foreign School Society and the National Society utilised people known as '*organising schoolmasters*', whose roles were to travel from place to place advising teachers on how to form, organise and teach in the monitorial schools. Evening classes and lectures became commonplace from the 1840s onwards. In addition summer schools and '*harvest holiday camps*' were also organised.

Mutual improvement societies had their origins in the eighteenth century but fell into decay. In the 1830s and 1840s there was a revival of these societies among elementary school teachers.

In 1836 the formation of a central association for British teachers in the London area was considered by a number of teachers working in London. There was a feeling that an association would help to promote links with British school masters. It was envisaged that such an association would provide opportunities to meet and discuss a range of subjects connected with practical teaching such as methods of teaching, governance and discipline of schools.

On 2nd July 1836 a letter outlining the proposed formation and operation of such an association was sent to Henry Dunn, secretary of the British and Foreign School Society from Mr J N Bontems, master of the British school in Brentford. In the letter it requested the Committee of the British and Foreign School Society to arrange a conference for teachers with the British schools on 17th August 1836 at the Central Institution of the Society. Mr Bonthems stated in his letter that the initiative was warmly welcomed by Mr Althans, who for a number of years acted as a part-time inspector for the British schools around London.

The Committee of the British and Foreign School Society agreed to the request and the conference was arranged for 17th August 1836 for the teachers in their schools. The conference was opened by Henry Dunn, who welcomed the teachers present and hoped that the conference would be the first of a series of useful meetings. At the conference Mr Dunn outlined some proposals for the association and a resolution was made for the establishment of an association of British teachers.

'That the Committee approve the plans now laid before them, and accede to the requests contained in the Resolutions; and the Secretary is requested to communicate the same to the Teachers, and to take the needful steps for carrying the object into effect'.

[The British Teachers' Report 1836 Number 1 p.1]

At the conference it was agreed that a magazine known as *The British Teachers' Reporter* should be published quarterly in the year and sold for a price of two pence per copy.

The British Teachers' Association began to hold meetings at Borough Road. The President of the Association was Mr J Crossley, who was the Master of the Borough Monitorial School (Bartle 1976 p.42). In 1838 the National Society also provided a similar type of arrangement for its teachers.

Types of Schools for the Children of the Poor

In the eighteenth century the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge was founded to '*combat the growth of vice and debauchery especially among the poorer sort*' (Jones 1938 p.38). The main function of the Society was to attempt to restore morals and religion to a country becoming less religious and curb the increase in petty thefts and vandalism in the towns. Originally this Society developed schools in each parish in and around London but soon these schools spread far beyond the London area.

In the first half of the eighteenth century the progress of charity schools under the auspices of Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge expanded to cover the country. However after 1750 the charity schools gradually declined until they were finally absorbed into other movements in the nineteenth century.

In the eighteenth century children born to poor parents might be able to obtain a little education. There were several types of schools possible for such children to access. Of most importance were charity schools which were run by several religious bodies. The Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, which was founded by the Church of England in 1698, had the most influence (Jones 1938 p.38).

As early as 1700 an inspector of charity schools in and around London was appointed. A little later in 1708 a plan for a training school for masters and mistresses in charity schools was discussed but nothing materialised. However after 1750 the charity schools gradually declined until they were finally absorbed into other movements in the nineteenth century.

The decline in establishing elementary schools in the eighteenth century was the growing pressure from owners of factories for child labour. Such children employed in mills and other factories worked very long hours over a period of six days of each week. Thus Sunday was the only day of the week free for the children but each one was expected to go to church.

The earliest Sunday School is attributed to a Sunday school for sixteen children held in the vestry of St Mary's Church, Nottingham in 1751 (Hood 1910). Gradually Sunday Schools spread across the country over a period of some years.

In 1780 Robert Raikes and Thomas Stocks founded the first Sunday school in Gloucester. Robert Raikes had great enthusiasm and in 1785 a society was formed to organise a movement with interest in Sunday Schools. The society was known as The Society for the Establishment and Support of Sunday Schools (Davies 1996). At the time there was a general feeling of the public that education of the lower classes was required and it was necessary to have central organisation and sustained effort in order to achieve education for all young children of the lower classes.

Hence in the early years of the 1800s a number of organisations supporting private and sectarian efforts for popular education started to appear. In 1803 the Sunday School Union, which was supported by most religious groups, was founded (Sylvester 1970 p.262). In the Sunday School Union attempts were made to sink denominational interests in order to support the wishes of the public. Both Anglican and other denominations alike became involved in order to provide a minimum education for all children prepared to attend the school and church. These schools provided religious instruction as well as reading, writing and some aspects of arithmetic.

However G M Trevelyan made comment on Sunday schools and charity schools:

'The new charity schools and Sunday schools had the merit of trying to do something for all, but they had the demerit of too great an anxiety to keep the young scholars in their appointed sphere of life and train up a submissive generation'.

[Trevelyan 1967 p.379]

There were other types of schools for poor children also known in the eighteenth century. However they did not cater for many pupils in contrast to the charity and Sunday schools.

There were a few schools of industry and were concerned only with providing opportunities to obtain practical skills for jobs such as gardening, carpentry, spinning etc. These schools were intended to look after orphans and the children of paupers. Such schools aimed to sell their own products in order to provide finances to support them.

A small number of endowed schools, which were grammar schools, had elementary schools for the poor attached to them. Such schools existed

because the original endowment had specified the type of education to be provided.

The dame school was a private school where a woman took young children into her own home so that the child's parents could go to work. A small daily fee was charged. Sometimes the woman would try to teach the young children to read and write.

A few private venture establishments existed, which were run mainly by men. These men were largely people who were social and academic failures. A small number of them had sufficient education so that they could teach the children in their charge but many of the men were simply interested in getting money from the parents of their children.

At the end of the eighteenth century the monitorial school had its lowly origins with the ideas of teaching advocated by Joseph Lancaster and Andrew Bell. In 1797 Andrew Bell published '*An Experiment in Education*', commonly known as the Madras System. His system was put into practice in several charity schools in the London area. In 1798 Joseph Lancaster founded his school in Southwark which became known as a monitorial school. Both men used monitors who taught younger pupils. Joseph Lancaster taught the first monitors and these monitors in turn taught other pupils. Hence the school had one teacher and unpaid monitors.

Both men had religious convictions which led them to foster the education of the children of the poor. Andrew Bell was an Anglican and Joseph Lancaster was a Quaker. In 1803 Joseph Lancaster published an account of his method of teaching. In the following year Joseph Lancaster went to visit Andrew Bell in Swanage, Dorset.

However Robert Raikes is normally thought to have been the founder of Sunday Schools (James 1910). His first Sunday school was found in Gloucester in 1780 and it had paid teachers. Robert Raikes had great enthusiasm and in 1785 a society was formed to organise a movement with interest in Sunday schools. In 1803 the Sunday School Union, which was supported by most religious groups, was founded (Watson 1873). These schools provided religious instruction as well as reading, writing and some aspects of arithmetic.

Other types of schools for poor children were also known in the eighteenth century e.g. adventure schools, common day schools. However they did not cater for many pupils in contrast to the charity and Sunday schools.

There were a few schools of industry and were concerned only with providing opportunities to obtain practical skills for jobs such as gardening, carpentry, spinning etc. These schools were intended to look after orphans and the children of paupers. Such schools aimed to sell their own products in order to provide finances to support them.

A small number of endowed schools, which were grammar schools, had elementary schools for the poor attached to them e.g. Isleworth Grammar School (Hyam 1969). Isleworth Grammar School originated as a charity school founded in 1715. Originally it was known as the Blue School in Lower Square, Isleworth since all the pupils wore blue uniforms. A number of endowments were received over the eighteenth century several of which specified that poor children were to be accepted in the school. In 1902 the school became Isleworth County School and in 1952 its name was changed to Isleworth Grammar School.

A few endowed primary schools were to be found across England. The Alexander Hosea Primary School in Wickwar, South Gloucestershire, originally named the Endowed School, was founded in 1684 for boys of the village. The founder was a village weaver, who went to London where he made a fortune buying hostelries. He provided the money for the building and upkeep of the school and left monies in a Trust Deed for its continuation in perpetuity.

A small number of other schools had endowed primary schools associated with schools catering for secondary pupils. Watford Grammar Schools were derived from a free school founded as a charity school for boys and girls by Mrs Elizabeth Fuller in 1704 (Hart 2005). Mrs Fuller bequeathed fifty-two pounds a year to the Watford Free School which taught boys to read, write and do simple arithmetic whilst the girls read English and learnt to knit and sew.

Over the years other bequests added to the annual amount given by Mrs Fuller to the school. However by 1870 the school was in a bad state despite the help of more bequests and other gifts to the school. The Charity Commissioners refused to sell part of the endowment to pay for overdue

repairs to the school and decided to have an enquiry into the school. In 1878 the Commission forbade the school from admitting more pupils until the matter was resolved.

The Commissioners offered the trustees of the school two options (a) turn the school into a public elementary school or (b) with a sum of money from the Platt Foundation amalgamate to form a new middle class school. The trustees chose the second option and the Watford Free School closed. Its remaining pupils were placed in local elementary school.

In 1881 a scheme for combining Mrs Fuller's Foundation with a portion of the Platt Foundation to form the Watford Endowed Schools, which taught boys and girls from the age of seven to sixteen (Hughes and Sweeney 1954). The fees were to be low and scholarships were available to pupils whose parents could not pay the fees.

During the period 1772 – 1774 Revd Edward Pickard gathered dissenting ministers together in order to attempt to modify the terms of the Act of Toleration. With Revd Pickard's enthusiasm two attempts were made to modify the law but were unsuccessful. A third attempt in 1779 was successful in that substituting belief in Scripture for belief in the Anglican (doctrinal articles) but penalties on property remained.

Non-conformists were not permitted to enter the teaching profession until 1779. In addition the children of non-conformist parents were unable to go to universities.

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With the start of the nineteenth century the monitorial schools founded by Andrew Bell and Joseph Lancaster made great strides and their schools started to spread across the country. For the schools following the Lancasterian system spread quickly to other countries as his trained monitors went overseas as missionaries. One of the first fertile countries for the Lancasterian system was the United States of America. Over a period of some thirty years the Lancastrian system of teaching went world-wide to every continent of the world.

In 1803 Joseph Lancaster published an account of his method of teaching. In the following year Joseph Lancaster went to visit Andrew Bell in Dorset.

Initially Joseph Lancaster and Andrew Bell were friends. Unfortunately in 1805 Mrs Sarah Trimmer published a paper stating that Lancaster's system was antagonistic to the Anglican Church, which was the national church of the country. This paper caused a split to emerge between the two men. In 1808 the Royal Lancastrian Society was formed and in 1811 the National Society was formed. The first society followed Lancaster's system whilst the other society followed Bell's system. In 1814 the British and Foreign School Society was formed.

Several people were attracted to Joseph Lancaster's monitorial system of teaching for the children of the poor. Four men besides Joseph Lancaster and Andrew Bell sought to enhance the chances for such children to receive an education, namely Robert Owen, David Stow, Samuel Wilderspin and John Wood.

Robert Owen was a wealthy cotton trader living in Manchester. On his travels he saw the squalid conditions in which many people lived and worked and he was greatly shocked. On buying two cotton mills in New Lanark, Scotland, Robert Owen was determined to make the lives of his employees who worked in the cotton mills much better. He set rules for the homes and behaviour of his workforce. In addition he provided support for the children of his employees. In effect he was creating a community village based around the cotton mills.

Robert Owen had been an early admirer of Joseph Lancaster's teaching method and he gave one thousand pounds to the British and Foreign School Society. Having established his own primary school in New Lanark he came to realise that Joseph Lancaster's methods had serious limitations.

He was aware that very young children were employed in the cotton mills for long periods of time each day. He sought to improve the lot of the children by reducing the hours worked per day to ten hours. Further the minimum age for a child to work in the cotton mills was set to be ten years of age. He provided schools which were based on the Lancastrian monitorial model for the older children. For the very young children Robert Owen provided an infant school in 1816.

Robert Owen considered that the character of a child was moulded at an early age by his/her environment. He showed an interest in the development of each child until adulthood. He wanted the children to be healthy, active and happy. In the infant school instruction was given in order to stimulate the senses. Such items included maps and brightly coloured pictures hung on the walls and simple solid objects placed on the tables/desks so that the children could touch and smell.

The children were encouraged to get exercise in the open air when weather conditions were suitable. All the children were taught to read, to write and to account. Teaching aids were provided by the British and Foreign School Society. Religious education was to be non-sectarian with the Holy Bible use as an aid to teaching. Additionally girls were taught to sew. Dancing, singing and playing a musical instrument were offered and evening classes organised for adults.

John Wood saw some unemployed weavers whom he wished to assist by providing them with the opportunity of studying in the Edinburgh Sessional School. The progress of these unemployed young persons was followed by John Wood. The school had adopted the monitorial system of Joseph Lancaster and adapted with some aspects of Andrew Bell's system. Both these systems John Wood found to be very mechanical and he wanted to make the instruction more pupil-centred. His system became known as the intellectual or exploratory method.

John Wood regarded the pupil:

'not as a machine, or an irrational animal, that must be driven, but as an intellectual being who may be led; endowed, not merely with sensation and memory, but with perception, judgement, conscience, affections, and passions; capable, to a certain degree, of

receiving favourable or unfavourable impressions, of imbibing right or wrong sentiments, of acquiring good or bad habits; strong averse to application, where its object is unperceived or remote, but, on the other hand, ardently curious, and infinitely delighting in the display of every new attainment which he makes'.

[Wood 1828 p.27]

Samuel Wilderspin was apprenticed as a clerk in the City of London but later trained in infant education. In 1818 Henry Brougham started a school based on Owen's ideas in Westminster in London and in 1820 a second school was opened in Spitalfields where Samuel Wilderspin taught. His belief was that a child should be encouraged to learn through experience, which would lead to development in his/her feelings as well as intellect. Further he felt strongly that the playground was as important as the schoolroom. Samuel Wilderspin became the master of his own infant school in Spitalfields and published *On the Importance of Educating the Infant Poor* in 1823, based on his experiences there.

His work had a profound and far-reaching impact on educational practice and on the design and furnishing of school buildings and their grounds. He pioneered infant schools and promoted the school playground, the teaching gallery, the classroom and new ways of teaching that still continue today. His approach involved developing a child's feelings as well as their intellect by encouraging a spirit of enquiry, learning through experience, introducing the pupils to the arts and nature, engaging in group activities and play. All these activities have since been proven that Samuel Wilderspin had a good instinct into the teaching method to be used with children in the infant school. He also formulated a curriculum for his pupils.

The infants were taught to use their senses by using a variety of goods. Coloured pictures were placed on walls, objects pinned to boards, and toy animals, brass letters and counting frames put on desks and tables. Sometimes the floor was used to draw a large map on it. Then the children were set to walk to particular places using a variety of routes (Quoted in Martin 1979 p.22).

In 1824 Samuel Wilderspin began working for the Infant School Society, informing others about their views on education. Samuel Wilderspin travelled round the country promoting the infant school system. In one year over thirty such schools were founded.

David Stow was engaged in social work in the poorer regions of Glasgow as a young man. Initially he opened a Sunday School and later an evening school where he undertook the teaching. Alas he felt unhappy with the educational aims and methods which were employed. He was convinced that education suffered from a lack of suitably qualified teachers. With these thoughts David Stow devised a training system which went beyond the giving of information and teaching it.

From these experiences David Stow considered that effective teaching was important for teachers at all levels of education and the teachers should be trained. He had a motto taken from the Holy Bible, which stated:

'Train up a child in the way he should go, and when he is old he will not depart from it'

[Holy Bible Proverbs 22 6]

David Stow was convinced that the training of a child very early in his/her life strongly influences the future development of the child. Play and learning should proceed hand in hand. The training system cultivates the whole nature of the child, instead of the just his/her head. The training should educate his/her habits of thinking, feeling and acting throughout their life. Oral work and the impact of the teacher were stressed as important to the development of the child. David Stow felt strongly that the function of the teacher was to stimulate, to encourage original thinking and to get the pupils to engage in discussion. He felt that the Lancasterian monitorial model had failed in many ways as it was utilising rote learning.

In 1831 David Stow published a short tract entitled *'Physical and Moral Training'*. In this tract he outlined his ideas on his training scheme for his potential teachers, whom he called *'trainers'*.

David Stow set up his first school in Glasgow in 1837 (MacLehose 1886 p.303). Its success later led to the establishment of the Glasgow Educational Society. In 1836, Stow established a Normal School for teacher training otherwise known as the Glasgow Normal Seminary; the seminary opened the following year. This teaching establishment sparked the formation of normal schools elsewhere e.g. University College, London. The seminary did not educate teachers but trained them (Adamson 1930 p. 136). The school attracted students and observers from across the United Kingdom including James Phillips Kay-Shuttleworth.

Over the years David Stow published a number of pamphlets which outlined his views on the training system. In 1859 Stow's ideas were transformed into a much bigger version of his original tract. His enlarged and renamed version was entitled '*The Training System of Education*'. In this expanded version he gave the aims of religious and moral education, which were the basis of a person's character.

Hence the development of elementary education during the first part of the nineteenth century moved forward with great interest and commitment shown by people of influence in the country who were financially solvent and had a passion to make the country a fairer place for all its citizens. Some of these people included members of parliament such as William Wilberforce and Samuel Whitbread, who sought to bring bills to Parliament to assist in these endeavours. Also many of these wealthy people were intimately concerned with the activities of the British and Foreign School Society.

The term '*normal school*' was used with reference to the training of teachers. Originally a normal school was designed to train school graduates to be teachers. Their purpose was to establish teaching standards or norms. Today these normal schools are known as teacher training colleges. The first normal school, which was called Ecole Normale, was founded by John Baptiste de La Salle in Rheims in the year 1685 (O'Toole 1980).

As soon as the Committee of Council of the Privy Council was established in 1839, government became concerned about the lack of qualified teachers and the absence of any official inspection of the schools receiving a parliament grant posed administrative problems. Hence these problems needed to be addressed.

Within a few days of the establishment of the Committee of Council plans were put forward to formulate a scheme for a 'normal school'. The Committee of Council considered that a normal school:

'was a school in which the candidates for the office of teacher in schools for the poorer classes may acquire the knowledge necessary to the exercise of their future profession and may be practised in the most approved methods of religious and moral training and instruction'.

[Quoted in Adamson 1930 p.124]

The trainee teachers were to be resident in the institution where they were to receive instruction. Two schools for children were to be associated with the normal school.

Joseph Lancaster's Life

Joseph Lancaster was born in Southwark in 1778 into a large family. His parents Richard and Sarah Lancaster had ten children, of whom Joseph was the youngest son. His father had served as a soldier in the British Army during the American War. He retired from the army with a pension but supplemented it by making cane sieves, which he sold in his shop. Young Joseph Lancaster was sent to two local dame schools where he learnt to read and write. Subsequently he attended a small private school run by an ex-army officer where he learnt military discipline. Thus he had received a good basic education.

Joseph Lancaster soon developed great enthusiasm for reading books including the New Testament. As a young boy he had religious visions and aimed to devote his life to the services of God. His parents wished him to become a clergyman but he was convinced that he should become a missionary.

When Joseph Lancaster was about ten years old he had an experience, which was to have a profound influence on his future life. On his way home from running an errand for his father Joseph Lancaster saw a funeral party going into the graveyard. Curious Joseph Lancaster went into the Quaker graveyard and he stood watching the mourners surrounding the open grave containing the coffin of the deceased member of the family. Nobody spoke and nothing happened. The silence deepened but the experience left him in awe.

On his return home Joseph Lancaster told his father about his experience at the Quaker graveyard, which seemed most unusual. Richard Lancaster told him that the experience was a typical Quaker reaction. He then informed Joseph that he came from Quaker stock. Joseph Lancaster was keen to explore the Quaker's faith further as he had been touched by the experience in the graveyard. Richard Lancaster told his son where a local Friends meeting was to be found. Occasionally Joseph Lancaster attended their meetings.

At the age of fourteen years Lancaster read Clarkson's essay on the slave trade, which inspired him to go to Jamaica in order to teach the black inhabitants of that country (Salmon 1904 p.2). With a local young man as a companion, Joseph Lancaster left his home in Southwark leaving a note for

his parents just outlining only a little of his plans. However they did not find his note for several days.

Soon Joseph Lancaster split from his companion and proceeded on his way alone. He set about walking to Bristol with little in the way of provisions and just two books, the Holy Bible and Pilgrim's Progress in order to get a boat going to that country (Salmon 1904 p.8).

Some days after Joseph Lancaster's departure from London an elderly minister named Thomas Urwick came into the Lancaster shop to make a purchase on his way home to Clapham. Seeing Joseph's mother was deeply distressed the minister asked her the reason for her distress. Sarah Lancaster called her husband Richard to explain to the minister about their son's departure. The parents suspected that their son had gone travelling. His mother thought that he might be making for the West Indies as he had been deeply impressed by Clarkson's pamphlet on the slave trade (Salmon 1904 p.2).

Thomas Urwick felt empathy with Joseph Lancaster's parents and he promised to make enquiries on their behalf amongst his numerous connections (Salmon 1904 p. 8). He had friends in Portsmouth and Plymouth who could ascertain whether their son had been pressed into the Royal Navy.

Joseph Lancaster arrived in Bristol with his shoes in ribbons and he was in desperate need of food and shelter (Salmon 1904 p.8). He enquired whether there were any ships bound for Africa. He was informed that such a ship would be at anchor in the following morning.

Overhearing Joseph Lancaster's conversation regarding a ship, a man standing nearby invited him to go with him as he could get him aboard a ship the following morning. Together they went to a local inn for a meal of bread and cheese. Whilst in the inn Joseph Lancaster found himself signing up as a volunteer in the Royal Navy.

The next morning the stranger and Joseph Lancaster took a small boat down the River Avon to meet the Union tender captained by Lieutenant North. The Union tender had a crew of one hundred and ten men as well as some guns on board.

The Union tender left Swansea to join a convoy of merchant vessels and Royal Navy ships which were on their way to Plymouth. Altogether the convoy comprised three hundred ships. The convoy took nearly two months to reach Plymouth as it encountered severe storms which caused damage to some of the ships. As a result the convoy sought refuge in Milford Haven whilst repairs were conducted (Salmon 1904 p. 8).

Whilst in Milford Haven, Joseph Lancaster managed to get hold of some paper to write a letter to his parents. This letter was despatched in the shore boat and posted. On arrival at Plymouth the tender's crew was checked for their health and Joseph Lancaster found himself moved to a hospital as he was not well.

When Sarah and Richard Lancaster received the letter from Joseph written in Exeter, they made contact with Revd Thomas Urwick. He gave Joseph Lancaster's parents a letter of introduction to a relative Jasper Barron to assist them in finding Joseph Lancaster (Corston 1840 p.3).

Jasper Barron was related to the Port Admiral's Captain in Plymouth and he wrote to enquire if he could ascertain Joseph Lancaster's location. It was hoped that he was to be found in a boat/ship which had recently arrived in Plymouth.

After some time Joseph Lancaster was located on a hospital ship. He was brought to the cabin of the Captain of Her Majesty's ship '*Cambridge*', where he was interviewed and asked whether he wanted to leave the Royal Navy. Joseph Lancaster replied that he did not wish to remain in the Royal Navy. So arrangements were put in place for his release.

Mr Jasper Barron sent him clothes, linen and shoes ready for his release. He collected Joseph Lancaster from the ship, gave him a good meal and took him to Ashburton in his carriage. In addition he gave Joseph Lancaster several guineas for his travel back to Southwark. Joseph Lancaster was recommended to go via Exeter. Whilst in Exeter Joseph Lancaster wrote a further letter to his parents apologising for leaving them. The journey took several days via Exeter to reach London.

Soon after his return to Southwark, Joseph Lancaster and his parents went to see Thomas Urwick in Clapham. The parents wished to thank Thomas

Urwick personally for his assistance in getting Joseph Lancaster back to London.

On his return from the Royal Navy, Joseph Lancaster worked with his father in his small shop. His parents were hoping that their son would become a minister. After he had been at home for some time his mother admitted to him that she wanted him to work for the Lord as a minister. Indeed his father had hoped for his youngest son to become a minister. Thomas Urwick was also of the view that Providence had chosen Joseph Lancaster for the Ministry. Despite the unsuccessful efforts of friends to find him a place in a college preparing men for the ministry Joseph Lancaster remained undecided about his future life.

However economic difficulties meant that the Lancaster household had some financial problems. One day a neighbour of the Lancaster family brought news that a teacher who ran a nearby common day school sought an assistant teacher. He was prepared to pay the assistant teacher. Joseph Lancaster accepted this position as he could continue to live at home whilst bringing some money to the household.

Whilst working in the common day school Joseph Lancaster had an experience which helped him to direct his thoughts on his future career. Whilst walking along a street reading a book he happened to look up and suddenly saw a girl in a shop doorway who was crying. He asked why she was crying. The girl's plight aroused Joseph Lancaster who immediately prayed that he might be able to teach children to read (Dickson 1986 p.15).

During the time Joseph Lancaster was teaching in the common day school he and his father went to listen to clergy of the Established Church. In addition Joseph Lancaster attended some Quaker meetings. Just attending such meetings did not satisfy Joseph Lancaster and soon he came to realise he needed to converse with people as well as have the experience of the silence of the Quakers. Books were still important to Joseph Lancaster. So he borrowed books and bought books when he had sufficient money.

Joseph Lancaster first saw Elizabeth Bonner (later to become his wife) as a pupil of the common day school when he had been an assistant teacher there. Later he met her in a local shop when he went to purchase a pencil (Dickson 1986 p.56). He taught at this school for about eighteen months when he fell ill and was sent home to Southwark.

Joseph Lancaster's father thought that he should go to stay with a friend who owned a fishing smack in order to regain his health. The friend fished in the English Channel and brought fish to the London market. It was hoped that sea air would aid Joseph Lancaster's recovery.

When fully recovered, Joseph Lancaster was offered a job as an assistant teacher at a boarding school for the children of Quaker parents in Essex. The master of the boarding school was John Kirkham, who was a devout Quaker. Whilst working in the boarding school Joseph Lancaster started to wear the Quaker habit and use the plain language of the Quakers. After some months Joseph Lancaster fell ill again and retired back to Southwark.

During the time that Joseph Lancaster returned to the home of his parents, were he continued to read any books which he could borrow or buy. In addition he renewed his attendance at Quaker meetings.

In the spring of 1797 Joseph Lancaster was home again. On his return he worked in his father's business but also bought and sold books. In November 1797 the book trade was very poor and Joseph Lancaster knew that he must earn some money. He considered that he could teach if only he had somewhere for the children to come.

The winter of 1797/1798 was bad. The previous summer had produced poor harvests, taxation for the French wars, the price of goods was increasing, trade in the shop was slack and book sales were low. Hence income to the Lancaster household was low. Hence Joseph came to the conclusion that he needed to earn some money and he knew that he was a good teacher.

Joseph Lancaster asked his father if he could set up a pay school for neighbourhood children in his father's house. His father agreed to give him the use of a room in the Lancaster house and Joseph Lancaster opened his school on 1st January 1798 at the age of nineteen years (Salmon 1904 p.9). Joseph Lancaster paid for a handbill to be printed and distributed within the neighbourhood to advertise his new school. He stated that the school offered reading, writing and the Holy Scriptures.

The new school soon attracted larger and larger numbers of pupils and his father's room could no longer accommodate the number of pupils. As a result Joseph Lancaster had to rent larger and larger rooms in order to

accommodate all the boys wishing to attend his school. In the autumn of 1798 Joseph Lancaster moved his school yet again with the financial support of James Hedger, a Lambeth inn keeper.

In 1798 Joseph Lancaster published '*An Account of the Progress of Joseph Lancaster's plan for the Education of Poor Children, and the Training of Masters for County Schools*'. This publication was printed in the school itself by Joseph Lancaster. His printing office helped to raise the profile of the school (Lancaster 1798 p.8). Joseph Lancaster opened a factory producing slates around 1798 when he opened his first school (Salmon 1932 p.4). The slate factory made slates for his pupils to use and sell to other schools.

In the school the first winter was extremely cold and pupil numbers reduced to only thirty. Many of the pupils could not come as they were hungry and/or lacked sufficient clothing to come from their homes. Their parents were very poor and were unable to provide sufficient food and clothing for their children (Salmon 1803 p.3) For pupils unable to pay the modest school fees Joseph Lancaster provided them with free lunches (Lancaster 1803 p.15).

Joseph Lancaster felt that he must do something to help his pupils (Lancaster 1803 p.8). He decided to provide hot meals for his pupils and extra clothing for some of the pupils.

Obviously extra finances were required to feed and clothe some of his pupils. So Joseph Lancaster trawled the local area seeking to receive money from local Quakers. Luckily Joseph Lancaster received good financial support as several eminent people wished to improve the lot of poor children. Then having sufficient money he went to the local market to buy provisions in order to feed the pupils (Lancaster 1833 p.7). Unfortunately the following winter was equally bad but this time Joseph Lancaster was much better prepared. He even advertised the fact that he provided hot food for the pupils for four days each week for three months during the winter (Dickson 1986 p.30).

Joseph Lancaster was very keen for his pupils to read and sample the books available to them. When he started his school in 1798 there were few cheap books available to the children of the working class. Books written by Mrs Sarah Trimmer were for the most part flimsy and would not last long. Hence Joseph Lancaster decided to produce reading cards at minimal cost instead

for routine teaching. In addition he did produce a library of some three hundred volumes, which he envisaged that the books could be circulated free of charge to pupils who could read. In so doing it was hoped that the pupils would acquire a love of reading.

In the autumn of 1799 Joseph Lancaster moved his school yet again. At this time Joseph Lancaster moved into a much larger building near Borough Road. The large building came through Anthony Sterry and James Hedger, who were generous business benefactors. The building came to him rent and tax free for nine years and also with a grant of land (Dickson 1986 p.29). On each occasion the new location for his school was near his home.

In November 1799 Joseph Lancaster applied at the Horselydown Monthly Meeting, Southwark for permission to become a Quaker (Salmon 1932 p.3). After a due interval of time to consider his application the Quakers formally accepted him as a member on 13th January 1801.

As a Quaker Joseph Lancaster felt that he had an obligation to have a '*concern*' for the '*sons of the labouring classes*'. He felt that education should be Christian but not sectarian. In particular he felt strongly that every person should have an opportunity to learn to read and write as cheaply as possible.

In June 1801 Joseph Lancaster moved into purpose built accommodation in Belvedere Place, Borough Road (Salmon 1932 p.3). Over the door of the building Joseph Lancaster fixed a board stating:

'All that will, may send their children, and have them educated freely: and those who do not wish to have an education for nothing, may pay it if they please'.

[Corston 1840 p.9]

Mrs Elizabeth Fry, who was a prison reformer and a Quaker, visited Joseph Lancaster at his school on 15th May 1801 (BFSS Annual Report 1928 p.719). Elizabeth Fry was impressed with the work that Joseph Lancaster was doing with the children of the poor (Salmon 1932 p.11). She and other members of the Society of Friends provided funds to Joseph Lancaster.

With these funds Joseph enlarged the classroom in order to make provision for more pupils. This enlargement was made without lowering the quality of the work of the pupils. After the enlarged classroom was fully operational

Joseph Lancaster's school could admit an increasing number of free pupils who could not pay the fee of four pence per week to attend his school (Birchenough 1920 p.45). Joseph Lancaster advertised the school as a free school for the children of the poor (Bartle 1974 p.3).

Four main principles guided Joseph Lancaster in the workings of his school. Religious tolerance was very important to him so he was happy to receive pupils of any denomination or none. He believed that each pupil had essential worth as a human being. It did not matter from which stratum of society the pupil came.

Joseph Lancaster considered it was vitally important that the needs of children were understood if you wanted to teach them. To this end Joseph Lancaster introduced incentives to encourage the pupils to do their best in all situations. For the teachers he was sure that a systematic training was essential. His teaching method was very detailed and reported in writing in pamphlets and books.

Early in the 1800s Joseph Lancaster took a number of his best monitors to live with him in his own house where they were feed, clothed, provided with accommodation and trained to become teachers all free of charge. At this point in time Joseph Lancaster had begun to train them towards being as school teachers. Having these special monitors both at school and in his home, Joseph Lancaster was able to study their habits and behaviour and be able to monitor them closely.

In the evenings the monitors received further instruction from Joseph Lancaster himself. At this point in time Joseph Lancaster had begun to train them towards being as school teachers. In effect Joseph Lancaster had started a very basic form of teacher training. Thus it was the first teacher training college to be established in the United Kingdom albeit very basic. The actual date of its establishment is uncertain but it was likely to be as early as 1803.

Whilst Joseph Lancaster was walking around the local streets of Southwark, he saw many children roaming the streets without any purpose. Many of the children were illiterate and committed crimes such as vandalism. Joseph Lancaster was convinced that education could be used to instil in the young person concepts of thrift, temperance, law, order and respect for property in these children. Above all Joseph Lancaster wanted to give the children the

sense of Christian morals. He was determined to teach children of all religions in his school. An educational system free of sectarian overtones was his aim.

Joseph Lancaster started a small library with a few books of interest to him. The books were intended to improve the morals of the young lads. In 1803 thirty new books were ordered for the library and more books were added on a yearly basis. Pupils could borrow a book if they did well in their studies.

Joseph Lancaster had many ideas advanced of his time. In his book entitled *Improvements in Education* he suggested a number of ideas, which were gradually accepted over the years. He felt strongly that the school teachers needed to be trained and he soon organised a systematic teacher training scheme.

He had concern for both the pupils and their teachers. For the pupils he felt that they should have a pleasant environment for their learning. He thought that the school buildings should be light and airy and the classrooms should have sufficient space to adequately accommodate the number of pupils. Also he had a strong feeling that the pupils needed a playground for recreation time and a place for eating their lunches.

In 1803 Joseph Lancaster spent money on creating a small playground next to the school (Dickson 1986 p.48). He believed that it was important for the pupils to have somewhere they could spend free time and eat food which they had brought with them. The playground provided space where the pupils were kept safe and away from the various smells of the local environment.

Joseph Lancaster was convinced that the schools needed to be regulated and suggested that inspections of them should take place. He felt that the teachers needed a professional body to establish standards and to protect them. In particular he suggested that a pension scheme should be initiated for the salary of teachers was poor in comparison with other professions.

In 1810 Joseph Lancaster conceived the idea of a circulating school library as a means of expanding the range of books for pupils from poor families (Lancaster 1810 p.49-52). A school circulating library was produced, which in its first year possessed three hundred volumes. The books were chosen to improve the morals of the young lads.

The books lent to pupils had to be earned by good conduct and/or academic achievement (Salmon 1932 p.21). Pupils were awarded tickets as rewards and a collection of the tickets would merit the loan of a book from this library. The book could be kept for a maximum of one week only and kept in pristine condition. It was hoped that the pupil's family would read the book assuming that they could read. On return to the school the book was inspected to ensure that the book had been kept in good condition. If not then the family of the pupil had to pay for its replacement.

Joseph Lancaster felt strongly that the reading of the books by the teachers would enhance their teaching standards. For teachers Joseph Lancaster proposed a public library with books on education for the information of teachers since most of the teachers would have insufficient money to purchase such publications which were expensive (Salmon 1932 p.18). These books could be borrowed without charge (Lancaster 1803 p.13). The original library received extra books on an annual basis.

Joseph Lancaster's view on the education of the young people attending his school extended beyond the mere mechanics of their learning. He had concern for their overall character. From the first days of the opening of the school the welfare of the pupils was paramount. Places at his school were free to those who could not pay fees and most of the pupils came from very poor working families. Joseph Lancaster sought to give the pupils an experience which would stand them in good stead for their future.

Joseph Lancaster's original school was a paying school but in 1801 his school in Borough Road, Southwark became free. The term '*free*' could be interpreted in two different ways. In one meaning '*free*' meant the school was happy to receive children of all denominations but it was also used as meaning that children were accepted without any payment for fees. Most of the children could not afford to pay any fees.

Mrs Elizabeth Fry was a Quaker and she supported Joseph Lancaster in his endeavours to educate the poor children around his neighbourhood in Southwark. She gained support from other Quakers who provided monies to support the work of Joseph Lancaster. As a result of the monies donated by his benefactors Joseph Lancaster was able to admit a number of scholars who could not afford the four pence weekly fee to attend the school. As pupil numbers increased the cost of running his school decreased.

Joseph Lancaster took groups of pupils on country walks and on excursions to various suburbs of London when there were holidays (Bartle 1976 p.23). Places visited by his pupils included Wandsworth, Clapham, Sydenham, Norwood, Blackheath and Greenwich, which in the early 1800s were villages around London. In addition excursions were made to Green Park and Kew (Salmon 1932 p.3). The purpose of the excursions was to reward the pupils for working hard in their lessons as well as expanding their life experiences. Most of his pupils had spent their short lives in very squalid conditions. Also parties of pupils were invited to attend Sunday tea with Joseph Lancaster in his home (Corston 1840 p.10).

In addition to the excursions Joseph Lancaster spent a lot of money on a variety of goods as rewards for their attention to learning. Fresh fruit including apples, oranges and cherries and gingerbread were aimed to provide some pupils with a real food treat. A range of toys, which included bats, balls and kites, were also purchased for good performances in the classroom along with purses, silver pens, engraved half crowns, star medals and other tokens (Lancaster 1833 p.7).

The rewarding of students who had done well in their class work or had done other tasks to the benefit of others was given awards such as gold and silver medals. Joseph Lancaster was keen to promote his school and its workings so he sought publicity by means of public presentations, handbills, list of prizes reported in the local newspaper and other means (Lancaster 1833 p.7).

In 1803 Lancaster explained the teaching methods used at his school in a publication entitled *Improvements in Education: as it respects the industrious classes of the community* (Lancaster 1803). In the same year Joseph Lancaster sent a copy of its first edition of the '*Improvements*' to Mrs Sarah Trimmer.

In Part II of his '*Improvements*' Joseph Lancaster put forward a number of new ideas which would support the teacher. One of these ideas was to found a friendly society and its funds amassed by the addition of public donations. His idea was that the monies could be used to help teachers who were sick, assist with the cost of funerals and provide monetary support for teachers in their old age. Another idea was to purchase Bibles, slates, writing books and

other books at wholesale prices and sell them without profit to teachers (Salmon 1932 p.18).

Joseph Lancaster had many ideas advanced of his time. In his book entitled *Improvements in Education* he suggested a number of ideas, which were gradually accepted over the years. He felt strongly that the school teachers needed to be trained and he soon organised a systematic teacher training scheme.

He was convinced that the schools needed to be regulated and suggested that inspections of them should take place. He felt that the teachers needed a professional body to establish standards and to protect them. In particular he suggested that a pension scheme should be initiated for the salary of teachers was poor in comparison with other professions.

Lancaster's fame quickly spread and by 1803 the school was receiving visitors from the United Kingdom and abroad. His visitors included '*foreign princes, ambassadors, peers, commoners, ladies of distinction, bishops, Jews and Turks*' (Corston 1840 p.17). In addition Joseph Lancaster started receiving money donations from a number of eminent known and influential people including the Duke of Bedford, Duke of Sussex and Lord Somerville. For many of the visitors there was great interest and curiosity in his method of providing basic education to so many children cheaply. Unfortunately Joseph Lancaster was extravagant and spent more money than he received from donations for running his school.

Starting in 1803 Joseph Lancaster spent a lot of time travelling to promote his monitorial school system around England and later Ireland. Whilst travelling around the country he left the school in the hands of the monitors that he had trained.

In 1803 Lancaster explained the teaching methods used at his school in a publication entitled *Improvements in Education: as it respects the industrious classes of the community*' (Lancaster 1803)

In 1803 Joseph Lancaster was positively thinking of opening a school for girls (Lancaster M and Lancaster S 1803). In the following year Joseph Lancaster enlarged his school in Borough Road so that he could have a school for girls alongside the boys' school in Borough Road. The girls'

school, which was opened in 1805, was placed under the head of his sister Mary Lancaster (Lancaster 1810 p. 55). In addition to teaching the girls to read, write and do simple arithmetic. Needlework was an important feature of the curriculum of the girls.

'Mary Lancaster, sister of the author of the British system of education, superintends the institution for training schoolmistresses in a knowledge of the plan'.

[Lancaster M and Lancaster S 1812]

In 1804 Thomas Eddy, a Quaker based in New York, was very keen to promote the education of poor children Thomas Eddy had become aware of Joseph Lancaster's work in England through a friend by the name of Patrick Colquhoun. who was a police magistrate based in London. He was impressed with Joseph Lancaster's account of his school in Southwark and Thomas Eddy sought to provide more schooling for New York. In June of that year Thomas Eady wrote to Joseph Lancaster telling him that he had read the pamphlet entitled *'Improvements in Education'* by his friend Patrick Colquhoun.

A copy of his pamphlet was sent to Thomas Eddy by Joseph Lancaster. Thomas Eddy informed Joseph Lancaster he had printed one thousand copies and distributed them in New York and Philadelphia. Hence by this time Joseph Lancaster's fame was spreading across the United States of America.

In 1804 Joseph Lancaster married a young Quaker called Elizabeth Bonnet. Unfortunately his wife was soon in poor health (Lancaster 1904 p.27). Hence Joseph Lancaster took his wife with him on his travels thinking that the air outside London would help his wife's health and at the same time he could escape from his mounting debts (Wall 1966). He had been spending more money than he obtained from his affluent friends for his school, many of whom were Quakers.

In December 1804 Joseph Lancaster visited the Revd Dr Andrew Bell at his Rectory in Swanage. According to Andrew Bell, Joseph Lancaster questioned him about his method of teaching (Southey 1844 Vol.2 p.127). At their meeting the men exchanged notes on their own systems and the two men ended the visit in good spirits. Both of them had devised a method of teaching large groups of young children with minimum staffing and

expenditure, although they differed in their religious view point. Joseph Lancaster was a Quaker and Revd Dr Andrew Bell was a minister of the Established Church.

Joseph Lancaster's daughter was born on 8th September 1805. She was named Elizabeth after her mother but commonly known as Betsy. She was an only child. Her mother was a woman whose health declined rapidly after the birth of her daughter. Later she was pronounced insane and she was kept in private under the care of various Quaker friends (Lancaster 1833 p.9).

In 1805 Joseph Lancaster formally established two colleges for his trainee teachers one situated in Borough Road, Southwark and the other in Maiden Bradley, Somerset. Unfortunately the college in Maiden Bradley had a short existence due to the debts accumulated by Joseph Lancaster (Salmon 1932 p.5).

On one of Joseph Lancaster's travels around the country he visited Robert Raikes in Gloucester. Both men had sort to educate and support the poor children in their local neighbourhood. At their meeting Robert Raikes suggested that he should make a charge for his lecturing services (Lancaster 1833 p.10). Joseph Lancaster thought the idea of charging was a very good one.

In 1805 Thomas Eddy founded the New York Free School Society with the purpose of providing schooling for the churchless poor. The Honourable de Witt Clinton was the President of the New York Free School Society and its Secretary was Benjamin Perkins. The Honourable de Witt Clinton opened the New York Free School (Lancaster 1833 p.10). Benjamin Perkins went to England and paid a visit to the Borough Road institution.

Joseph Lancaster read the pamphlet produced by Revd Dr Andrew Bell on his Madras method of teaching large groups of pupils soon after he had devised his own method of teaching large groups of pupils (Bell 1798). In the first edition of his book entitled '*Improvements in Education as it Respects the Industrious Classes of the Community*' Joseph Lancaster admitted his debt to Andrew Bell for a copy of his pamphlet entitled '*An Experiment in Education*'. Both of these people had come to the '*monitorial method*' independent of each other. Joseph Lancaster acknowledged Andrew Bell's method of teaching in a pamphlet which he published in 1803.

In April 1805 Andrew Bell came to London bearing fifty copies of his revised Madras Report which had grown much larger than the original version published in 1797. Whilst in London Andrew Bell came to see Joseph Lancaster's school in operation on one of its open afternoons. Andrew Bell brought four copies of his revised Madras report and he stated that he would take four copies of new edition of Joseph Lancaster's *Improvements* when they were published.

In Joseph Lancaster's third edition of his *Improvements* he gave details of subscribers to the work of his school which included three dukes, three duchesses, four marquises, nine earls, twelve countesses, two viscounts, fourteen lords, twenty-three ladies, fifteen sirs, thirty-six members of parliament, two archbishops, nine bishops as well as one prince, a baron, an ambassador and a general from aboard (Salmon 1932 p.3). All of these people had heard about his work and had been inspired to contribute to his school for poor children.

William Allen sent a letter to Lady Harcourt regarding the activities of Joseph Lancaster (Corston 1840 p.15). Also Lord Somerville sent a letter of to Sir General William Harcourt regarding Joseph Lancaster. Later at a dinner with William Harcourt in his home near Windsor Joseph Lancaster expressed a wish to see the King. William Harcourt took Joseph Lancaster to the Castle Yard in Windsor to watch the King mount his horse that he would exercise. At the time Joseph Lancaster was standing between William Harcourt and Charles Villiers. The King asked who the man was standing between these two men. The King acknowledged Joseph Lancaster's presence and had a few words with him concerning his school (Dunn 1848 p.11).

After his visit to Windsor in order to see King George 111, he told his parents of this visit. Later Joseph Lancaster went to relate his conversation with the King to his mentor and friend Thomas Urwick in Clapham.

In August 1805 King George 111 and his family went to spend time at the seaside in Weymouth. The King asked Joseph Lancaster to visit him in Weymouth as he had heard incredible stories about the school. At the meeting between the King and Joseph Lancaster Queen Charlotte and his five daughters were in attendance. Everyone present at the meeting had an interest in the school. Joseph Lancaster presented the King with a copy of

the new edition of the *Improvements* and also gave an oral account of his system. When he had finished, the King said:

'I highly approve of your system and it is my wish that every poor child in my dominions should be taught to read the Bible; I will do anything you wish to promote this object'

[Salmon 1932 p.4]

The king congratulated Joseph Lancaster on his ability to provide education for the poor of his kingdom. He gave Joseph Lancaster a sum of one hundred pounds as an annual subscription for the school and he persuaded other members of the royal family to make annual subscriptions to this work of the Joseph Lancaster's school (Salmon 1932 p.4).

After the king had given the money to Joseph Lancaster's school, other people including Anglican clergy and bishops also donated money. The following year the school was granted a Royal Charter by the Privy Council and the school was renamed the Royal Free School.

In the school the infant pupils learnt to write in a sand bath before they progressed to the use of slates for writing. In 1805 Joseph Lancaster was utilising slates for the pupils who could write. The slates were economic since they could be used on many occasions rather than using paper. Instead of utilising books reading sheets were posted on boards. These reading sheets cut the cost of buying many books for the pupils.

'I hope to see the day when slates and slate-pencils will be more resorted to those they have heretofore been, and thus afford to every poor child a cheap and ready medium of instruction in spelling, writing and arithmetic'

[Lancaster 1805 p.54]

In 1805 Lancaster began to carry out:

'a plan for training lads as school masters, by a practical knowledge of these improved modes of tuition, to be obtained in my institution, and under my own eye'

[Lancaster 1808 p.11]

Early on some of his trained monitors took the Lancasterian methods of teaching to other parts of Great Britain and other countries. North America

was one of the first parts of the world to receive Joseph Lancaster and a few of his monitors from 1806 onwards.

Towards the end of 1806 Joseph Lancaster returned to Southwark in great debt. In the spring of 1807 Joseph Lancaster was arrested and spent three months in the King's Bench debtors' prison, which was located near his new school in Borough Road (Salmon 1904 p.64). He was released under the security of the prison bailiff without paying his debts (Corston 1840 p.36).

William Allen was a wealthy manufacturing chemist who lectured at Guy's Hospital in London. He was a philanthropist and a Quaker who sought to improve the lives of people. He had a number of friends who were influential in high places including the Duke of Kent.

In 1808 William Allen visited the Joseph Lancaster's school and was delighted with the way in which Lancaster had provided schooling for the children of the poor.

After his visit he made the following statement:

'I can never forget the impression the scene made upon me. Here I beheld a thousand children collected from the streets, where they learned nothing but mischief....all reduced to the most perfect order, and training to habits of subordination and usefulness, and learning the great truths of the Gospel'.
[Sherman 1851 p.52]

Subsequently William Allen became an ardent supporter of Lancaster's work.

In 1808 Joseph Lancaster, Joseph Fox and William Corston resolved *'to constitute themselves a Society for the purpose of affording education, procuring employment and, as far as possible, to furnish clothing to the children of the poorer subjects of King George III, and also to diffuse the providential discovery of the disease; and also, by furnishing objects for the exercise of industry, to render life useful'.*
[Salmon 1904 p.45]

Later in the same year William Allen, a scientist and philanthropist, joined this committee of the Society. He brought business skills which he started to exercise to the benefit of the Society.

In June 1808 the Borough Road School complex was in danger of closure because the complex was operating with a great deal of debts. Two men namely William Corston and Joseph Fox came to retrieve the situation on behalf of Joseph Lancaster. These two men formed themselves into a committee. Shortly they were joined by William Allen, who acted as treasurer for the Borough Road establishments. Later Joseph Foster, Antony Sterry and George Sturge joined this group of men (Salmon 1904 p.11). Immediately these men set about three tasks, namely:

1. rescue Joseph Lancaster from his debt, which amounted to more than five thousand pounds;
2. undertake to supervise the administration of his Borough Road School complex;
3. draft a plan to put the finances on a business-like footing.

As a result of implementation of this plan, Joseph Lancaster was free to further his great interest in spreading the knowledge of his monitorial system throughout the United Kingdom.

Alas Joseph Lancaster was not a good manager of money and soon he got into debt again. James Fox (Quaker), William Allen (Quaker) and William Corston formed a small committee in order to deal with his financial problems and take over the running of the school in 1808. This action enabled Joseph Lancaster free to lecture on his '*British*' system of education. The Committee sought to reduce Joseph Lancaster's finances. The Committee became known as the Royal Lancastrian Institution and sought to get the school's finances into good order.

When William Allen became aware of the financial problems which surrounded Joseph Lancaster, he canvassed Quaker friends for funds to support the Borough Road School and its hostel for monitors. In addition he became a member of a committee including Joseph Fox and John Jackson MP in order to deal with the financial shortfall in Lancaster's funds. He assumed the position of treasurer and immediately sought to deal with the finances.

William Allen took a pro-active view in attempting to reduce and close Joseph Lancaster's debt. He sought to raise subscriptions from Quaker friends in order to put the affairs on a sound financial footing. He was clear

that economies needed to be made. It was essential to increase the income and diminish the expenditure of Joseph Lancaster.

In addition the number of monitors and servants maintained by Joseph Lancaster in the Borough Road complex was required to be reduced. Further the monitorial schools established by Joseph Lancaster in various parts of the country were told that Joseph Lancaster's funds were no longer able to support the payment of their monitors and servants who hitherto had received funding from Joseph Lancaster. Hence the survival of their monitorial schools had to depend on locally raised funds. The Committee also agreed to close the slate factory and the printing office to cut expenses (Salmon 1932 p.4). Further the other monitorial schools established by Joseph Lancaster were told that they must raise their own funds.

With these reductions in expenditure the Committee hoped to clear all the debts. However at the same time there was an increasing demand for more teachers who had trained at Joseph Lancaster's school in Southwark.

Finally in 1808 Joseph Lancaster returned to London when he was in grave financial difficulties and he was declared bankrupt. He was arrested for debt and spent several months in prison. However William Allen, Joseph Sturge and William Foster produced the finances to get his release from prison.

However the Committee appreciated the work that Joseph Lancaster had done to promote the monitorial school in many parts of the British Isles and other countries across the world. For this reason the Committee endeavoured to continue to involve Joseph Lancaster with the Borough Road Institutions by proposing to offer him the position of superintendent at a fixed salary.

In 1810 a public meeting was held with a view to gaining more publicity and attract more subscribers to the work of Joseph Lancaster for the Borough Road Schools. At the end of this meeting the Committee felt that its membership should be expanded to look after The Institution for Promoting the Education of the Labouring and Manufacturing Classes of Society of Every Religious Persuasion.

President Simon Bolivar of Venezuela came to the Borough Road School in Southwark for a visit in the year 1810. He was impressed with what he saw and agreed to send two young people to learn the monitorial system. They

were to return to Venezuela in order to establish monitorial schools in that country (Salmon 1904 p.66).

In 1811 an address by the Committee for Promoting the Royal Lancasterian Institution for the Poor was given in full in the report of the Finance Committee and Trustees of the Committee for the Royal Lancasterian Institution for the Education of the Poor for the year 1811. The full report was published in 1812.

The enlarged Committee membership included William Wilberforce MP, James Mill, Henry Brougham and Samuel Whitbread MP. These people did much to advance the education of the children of the poor in the years to come. This Committee soon became known as The Royal Lancasterian Society. The enlarged Committee felt that it was necessary for a formal constitution to be produced and also a set of rules and regulations for the institution, which was to be called the Lancasterian Institution for Promoting the Education of the Labouring and Manufacturing Classes of Society of Every Religious Persuasion (Appendix 2).

Alas Joseph Lancaster used money given for the Borough Road institutions (a school and hostel for training monitors) for his own use. All the members of the Committee felt that the progress of the work in Borough Road could be endangered if Joseph Lancaster remained actively involved in the running of the Borough Road institutions. Hence negotiations started between the Committee and Joseph Lancaster in order to retrieve the situation. In exchange for handing over the control of the Borough Road Institutions Joseph Lancaster would be absolved of the outstanding debts.

Just after the negotiations had been agreed, Joseph Lancaster asked some of his apprentice school masters at Borough Road to join his new venture in Tooting which was a boarding school for boys of middle class parents (Salmon 1932 p.49). In fact Frances Place sent his son to this school. Joseph Lancaster did not refer the new venture to the Committee of the Royal Lancasterian Institution.

However this Tooting venture of Joseph Lancaster failed and incurred large debts. Soon Joseph Fox and William Allen were aware that Joseph Lancaster had incurred these very large debts As a result the members of the Committee felt that Joseph Lancaster had put the future work of the Borough Road institutions in jeopardy.

However the Committee appreciated the work that he had done to promote the monitorial school in many parts of the British Isles and other countries across the world. For this reason the Committee endeavoured to continue to involve Joseph Lancaster with the Borough Road Institutions by offering him the position of superintendent at a fixed salary. However he was warned about his conduct and he was told that the Committee would not bail him out of any future debts.

After long discussions it was decided to request Joseph Lancaster to formally pass the Borough Road institutions to the Committee in exchange for absolving him from his remaining debts. Joseph Lancaster was finally offered the position of superintendent of the Borough Road institutions for which he was given a fixed salary. Very reluctantly Joseph Lancaster accepted the terms as he needed to have an income but he was very upset with the way in which he had been treated.

In 1813 there was a meeting chaired by the Duke of Kent at which Joseph Lancaster and the leading members of the committee were present. At this meeting draft rules and regulations for the Royal Lancasterian Society were prepared.

In the same year Joseph Lancaster was formally offered the post of superintendent of the Borough Road institutions which included schools for boys and girls and a training hostel for apprentice school masters and mistresses. His role was changed from promoter of the society to the role of superintendent on a fixed salary of £365 annually (Salmon 1932 p.18). This demotion took place as Lancaster displayed a complete lack of business acumen and other activities which caused the committee of the Royal Lancasterian Society serious concerns.

Very reluctantly Joseph Lancaster accepted the terms as he needed to have an income. However he was very vocal in his criticisms of the way in which he had been treated.

The Duke of Kent warned Joseph Lancaster that *'if he persisted in the conduct he had lately pursued, they were determine to maintain the cause'* [Salmon 1904 p.58]

In 1812 discussions between the committee and Joseph Lancaster took place to ensure that the Borough Road institutions were handed to the committee in return for clearing Joseph Lancaster of his remaining debts. The transfer of the Borough Road complex was transferred to the Committee.

The Committee appreciated the work that Joseph Lancaster had done to promote the monitorial school in many parts of the British Isles and other countries across the world. For this reason the Committee endeavoured to continue to have Joseph Lancaster involved with the Borough Road Institutions by offering him the position of superintendent of the Borough Road Institutions at a fixed salary. Very reluctantly Joseph Lancaster accepted the terms as he had to have an income so that he could support his wife and daughter.

The role of superintendent did not exist for long as a scandal involving Joseph Lancaster had to be investigated by a group of three persons from the Committee. If the scandal was proven then Joseph Lancaster would have to accept the action of the Committee. According to a biography by Francis Place, a young lad by name William Brown, informed William Corston, a member of the Committee, that he was flogged by Joseph Lancaster for his own amusement (Bartle 1976 p.7). William Brown wrote a letter to the Committee outlining the behaviour of Joseph Lancaster to himself and other boys. Such an action was not acceptable to any Quaker since these people did not agree to corporal punishment under any circumstances.

Joseph Lancaster appealed to the Duke of Kent about his treatment. The Duke of Kent asked Joseph Hume to prepare a report into the incident. He prepared and presented his report on 13th August 1813 at a meeting held at Kensington Palace. Little discussion took place.

Joseph Lancaster was shown William Brown's letter of complaint and he was told that he needed to explain the contents of the letter. Joseph Lancaster was told that a meeting of a sub-committee would investigate the matter and recall him after the investigation was completed. The allegation made by William Brown was to be heard by a sub-committee comprising Francis Place and two non-conformist ministers.

At the next School committee meeting held on 16th April 1814 Joseph Lancaster sent his resignation as superintendent of the Borough Road Schools along with a letter listing his reasons for taking this action via Joseph Fox. He resigned rather than face the Committee. In his letter he made no mention of flogging or that he was proposing to open another school in the area. After Joseph Lancaster's misconduct had been proved William Allen was instrumental in removing him from the society.

Shortly after Joseph Lancaster's resignation, the Committee decided to rename the Lancasterian Institution. The Committee wanted to keep the word '*foreign*' in the title of the Society in order to maintain the links established across the world by Joseph Lancaster and his trained monitors as many members of the committee had great interests in developing overseas work. In 1814 the Society was renamed the British and Foreign School Society.

In fact Joseph Lancaster had advertised his new venture by printing broadsheets and distributing them around the streets of Southwark. However this new school venture soon became a disaster as Joseph Lancaster appointed Benedict Cross (another ex-pupil) to look after the new institution. Alas this person was found not to be trustworthy.

In 1816 Lancaster argued with the trustees of The British and Foreign Schools Society and he left the organisation. Although no longer involved with the institutions that he had founded, Joseph Lancaster continued to give lectures on his monitorial system at various locations around the country. Alas Joseph Lancaster could not manage money and he found himself in poverty again. Finally he was declared bankrupt and spent some time in King's Bench prison. William Allen, Joseph Sturge and William Foster produced the finances to get his release from prison.

Unfortunately the Napoleonic Wars delayed the establishment of the monitorial schools across Europe. With the Treaty of Paris in 1814 the philanthropists started to change educational ideas and most countries in Europe had Lancasterian schools in the early decades of 1800s.

After the end of the Napoleonic Wars, many visitors came to see the Borough Road School. Visitors of the aristocracy to the school included the Duke of Bedford, Lord Somerville and the Duke of Sussex. In addition an

increasing number of overseas visitors came to see the school in operation. Some of these visitors included ex-monitors who had trained at Borough Road College and had gone abroad to spread the Lancasterian system.

The disagreements with the Committee are recorded in Lancaster's *'Oppression and Persecution: or a narrative of a variety of singular facts that have occurred in the rise, progress and promulgation of the Royal Lancastrian system of education'*, which was published in 1816. In this publication Joseph Lancaster vented his feelings against the Committee of the British and Foreign School Society.

1816 Joseph Lancaster published a manual, which described in minute detail the organisation and administration of a Lancasterian school as well as hints for the formation and management of associated school societies (Lancaster 1994 reproduction of 1816 version).

In 1816 John Robinson and his wife and children left England for a new life in the United States of America. For some years before emigrating John Robinson had followed Joseph Lancaster's career with interest.

Later William Allen and some friends raised sufficient funds for Joseph Lancaster to go to the United States of America where he was welcomed. Joseph Lancaster arrived in the United States of America with a reputation. The Lancasterian System was well known along the east coast of the United States of America. Unfortunately there were established Quaker links between England and the United States of America. Hence Joseph Lancaster's disownment by the Quakers was already known. However he was kindly received in the United States of America.

Soon after arrival Joseph Lancaster set about forming Lancasterian schools in New York and Philadelphia (Lancaster 1833 p.10). In the same year Joseph Lancaster started his first model school in Philadelphia to train teachers in order to implement his system (Ellis 1907 p.43).

Initially Joseph Lancaster found the United States of America happy to receive his ideas on educating the children of the poor. Unfortunately his wife became very poorly and died in Baltimore in December 1820 before he started touring again. Later he visited other countries in order to promote his educational ideas. These countries included Chile (1821), Mexico (1822) and other countries in South America during the 1820s. From 1822 Joseph

Lancaster was often ill with a series of illnesses including fever, boils, rheumatism and eyesight problems.

In 1824 Joseph Lancaster was taken ill again and he felt that a move to warmer climes would be helpful. He thought of moving to the south of France but he happened to meet an aide to President Simon Bolivar. The aide reported his conversation with Joseph Lancaster to President Bolivar who invited him to Venezuela. The President had visited Lancaster's monitorial school in Southwark and was greatly impressed with the education of the pupils in the school.

In 1825 John Robinson died and his wife Mary was left with two sons and a daughter to rear on her own. She needed to earn money in order to remain solvent. Alas her efforts were not very productive and she wrote to Joseph Lancaster as a kind friend, who might help her solve her financial problems. After some time Joseph Lancaster offered to marry her. Mary Robinson took some months to consider his proposal before agreeing to become his wife.

Whilst in Venezuela Joseph Lancaster married Mary Robinson with President Simon Bolivar presiding over his wedding, which took place on 23rd February 1827 (Dickson 1986 p. 252). At the time of their marriage the situation in Venezuela was unstable and it became necessary for the Lancaster family to move to another country. The destination was to be Canada in 1827.

Following a dispute with the President over money, Joseph Lancaster and his second wife returned to the Americas. By this time his daughter Betsy had got married to one of her father's early monitors by name Richard Jones. Both of them had trained as teachers and they moved to Mexico to continue the advance of the monitorial schools in the Americas (Salmon 1904 p.60).

In 1838 Joseph Lancaster was knocked down and badly hurt in an accident involving a horse-drawn vehicle on a New York street and died several days after the accident.

At the time of Joseph Lancaster's death there was a strong demand for teachers trained by his system both across the United Kingdom and overseas. Monitors trained at the Borough Road School in Southwark were responsible for establishing many of the monitorial schools using the Lancasterian method of teaching, which was cheap and efficient.

Development of Joseph Lancaster's School and Teacher Training College

Joseph Lancaster realised that he could teach children from an early age. He was fortunate that he was sent to school in order to receive some education. He became an avid reader of any text which came into his hands. He lived in an area where many young children roamed the streets and often they had nothing to do. The children got into mischief as they did not have anything purposeful to occupy them. Joseph Lancaster had a social conscience which led him to think about teaching. By the time he opened his first school Joseph Lancaster had already had some school teaching experience. The principles for Joseph Lancaster's school were four in number. First and foremost religious tolerance would be practised so that pupils of any denomination or none would be accepted to the school. Secondly each pupil was a human being and had worth regardless of what stratum of society the pupil came. Thirdly Joseph Lancaster felt strongly that there was a need to understand children if you wanted to teach them. Hence he gave incentives to encourage his pupils to learn.

Finally for his teachers Joseph Lancaster was convinced that systematic training was required. Originally he selected able pupils to become monitors who could progress in time to teachers in his monitorial schools.
[Hamilton 1958 p.4]

Joseph Lancaster put his thoughts on educating children were first articulated in print in 1800. His publication was entitled *An Account of the Progress of Joseph Lancaster's Plan for the Education of Poor Children, and the Training of Masters for Country Schools*. This publication was printed by Joseph Lancaster at his school in Borough Road, Southwark. In this publication Joseph Lancaster stated:

'a plan should be established for training young men and lads as schoolmasters, that by a practical knowledge of the improved modes of tuition they might be qualified to superintend schools to be formed in various parts of the kingdom upon the same plan'.

[Lancaster 1800 p.2]

In 1800 Joseph Lancaster read Andrew Bell's book on his system of teaching which followed very similar lines to his own ideas (Adamson 1930 p.24). The actual date for the formation of the teaching institution is

unknown but it is clear that Joseph Lancaster was seriously thinking about its formation before his publication in 1800.

Joseph Lancaster relied on subscriptions and donations to support his school. Unfortunately the donations were insufficient to pay for assistant teachers so Lancaster devised a system whereby he taught several pupils, who in turn would teach other younger pupils.

These pupils turned teachers were called monitors and the system was called the Lancasterian monitorial system, in which one master could teach very large numbers of pupils. A superintendent was responsible for the conduct of all the monitors in the schools. In effect Lancaster had instigated a system known today as peer tutoring.

In the early days of the training institution the male trainee teachers took three months to learn *'the system'*. The pupil teacher spent a week or more in each of the classes from lowest to highest. Their training consisted in spending a week or more in each of classes in the school, starting with the lowest and finishing with the highest. Towards the end of the three months the pupil teacher would spend a few days in taking charge of one section of the school and finally would conduct the collective drill. Having had these three months of training the monitor turned teacher would go forth to teach in one of Joseph Lancaster's schools or start a new school. In 1803 Joseph Lancaster had girls in his school (Binns 1908 p.299)

In Lancaster's system the older pupils taught younger pupils. In the early days the older pupils, who were known as monitors, were taught by Lancaster himself. The role of the monitor was pivotal in the operation of Lancaster's system. The precise functions of the monitor are apparent from the following extract taken from David Salmon's book entitled *'Joseph Lancaster'* which was written for the British and Foreign School Society.

'when a child was admitted, a monitor assigned him to a class; while he remained, a monitor taught him (with nine other pupils); when he was absent, one monitor ascertained the fact and another found out the reason; a monitor examined him periodically, and when he had made progress, a monitor promoted him, a monitor ruled the writing paper; a monitor made or mended the pens ; a monitor had the charge of the slate and books; and a monitor general looked after all the other monitors'.

[Salmon 1904 p.7]

In 1804 Joseph Lancaster wrote a letter to Andrew Bell in Swanage:

'In 1798 I began a day school. The methods I produced soon became popular and people send their children to me in crowds. This plunged me into a dilemma. The common modes of tuition did not apply. From your publication I have adopted several useful hints'.

[Lancaster 1803]

In his letter to Andrew Bell Joseph Lancaster described the system of teaching that he had developed as a result of his dilemma. In addition he sought information on whether the sand used by Andrew Bell's pupils was wet or dry and the method by which the letters of the alphabet were taught to the pupils.

Andrew Bell replied cordially to Joseph Lancaster's letter. Further written communications took place between the two men including copies of their publications. In December 1804 Joseph Lancaster went to visit Revd Andrew Bell at his rectory in Swanage. Unfortunately this relationship was to be severely strained by the intervention of Sarah Trimmer in 1805. Support for Joseph Lancaster started to wane when Mrs Trimmer began to attack him in 1805.

In Joseph Lancaster's school the infant pupils learnt to write in a sand bath before they progressed to the use of slates for writing. In 1805 Joseph Lancaster was utilising slates for the pupils who could write. The slates were economic since they could be used on many occasions rather than using paper. Instead of utilising books reading sheets were posted on boards. These reading sheets cut the cost of buying many books for the pupils.

'I hope to see the day when slates and slate-pencils will be more resorted to those they have heretofore been, and thus afford to every poor child a cheap and ready medium of instruction in spelling, writing and arithmetic'.

[Lancaster 1805 p.54]

In 1805 Lancaster began to carry out:

'a plan for training lads as school masters, by a practical knowledge of these improved modes of tuition, to be obtained in my institution, and under my own eye'.

[Lancaster 1808 p.11]

Around the year 1805 Joseph Lancaster devised a plan for the training of young men and boys as school teachers. Details of the plan were described in his own publication entitled *'Improvements in Education, containing a complete epitome, of the system of education', invented and practiced by the author.*

The Model School in Borough Road received many visitors. Some were ex-monitors who returned on holiday from within the United Kingdom and also countries across the world. In addition some of the visitors came from the upper classes in order to see the working of the school at first hand. Even George III paid a visit to Joseph Lancaster's school in Southwark, where he was very impressed with what he saw. George III told Joseph Lancaster:

'It is my wish that every poor child in my dominions is taught to read the Holy Scriptures'.

These words were displayed in large gold letters in the schoolroom at Borough Road. A little while after the visit of George III to the school in Borough Road it received a Royal Charter in 1806.

A couple of years later Joseph Lancaster inaugurated the Teacher's Certificate which would be awarded to students who successfully completed the training to become a teacher. In the preface to the 1808 edition of his book entitled *Improvements in Education* Lancaster stated:

"As to the practical knowledge of this plan the public are desired to consider no person practically qualified to teach it, who have not a certificate from J. Lancaster of their having been under his care. This will prevent the intrusion of imposters whose lame attempts only discredit the plan in the eyes of such as have seen the original, or duly investigated its merits'.

[Lancaster 1808 abridged edition p. vi – vii]

Joseph Lancaster built a hostel alongside his school in Borough Road, Southwark in order to provide accommodation for his students. By so doing Joseph Lancaster established the first training college in the United Kingdom and the British Empire. Furthermore it was the first residential teacher training college to be formed.

Although the method of teaching employed a very mechanical rote-learning one, the monitorial method did draw attention to the fact that elementary education should be available to all children and free at point of delivery.

In Lancaster's era field work constituted an essential element of the teaching of geography. Even in the early days of Lancaster's monitorial schools the pupils were taken on local trips in order to broaden their education and learning.

During the early years of the nineteenth century there was considerable expansion of knowledge of the world and reports from travellers who had visited countries far from the British Isles were communicated to many people. Indeed Joseph Lancaster travelled far and wide, within the British Isles and overseas, promoting the Lancastrian system of educating young people. Pollard in his book entitled '*Pioneers of Popular Education*' commented that the monitorial system gained publicity on the continent (Pollard 1956 p. 103).

The influences of the visitors greatly assisted the teaching of geography from the initiation of the monitorial school in Borough Road and its curriculum. The subject was an integral part of the curriculum throughout the life of the training of teachers at Borough Road College.

The planning of the training was extremely well thought with all aspects of the running of a school considered and written down. His teaching method made extensive use of monitors who taught other pupils. However the monitors themselves needed to be trained. This task was accomplished by appointing superintendents who had to master all aspects of the Lancaster system. The curriculum covered English grammar, arithmetic, history, geography, handwriting and a number of other branches of knowledge

Although the earliest training courses were for men only, women started to be trained just a few years later. Ann Springman had been the monitor - general in Joseph Lancaster's school in 1806. She then became mistress of

monitorial schools in Birmingham and Chichester before returning to take charge of the Borough Road Girls' School. Hence it is possible that she started training women teachers before 1812 when she was appointed head of the girls' school. The women's school moved to the King's Road in Chelsea in 1812. This school continued in Borough Road until 1861 when it became a separate college and moved to Stockwell in south London where it became known as Stockwell College of Education. At this point in time Ann Springman (married name Mrs Macrae) retired.

Lancaster produced a monitorial or mutual system of teaching. Professor J. W. Adamson commented;

'It made the provision of popular instruction on a national scale feasible, it compensated to a certain degree for the absence of a body of teachers, provided a rough scheme of teachers' training and prepared the way for the pupil-teacher system'.

[Adamson 1930 p.25]

Although the method of teaching employed a very mechanical rote-learning one, the monitorial method did draw attention to the fact that elementary education should be available to all and free at the point of delivery.

In 1814 the British and Foreign School Society established a sub-committee to examine the training of the apprentice schoolmasters which had been receiving some criticisms. John Mill and Joseph Hume were members of this sub-committee. The committee members had received comments that there was a general ignorance of the young men attending the Borough Road Normal School. The Society put the blame for the criticisms on the extent to which the youths had been despatched to form and start schools without the necessary knowledge. The Committee felt that something needed to be done in order to rectify this situation. If the young boys left the Borough Road Normal School without better knowledge they would jeopardise the reputation of the British and Foreign School Society (Quoted in Binns 1908 p.79). It was ascertained that changes were needed in the curriculum delivered to the youths.

'no attempt has been made to teach the youths anything beyond the regular routine of school training for children in generalthe greater part of the time, which might have been employed to increase their knowledge and

improve their minds, have been lost, and habits of idleness rather encouraged’.

[Binns 1908 p.79]

The Sub-Committee accepted that many of the young people had been sent to form and conduct schools without sufficient knowledge. As a result it was concluded that the young teachers brought discredit on the Institution. Hence the Sub-Committee took action and recommended that in the future the course should include:

‘Firstly, a knowledge of English grammar sufficient to qualify them to speak and write their own language with correctness and propriety; secondly, the improvement of their handwriting and knowledge of arithmetic; thirdly, geography and history, and in addition, when time and other circumstances will permitother useful branches of knowledge’.

[Binns 1908 p.79]

The Society agreed to the recommendations of the Sub-Committee. For many years into the future English grammar, arithmetic, history, geography, and handwriting composed the core of the course around which other useful branches of knowledge were included.

Further the sub-committee proposed to the Society that an experienced tutor should be appointed to teach the students English grammar, handwriting, arithmetic, geography and history employed in order to increase the knowledge and the minds of the prospective teachers (Binns 1908 p.79).

The British and Foreign School Society accepted the suggestion and a permanent committee were established with a remit for the person to supervise the training of the students. The first person to hold this post was John Daniel, who himself had trained at the Borough Road Normal School.

Some years later John Daniel went to establish monitorial schools in Haiti. The influences of the visitors greatly assisted the teaching of geography from the initiation of the monitorial school in Borough Road and its curriculum. The subject was an integral part of the curriculum throughout the life of training of their teachers.

In 1816 Joseph Lancaster published a manual, which described in minute detail the organisation and administration of a Lancastrian school as well as

hints for the formation and management of associated school societies (Lancaster 1994 reproduction of 1816 version).

The text was divided into four sections. The first section dealt with the general arrangement of the school including the furniture and the aids in each class room and the second part considered the division of the school into ten different classes. The third section discussed discipline within the school. In particular discipline was central to the effective running of the school and which utilised particular pupils known as monitors and monitor generals to affect discipline so that learning could occur. The role of the master of a given school was to ensure that all of the monitors carried out their duties as written in the manual. The last part of the manual gave hints for the formation and management of school societies.

In the manual Joseph Lancaster also gave details for his British system of education for girls. Essentially the schools for girls were to follow the same plan as for the boys. However the seating was to be somewhat different so that needlework could be taught and practical work undertaken. Different aspects of needlework were taught throughout the whole school experience. [Facsimile reprint of the edition originally published for the benefit of the British and Foreign School Society in 1816].

Several years later Joseph Lancaster invented the teacher's certificate. In the preface to the 1808 edition of his book entitled *Improvements in Education* Lancaster stated:

'As to the practical knowledge of this plan the public are desired to consider no person practically qualified to teach it, who have not a certificate from J. Lancaster of their having been under his care. This will prevent the intrusion of imposters whose lame attempts only discredit the plan in the eyes of such as have seen the original, or duly investigated its merits'.

[Lancaster 1808 abridged edition p.vi – vii]

Mrs Sarah Trimmer

Mrs Trimmer was a philanthropist and a person, who defended and supported her Christian faith. She was one of the founders of the Christian Sunday School. She founded several Sunday schools and charity schools in her local parish of Brentford in London. As an ardent high church Anglican Mrs Trimmer sought to promote the established church and its doctrines of Christianity to the children attending the Sunday schools and charity schools in her neighbourhood.

In 1801 Mrs Trimmer asserted that *'every town and most villages'* have a sufficiency of private teaching of this elementary sort and that poor parents were eager to employ it (Adamson 1930 p.23).

Mrs Trimmer was a known writer and critic of children's literature in the eighteenth century. Her writings were *'for nurseries, for wealthy, schools of industry, for zealous clergymen, for benevolent ladies, for farmers, for cottagers, for servants'* (Salmon 1832 p.10).

She advanced two innovations by which children could gain knowledge. These innovations became commonplace in the nineteenth century. Firstly she used pictorial material in her children's books. For example in 1786 she published the *Description of a Set of Prints of Scripture History: contained in a set of easy lessons*.

Her second innovation was to utilise fables to promote the welfare of animals and birds. The most famous of her fables, which was published in 1786, was entitled *Fabulous Histories* (Yarde 1990 p.14). The fable tells the tale of a family of robins living alongside a family of humans. Later the book was renamed *The Story of the Robins*. This book remained in print for over a century.

Her stories written for children described the ordinary lives of ordinary children. She stated that *'these children climbed trees, played with fire, threw cricket bats at sheep and begged in the streets'* (Heath 2003). In addition to writing children's books, Mrs Trimmer also wrote many religious pamphlets and a number of educational books on different subjects. One

book in particular, which was entitled *The Charity School Spelling Book*, was adopted by Andrew Bell and other educational societies throughout the British Empire around 1800.

Sarah Trimmer used Andrew Bell's method to teach her own twelve children (Yarde 1990). She wrote an article in the *Edinburgh Review* stating that Joseph Lancaster's example might increase the growth of Nonconformity in England. Andrew Bell replied to the concerns raised by Sarah Trimmer in a pamphlet entitled '*Sketch of a National Institution*' in 1808.

In 1802 Mrs Trimmer founded and edited a periodical entitled *The Guardian of Education* (Humphrey 1893). Its purpose was to give ideas for instructing children and to review the literature found in children's books. In addition it published reviews of children's books for adult readers. The periodical ceased publication in 1806.

With her strong high church upbringing Mrs Trimmer felt that each person of a given class should remain in its God-given position. She was convinced that people belonged to a particular social class and their whole life would be conducted in that class.

Early in the eighteenth century the work of both Andrew Bell and Joseph Lancaster became known to Mrs Sarah Trimmer. In particular she had a very strong faith in the doctrines of the Anglican Church and she was very interested in the education of children. As an ardent and active member of the Anglican Church Mrs Trimmer had concerns about Joseph Lancaster's method of teaching as he was a Quaker and she intended to promote the Established Church and its doctrines of Christianity.

A copy of Bell's *Experiment*, which was published in 1797, fell into the hands of Lancaster in the year 1800, and in the first edition of his *Improvements*, which was published in 1800, Joseph Lancaster admitted his indebtedness to Andrew Bell's publication. In the first edition of his *Improvements* Joseph Lancaster fully admitted his indebtedness to it, saying:

'I ought not to close my account without acknowledging the obligation I lie under to Dr. Bell of the Male Asylum at Madras, who so nobly gave up his time and liberal salary, that he might perfect that institution, which flourished greatly under his fostering care.'

[Lancaster 1800 p.21]

Joseph Lancaster stated in his publication (Lancaster 1803) the following statement concerning Andrew Bell's published tract.

'From this publication I have adopted several useful hints; I beg leave to recommend it to the attentive perusal of the friends of education and of youth.... I much regret that I was not acquainted with the beauty of his system till somewhat advanced in my plan; if I had known it, it would have saved me much trouble and some retrograde movements. As a confirmation of the goodness of Dr. Bell's plan, I have succeeded with one nearly similar in a school attended by more than 300 children'.

[Lancaster 1803 p.21]

Andrew Bell moved to Swanage in 1801 where he took the post of rector. However Joseph Lancaster and Andrew Bell communicated with each other by letter for some time before Joseph Lancaster visited Andrew Bell in Swanage (Salmon 1904 p.19). Both of them gained information from their exchanges.

In April 1804 Mrs Trimmer visited the Joseph Lancaster School in Borough Road on the recommendation of her friend Priscilla Wakefield. Subsequently Mrs Trimmer wrote a letter of thanks for his hospitality. In addition she stated that she was pleased that Joseph Lancaster had adopted her books in his school. Mrs Trimmer suggested that she returned for a second visit to the school, in order to see how the books were used in the school itself. On this visit Mrs Trimmer found the school to be working in good order.

Sometime after his marriage in 1804 Joseph Lancaster and his principal monitors, together with his wife, marched in procession to Brentford to pay their respects to Mrs Trimmer. At the end of this meeting Mrs Trimmer and Joseph Lancaster parted on good terms (Salmon 1904 p.34),

However Mrs Trimmer made a decision to investigate the Joseph Lancaster School in Borough Road, Southwark in order to ascertain the education that the poor children in his schools received.

After careful consideration of Joseph Lancaster's school, Mrs Trimmer decided to pay another visit to Joseph Lancaster in order to warn him that she was going to enter into public controversy with him over the methods

utilised in his schools. Joseph Lancaster took her comments light heartedly and replied that he reserved the right to reply to them. Support for Joseph Lancaster started to wane when Mrs Trimmer began to attack him in 1805.

Mrs Trimmer felt that Joseph Lancaster was hostile to the interests of the Anglican Church because he admitted children of all religious denominations to his school. She also disapproved of teaching boys and girls together (Dickson 1986 p.74). Mrs Trimmer also attacked Joseph Lancaster's methods of giving awards and punishments.

Mrs Trimmer strongly disapproved of the bizarre punishments metered out for misbehaviour and other misdemeanours. She felt that humiliating punishments to the pupils were unhelpful and degrading. The rewards and emulations given to individual pupils, who were designed to encourage a competitive spirit in the pupils, would give them ideas above their status in life.

Further Mrs Sarah Trimmer suggested that Joseph Lancaster had taken many of Reverend Andrew Bell's ideas for his monitorial system. However Joseph Lancaster had acknowledged in writing his debt to Reverend Andrew Bell. In fact both men were friendly before Mrs Trimmer's onslaught.

Mrs Trimmer started to attack the work of Joseph Lancaster by claiming that Joseph Lancaster had stolen his ideas from Andrew Bell. Mrs Trimmer considered Joseph Lancaster's non-denominational system was hostile to the interests of the Established Church. Mrs Trimmer became very embittered by the work of Joseph Lancaster and his endeavours to educate the children of the poor. She was very concerned that the Catechism was not taught and the religious instruction was non-denominational. Indeed the Church of England was opposed to any religious instruction. Mrs Trimmer made comments about the Catechism and religious instruction in schools led to the Church of England supporting the work of Revd Dr Andrew Bell.

Revd Dr Andrew Bell and Joseph Lancaster made the independent discovery of teaching large groups of pupils with one teacher or monitor. Both of them practiced the same principles on the method of teaching in their respective schools, although the operational details were very different. Bell's system was easier for other people to copy whereas Lancaster was much more difficult as the complete teaching method was articulated in great detail. This

monitorial system was not original to either man since it had already been used in other institutions e.g. Eton and Manchester Grammar School.

In 1805 Mrs Trimmer published *A Comparative View of the New Plan of Education Promulgated by Mr Joseph Lancaster*. Mrs Trimmer was appalled with the suggestion that British children did not need to be reared within the Established Church whilst Joseph Lancaster followed the Quakers' views. Furthermore Mrs Trimmer disapproved of Joseph Lancaster's use of pupil monitors to teach large numbers of children in his school.

Joseph Lancaster called his monitors the '*nobility*' of his school and Mrs Trimmer also commented about his use of this term:

'When one considers the humble rank of the boys of which Common Day Schools and Charity Schools are composed, one is naturally led to reflect whether there is any occasion to put notions concerning the 'origin of nobility' into their heads; especially in times which furnish recent instances of the extinction of a race of ancient nobility in a neighbouring nation, and the elevation of some of the lowest of the people to the highest stations. Boys, accustomed to consider themselves as the nobles of a school, may, in their future lives, from a conceit of their own trivial merits, unless they have very sound principles, aspire to be nobles of the land, and to take the place of the hereditary nobility.'

[Salmon 1904 p.30]

In late 1805 Mrs Trimmer persuaded Andrew Bell that Joseph Lancaster was stealing his glory (Salmon 1932 p.10). On hearing this news Andrew Bell tried to move from Swanage to London.

In 1806 Andrew Bell was persuaded by Mrs Sarah Trimmer to come to London. She wanted Andrew Bell to promote his Madras system of teaching poor children. On arrival in London Andrew Bell introduced his Madras system into Charity Schools in the Whitechapel area of London.

Reverend Dr Andrew Bell

In November 1804 Joseph Lancaster wrote to Andrew Bell giving details of the difficulties with which he had to contend. Further he asked whether there were any original reports of the Orphan Asylum. In particular he sought '*for*

further information on the use of the sand, whether wet or dry, and how the boys were first taught their letters'. A month later Andrew Bell replied to Joseph Lancaster's stating:

'I had before heard of your fame, and the progress which you had made in a new mode of tuition, and have long expected the pleasure of seeing you at Swanage'.

I am anxious to see your book, and still more to see yourself.

In 1805 Mrs Trimmer wrote to Revd Dr Andrew Bell stating:

'From the time, sir, that I read Mr Joseph Lancaster's "Improvement in Education" in the first edition I conceived an idea that there was something in his plan that was inimical to the Established Church'.

[Salmon 1932 p.13]

In this letter Mrs Trimmer persuaded Revd Dr Andrew Bell that Joseph Lancaster was stealing his glory (Salmon 1932 p.10). Hence Andrew Bell tried to move from Swanage so that he could devote his time to the promotion of his Madras system for elementary schools.

Mrs Trimmer's outbursts emphasised the differences between Andrew Bell and Joseph Lancaster. As a result of her intervention, the cordial relationship between Andrew Bell and Joseph Lancaster deteriorated after Mrs Trimmer pronounced in a publication that Andrew Bell had discovered the monitorial principles and Joseph Lancaster had copied it. Further Mrs Trimmer stated that in a Lancasterian school the Catechism was not taught and religious instruction was non-denominational. As a result of Mrs Trimmer's comments support for the Lancasterian system was removed. The controversy resulted in the Anglicans supporting Andrew Bell and the non-conformists supporting Joseph Lancaster.

A copy of Bell's *Experiment* fell into the hands of Lancaster in the year 1800, and in the first edition of his *Improvements* he fully admits his indebtedness to it, saying:

'I ought not to close my account without acknowledging the obligation I lie under to Dr. Bell of the Male Asylum at Madras, who so nobly gave up his time and liberal salary, that he might perfect that institution, which

flourished greatly under his fostering care. He published a tract in 1798 [should be 1797]. . . From this publication I have adopted several useful hints; I beg leave to recommend it to the attentive perusal of the friends of education and of youth.... I much regret that I was not acquainted with the beauty of his system till somewhat advanced in my plan; if I had known it, it would have saved me much trouble and some retrograde movements. As a confirmation of the goodness of Dr. Bell's plan, I have succeeded with one nearly similar in a school attended by more than 300 children'.
[Lancaster 1803 p.21]

In 1803 Mrs Trimmer reviewed the first edition of *Improvements in Education* in her journal *The Guardian of Education*. In this journal Mrs Trimmer made comment that Joseph Lancaster was 'essentially a man of liberal and benevolent mind' and that his very large school that 'unequivocal claims to attention'. In his second and third editions of *Improvements in Education* Joseph Lancaster's system was articulated in detail.

Mrs Trimmer wrote several letters to Andrew Bell and in the first of these letters Mrs Trimmer stated that she intended to alarm the clergy to the dangers posed by Joseph Lancaster's teaching as early as 1803. These letters are found in full in the *Life of Andrew Bell* written by Robert Southey.

In November 1804 Joseph Lancaster wrote to Andrew Bell giving details of the difficulties in teaching, with which he had to contend. Further he asked whether there were any original reports of the Orphan Asylum. In particular he sought 'for further information on the use of the sand, whether wet or dry, and how the boys were first taught their letters'.

In late 1805 Mrs Trimmer persuaded Andrew Bell that Joseph Lancaster was stealing his glory (Salmon 1932 p.10).

In 1807 Revd Dr Andrew Bell was given two years' leave from his parish in Swanage to promote his Madras system for elementary education (Dickson 1986 p.99).

Andrew Bell urged members of the Anglican Church to use his methods of teaching across the country. As progress was slow Andrew Bell took the initiative and formed the National Society for Promoting the Education of the Poor in the Principles of the Established Church. Andrew Bell became

the superintendent of the society. The National Society gained support from William Wordsworth, Samuel Taylor Coleridge and Robert Southey.

Andrew Bell was an Anglican minister and trained doctor who had spent some time in India where his teaching method was first practised. Andrew Bell published his teaching method in 1797. The title of his publication was entitled *An Experiment in Education*. On his return to Great Britain Andrew Bell introduced his teaching method into several charity schools in the London area of which the first such school was St Botolph's School in Aldgate (Salmon 1932 p. 2).

In 1808 Andrew Bell outlined his ideas for promoting his method of teaching young boys in a pamphlet entitled *A Sketch of a National Institution for Training up the Children of the Poor*. His idea gained support from a number of eminent Anglicans, which led to the formation of the National Society in 1811.

Joseph Lancaster was a Quaker who had received a basic education but was blessed with a burning enthusiasm to pass his knowledge to the poor children of the working classes His enthusiasm led to a number of schools following his Lancasterian system of education across the country and beyond very quickly.

In 1808 the Royal Lancasterian Institution was formed and two years later changed its name to The Royal Lancasterian Society. With the resignation of Joseph Lancaster from an active role in the Borough Road schools and its training institution the British and Foreign School Society was formed in 1814.

The differences between Andrew Bell and Joseph Lancaster soon engaged many people. At the height of their differences Samuel Whitbread MP introduced a bill to Parliament which sought to establish parochial schools in England and Wales. Alas the bill did not pass into law.

Non-conformists aligned themselves with Joseph Lancaster and the Anglicans supported Revd Dr Andrew Bell. Unfortunately the controversy between the Church of England and the non-conformists hindered the development of a national education for many years. Inevitably these differences led to the formation of two voluntary societies, namely the British and Foreign School Society and the National Society. Throughout the

early years of the nineteenth century these two voluntary societies sponsored many schools across Great Britain and later other parts of the world.

Lancasterian System of Teaching

Most of the children in Joseph Lancaster's school could not afford to pay any fees. Luckily his fame spread and he received money donations from a number of eminent people including members of the Royal Family.

Unfortunately the donations were insufficient to pay for assistant teachers so Lancaster devised a system whereby he taught several pupils who in turn would teach other younger pupils. These pupils turned teachers were called monitors and the system was called the Lancastrian monitorial system, in which one master could teach very large numbers of pupils. In effect Lancaster had instigated a system known today as peer tutoring. A superintendent was responsible for the conduct of all the monitors in the schools.

'the cause of general education is saved and as far as the (Borough Road) institution possesses the means of advancing that important object, it will now be able to proceed without obstruction'.

[Salmon 1904 p.61]

Joseph Lancaster had to find a method of teaching large number of children in one room. Thus the monitorial system of teaching was inaugurated. The system required just one adult who acted as the teacher and was known as the superintendent or the monitor-general. In turn the adult teacher taught some pupils to act as monitors. Each monitor then taught nine other children. When a pupil had learnt the tasks set by the monitor he would progress to a high level. The method of teaching was rote learning. Unfortunately no monitor was paid.

Joseph Lancaster developed what became known as the Lancasterian Monitorial System of Education in which the concept of *'learning by teaching'* was operative. In that system, one master might teach up to one thousand boys with the aid of monitors. Lancaster produced a systematic and detailed methodology to be executed by the monitors who had a lot of responsibilities. The superintendent or the monitor-general would manage the whole classroom from a desk placed strategically in the middle of the classroom.

Joseph Lancaster's methodology included every aspect of the operation of a successful school, namely organisation, administration, discipline,

punishments, rewards, curricula and the welfare of the pupils. Monitors were able boys who taught the others by rote at teaching areas located around the sides of the room. The pupils (originally boys but later girls as well) sat facing the master on benches at narrow desks. The monitor and his pupils were taught at semi-circular teaching points around the walls of the class room. Desks and benches were provided across the room for limited written work. The floor of the class room sloped in order to give the master a good view of all his pupils and to assist in maintaining discipline.

This method provided the advantages of constant activity, immediate reinforcement and individual progress. In addition the pupils experienced competition between them. Whilst rote learning is today not regarded as developing creativity, flexibility and other characteristics of modern education, it did provide a means whereby pupils learnt to read, write and gained knowledge.

The infants sat in front of the master and practiced their letters in the sand. When they knew their letters the small children were allowed to use the slates in the school. Everything was controlled by the adult teacher sitting at his desk in the middle of the class room. The adult teacher often made use of semaphores as quietness was critical in the Lancasterian classroom.

Lancaster developed a comprehensive set of rules, regulations, rewards, punishments and other activities for his monitorial system. The idea was to ensure that the system was efficient and cost effective.

In 1816 Joseph Lancaster published a manual, which described in minute detail the organisation and administration of a Lancastrian school as well as hints for the formation and management of associated school societies.
[Lancaster 1994 reproduction of 1816 version]

The text was divided into four sections. The first section dealt with the general arrangement of the school including the furniture and the aids in each class room and the second part considered the division of the school into ten different classes. The third section discussed discipline within the school. In particular discipline was central to the effective running of the school and which utilised particular pupils known as monitors and monitor generals to affect discipline so that learning could occur. The role of the master of a given school was to ensure that all of the monitors carried out

their duties as written in the manual. The last part of the manual gave hints for the formation and management of school societies.

In the manual Joseph Lancaster also gave details for his British system of education for girls. Essentially the schools for girls were to follow the same plan as for the boys. However the seating was to be somewhat different so that needlework could be taught and practical work undertaken. Different aspects of needlework were taught throughout the whole school experience.

In 1808 William Wilshere attended a lecture by Joseph Lancaster in Hitchin. At this lecture Joseph Lancaster was promoting his ideas on education. William Wilshere was inspired by what he heard at the lecture. In particular he was fascinated to hear how children were left roaming the local streets and causing trouble. By starting his school Joseph Lancaster removed the children from the streets and gave them education at the same time. In addition trouble such as vandalism was largely reduced.

At the time of Joseph Lancaster's visit Hitchin had the same problem. William Wilshere decided that the poor children of Hitchin should have a school so that they could receive an education and in the process help to reduce vandalism. Hence in 1810 William Wilshere formed a Lancasterian school within the old malt house, which he owned. The school opened with both sexes accepted but they were taught separately. The children followed the methods outlined by Joseph Lancaster in his various publications.

Joseph Lancaster designed his own schoolroom so that one master could teach a large number of pupils with the help of monitors at a rate of ten pupils per monitor. In one of his books entitled *Epitome of Joseph Lancaster's Inventions and Improvements in Education: school-room, desks and preparatory arrangements* a very detailed description of the schoolroom which should be provided for the pupils.

Details of the Lancasterian classroom are given in Appendix 3. The only remaining Lancastrian classroom is to be found in the British Schools Museum in Hitchin, Hertfordshire.

Section B Borough Road School/College

The 1790s

In 1789 the French Revolution commenced and in 1793 Britain and France were at war. During the period 1789 – 1799 there was radical and political upheaval in France and across Europe. All these activities had an adverse effect on the economy of the Great Britain.

The second half of the eighteenth century saw English life changing due to a number of factors. The enclosure of the countryside with the loss of common land meant that many working class people started losing their independence. In addition the Industrial Revolution was taking place with many people moving to the places where factories and mills were to be found. The development of mechanical manufacturing methods took the place of human power. Children of very young age and adults were engaged in work in factories and mills. As a result the countryside was losing its workers and the towns were growing larger and larger as the workers lived close to their place of work.

Workers in the factories and mills normally worked a six day week with Sunday being the only free day. The children ran wild on that day until Sunday schools became established during the course of the second half of the eighteenth century. The great increase in Sunday Schools was largely due to the activities of Robert Raikes, who was a Gloucester business man (Power 1863).

In the last decade of the eighteenth century England was considered to be the worst educated nation across Europe (Hansard House of Commons Volume 2 cc 40-91 28th June 1820). At this period of time there was rapid urban expansion and a large increase in the population.

The Clapham Sect was formed around 1790. It was composed of a number of wealthy Anglican social reformers of which William Wilberforce MP was a very prominent member. Other eminent members included Henry Venn (founder), John Venn, Henry Thornton MP for Southwark, Zachary Macaulay, Charles Simeon, Thomas Fowell Buxton MP and Hannah More. The activities were centred on the church of John Venn, who was rector of Clapham (Venn 1841). All of these men were evangelical Anglicans who

shared a zeal for passing the Christian message both in the United Kingdom and overseas (Tomkins 2010).

In particular the slave trade caused them some concern and they worked hard to get legislation passed to abolish the slave trade. Indeed the Clapham Sect founded Freetown in Sierra Leone (Clifford 1999). Freetown was the first important British colony in that country. The members of the Clapham Sect shared a common interest in the improvement of the lot of the poor and all members were involved in a wide range of other endeavours including the reform of the penal system and the founding of several missionary and tract societies. Many of its members contributed to the work being undertaken by Revd Dr Andrew Bell and Joseph Lancaster.

Towards the end of the eighteenth century there was a rigid division in society which could be collated with social class. The upper and middle classes had two ideas concerning the working class and education.

The first idea was thought that education of the poor would be dangerous. The poor would be dissatisfied with their class in society and might become activists. The second idea was the view that simple education would be a benefit allowing poor people to read the Scriptures and to earn a useful living whilst learning gratitude to their social betters.

Hannah More, a social reformer, wrote the following statement in a cheap repository tract published in 1795:

'I think to teach good principles to the lower classes is the most likely way to save the country. Now, in order to do this we must teach them to read'.

[More 1975 p.180]

In May 1795 the Speenhamland scheme, which was a method of giving relief to the poor, was introduced (Deane 1965). It was originated by local magistrates in the area of Newbury, Berkshire, who were worried by the rapid cost of living. It was a form of outdoor relief intended to mitigate rural poverty in England at the end of the eighteenth century or the early nineteenth century.

Working men's income was raised to an agreed level with money taken from parish rates. The scheme was based on the price of bread and the number of children a man had to support. It came at a time when the number of poor was increasing rapidly due to a series of bad harvests in England, the expensive

cost of importing foodstuffs from Europe and the results of the Napoleonic Wars (Asprey 2000).

In 1796 the Society for Bettering the Condition and Increasing the Comfort of the Poor was founded (Bernard 1809). This organisation was keen to introduce schools of industry for the pauper children. In addition the organisation originated other facilities for the poor including soup kitchens, saving banks and friendly societies (Bernard 1849). The Society issued its first report in 1797 and subsequently published comprehensive annual reports (Bernard 1970). In the fourth report of the Society an account of Joseph Lancaster's school was given (Society for Bettering the Condition and Increasing the Comfort of the Poor 1805 4th Report p.159 – 166).

William Pitt made a speech on 12th February 1796 stating that there was productive value of children in the manufacturing industries and was to be welcomed.

Also in 1796 William Pitt proposed that children whose parents were in receipt of poor relief should be compelled to attend schools of industry. William Pitt However the proposal was not forthcoming. Alas the schools of industry were handicapped by competition with child labour in factories. Employers were against these schools as they decreased the supply of child labour in factories. Parents were against the schools of industry as the children got more money for the household if their children worked in mills.

In John Locke's report on the Reform of the Poor Law it was argued that all children were a potential loss to the labour force of society. Locke believed that children from the age of three years could make a positive contribution to society by working.

Both Joseph Lancaster and Revd Dr Andrew Bell had initiated monitorial schools in the decade of the 1790s in London. These monitorial schools attracted the children of poor parents who were taught to read and write. Soon these schools were found in many places across the country.

Andrew Bell was an Anglican minister and trained doctor who had spent some time in India where his teaching method was first practised. Andrew Bell published his teaching method entitled *An Experiment in Education* in 1797. On his return to Great Britain Andrew Bell introduced his monitorial teaching method into several charity schools in the London area. The first

such school adopting Bell's system was St Botolph's School in Aldgate and a little later a school in Kendal. On the other hand Joseph Lancaster was a Quaker who opened his own school for the children of the poor in 1798. This school, which was located in Southwark, operated on non-denominational grounds.

John Anderson died in 1796 and he left most of his money to provide an education for the '*unacademic*' classes. This request led to the establishment of Anderson's College in Glasgow, which was the first technical college to offer scientific instruction to adults. George Birkbeck became professor of natural philosophy at the Anderson College and began providing free classes for working men in mechanics and chemistry (Kelly 1957), which was very well supported. In 1799 Count Rumford founded the Royal Institution in London, which was based on similar lines to the Anderson College in Glasgow (Berman 1978).

In the last decade of the nineteenth century two professors at the University of Glasgow, namely John Anderson and George Birkbeck, began offering free lectures to the working people of Glasgow.

Hence by the end of the decade education of every person in the country was beginning gain momentum for both children of the poor and working individuals.

The 1800s

Throughout the first decade of the 1800s the Napoleonic Wars, which were a series of wars declared against Napoleon's French Empire by opposing coalitions, were on-going. During this decade it was apparent that these wars were causing concern to the British government including effects on the economy of the country with particular reference to the cost of the importation of foodstuffs from Europe.

At the beginning of the 19th century, education was still organised, like English society as a whole, on a rigid class basis. As a result education was determined by the class to which the children's parents belonged. For the children of poor parents education was not a priority. Instead children were expected to enhance the family's income rather than attending school.

By the beginning of the nineteenth century the industrial revolution was in full swing. Many people were migrating from the countryside to areas where work was available. Such work was to be found in areas having various manufacturing industries, factories, mills and mining enterprises.

At the turn of century the State was beginning to acknowledge it had some responsibility for the pauper children, who worked in the factories as apprentices and the children of the poor, Peel's Factory Act was an attempt to improve the conditions in which apprentices and the children of the poor lived. Peel's Factory Act of 1802 stated:

'An Act for the preservation of the health and morals of apprentices and others employed in cotton and other mills and cotton and other factories'

This act required an employer to provide instruction in reading, writing and arithmetic during at least the first four years of the seven years of apprenticeship. Such secular instruction was to be part of the twelve hours of daily occupation beginning not earlier than 6.00 am and ending not later than 9.00 pm. Many of the apprentices were young pauper children who were frequently brought from distant workhouses to work in the cotton mills. The children would have a free day on a Sunday save for at least an hour's teaching of Christianity, conducted by the local Anglican minister (De Montmorency 1902 p.214).

A number of conditions were stated as essential for the mill's employer to meet. The mills had to have sufficient windows in order to ensure that fresh air circulated around the mill. In addition the walls and the floor had to be washed on a regular basis. For the accommodation of the children separate bedrooms were required for the two sexes and no bed must be allowed to hold more than two children. It was also essential that the children were adequately clothed. Each child was to be given a new suit of clothes every year.

The act went further and stated that employers breaking these regulations were to be subjected to fines ranging between £2 and £5. Unfortunately, there were no inspectors appointed to enforce the law.

In the very early part of the nineteenth century the plight of the children of poor people was becoming known to a wider circle of adults, some of whom had a genuine interest in improving the lives of young children. Such people were commonly seen to be reformers. They were mainly people who belonged to the upper class. Alas these reformers found themselves against a section of society who was hostile to the very idea of universal education.

The first decade of the 1800s saw the education of children of the poor assume some importance. Joseph Lancaster and Revd Dr Andrew Bell had initiated monitorial schools in the last decade of the 1700s in London. These monitorial schools attracted the children of poor parents, where they were taught to read and write. Soon these schools were soon found in many places across the country.

A copy of Andrew Bell's *Experiment* fell into the hands of Joseph Lancaster in the year 1800, and in the first edition of his *Improvements* he fully admits his indebtedness to it, saying:

'I ought not to close my account without acknowledging the obligation I lie under to Dr. Bell of the Male Asylum at Madras, who so nobly gave up his time and liberal salary, that he might perfect that institution, which flourished greatly under his fostering care'.

[Lancaster 1803 p.21]

The first reference to the existence of Joseph Lancaster's school in Southwark appeared in the diary of Elizabeth Fry in the year 1801. The

following year William Wilberforce mentioned Joseph Lancaster's school in his diary (Bartle 1974 p.5).

In 1804 George Birkbeck moved to London where he worked as a physician for some years. His interest in the education of working class men continued in London.

The work of both Andrew Bell and Joseph Lancaster became known to Mrs Sarah Trimmer, who was a known person in a number of different contexts. She was particularly interested in the education of children. She lived in Brentford where she founded several charity schools for the children of the poor. She was also a prolific writer on themes related to her Anglican faith. In addition she had very strong beliefs in the doctrines of the Anglican Church and attempted to broadcast her views to everyone with whom she came in contact.

In the very early years of the eighteenth century Mrs Trimmer made a decision to investigate the Joseph Lancaster School located in Borough Road, Southwark, in order to ascertain the education of the poor children in his schools.

In April 1804 Mrs Trimmer visited the Joseph Lancaster School in Borough Road, Southwark on the recommendation of her friend Priscilla Wakefield who was the niece of Elizabeth Fry (Salmon 1904 p.34). Subsequently Mrs Trimmer wrote a letter of thanks for his hospitality. In addition she stated that she was pleased that Joseph Lancaster had adopted her books in his school. Mrs Trimmer suggested that she returned for a second visit to the school, in order to see how the books were used in the school itself. On this visit Mrs Trimmer found the school to be working in good order.

Soon after his marriage in 1804 Joseph Lancaster accompanied by his wife and his principal monitors marched in procession to Brentford to pay their respects to Mrs Trimmer. At the end of this meeting Mrs Trimmer and Joseph Lancaster parted on good terms (Salmon 1904 p.36).

After careful consideration of Joseph Lancaster's school, Mrs Trimmer decided to pay another visit to Joseph Lancaster in order to warn him that she was going to enter into public controversy with him over the methods utilised in his schools. Joseph Lancaster took her comments light heartedly and replied that he reserved the right to reply to them.

In 1805 Mrs Trimmer published *A Comparative View of the New Plan of Education Promulgated by Mr Joseph Lancaster*. Mrs Trimmer was appalled with the suggestion that British children did not need to be reared within the Established Church whilst Joseph Lancaster did not encourage these views. Joseph Lancaster followed the Quakers' views. Furthermore Mrs Trimmer disapproved of Joseph Lancaster's use of pupil monitors to teach large numbers of children in his school.

In addition Mrs Trimmer strongly disapproved of the bizarre punishments metered out for misbehaviour and other misdemeanours. She felt that humiliating punishments to the pupils were unhelpful and degrading. The rewards and emulations given to individual pupils, who were designed to encourage a competitive spirit in the pupils, would give them ideas above their status in life.

With her strong high church upbringing Mrs Trimmer felt that each person of a given class should remain in its God-given position. She was convinced that people belonged to a particular social class and their whole life would be conducted in that class. As an ardent and active member of the Anglican Church Mrs Trimmer intended to promote the established church and its doctrines of Christianity.

In 1805 Mrs Trimmer wrote to Dr Andrew Bell stating 'From the time, sir, that I read Mr Joseph Lancaster's "Improvement in Education" in the first edition I conceived an idea that there was something in his plan that was inimical to the Established Church'.

[Hamilton 1958 p.3]

However there were significant differences between Andrew Bell and Joseph Lancaster in the delivery of the education to the poor children. These differences soon engaged many people. At the height of their differences Samuel Whitbread MP introduced a bill to Parliament which sought to establish parochial schools in England and Wales. Alas the bill did not pass into law.

In 1807 one Justice of the Peace commented that:

'It is doubtless desirable that the poor should be generally instructed in reading, if it were only for the best of purposes - that they may read the

Scriptures. As to writing and arithmetic, it may be apprehended that such a degree of knowledge would produce in them a disrelish for the laborious occupations of life.'

[Quoted in Williams 1961 p.135]

In 1807 Samuel Whitbread proposed to deal with the whole of the Poor Law with the introduction of a Bill in the House of Commons. Of particular interest was the first part of the Bill, which dealt specifically with education in England and Wales. Samuel Whitbread advocated making the parish responsible for education and proposed that each child should have two years of education between the ages of seven and fourteen years. The rationale for proposing the bill was an attempt to reduce crime and pauperism among the children of the poor.

In 1807 Samuel Whitbread proposed to introduce a bill in the House of Commons to deal with the Poor Law. The bill, known as the Parochial Schools Act, made provision for the education of *the labouring classes* (Birchenough 1931 p.39). As part of this bill there was a section which dealt with the education of the children of the poor. Alas the proposal was considered too expensive to implement and also it was felt that the introduction of such a scheme would remove people from manual work. It was felt that such an educational experience might create unrest in the poor children with their position in society.

When the Parochial Schools Bill of 1807 was debated in the Commons, Tory MP Davies Giddy warned the House that:

'Giving education to the labouring classes of the poor ... would be prejudicial to their morals and happiness; it would teach them to despise their lot in life, instead of making them good servants in agriculture and other laborious employments to which their rank in society has destined them; instead of teaching them the virtue of subordination, it would render them factious and refractory ... it would enable them to read seditious pamphlets, vicious books and publications against Christianity.'

[Hansard, House of Commons, Vol. 9, 13 July 1807]

The Parochial Schools Bill was not right for the time. The upper classes were not ready to extend education to the children of the poor. The Anglican Church was firmly against any form of religious instruction of an undenominational character. As a result the act faced severe opposition in

the House of Commons and was rejected outright by the House of Lords. Eventually the bill was defeated mainly by the bishops of the Anglican Church. Although unsuccessful the thought of educating the masses was being articulated in the early 1800s.

Andrew Bell sought to devise a plan whereby he might be better able to protect his system of education. In addition he also sent a circular to several government officers requesting an official position in order to facilitate the promotion of the Madras system, which he had established in India. Alas his circular did not receive an immediate result.

A number of churchmen were becoming concerned by Lancaster's success in promoting his Lancastrian system of educating large groups of children. In the light of this concern a few Anglican churchmen invited Andrew Bell to organise schools using his Madras system in their parishes.

In the middle of 1807 Andrew Bell was given two years' leave of absence from his Swanage parish in order for him to devote all of his time to promoting his Madras system of teaching. Soon Andrew Bell was urging the necessity for having a school '*in perfect order in the metropolis, where masters might be trained*' (Southey 1844 p.343).

In 1808 Andrew Bell published a pamphlet entitled *A Sketch of a National Institution for Training up the Children of the Poor in the Principles of the Established Church throughout England and Wales*. In this pamphlet Andrew Bell gave information on his plan for education the children of the poor.

Furthermore a number of churchmen were becoming concerned by Lancaster's success in promoting his Lancasterian system of educating large groups of children. In the light of this concern a few Anglican churchmen invited Andrew Bell to organise schools using his Madras system in their parishes.

Early in the nineteenth century some of Joseph Lancaster's trained monitors took the Lancasterian methods of teaching to countries outside Great Britain. North America was one of the first parts of the world to receive Joseph Lancaster and a few of his monitors from 1806 onwards.

John Pickton was one of Joseph Lancaster's earliest pupils to become a trained teacher at Joseph Lancaster's school in Borough Road. In 1808 Joseph Lancaster recommended John Pickton as master of a new school based on Lancasterian lines in Bristol at a salary of fifty-two pounds per annum (Dickson 1986 p.106).

Despite the financial support from many of the upper classes Joseph Lancaster soon got into difficulties as he was not good at managing money. In 1808 Joseph Lancaster, Joseph Fox (Quaker) and William Corston resolved:

'to constitute themselves a Society for the purpose of affording education, procuring employment and, as far as possible, to furnish clothing to the children of the poorer subjects of George III, and also to diffuse the providential discovery of the vaccine inoculation in the hands of Providence to preserve life from loathsome disease; and also, by furnishing objects for the exercise of industry, to render life useful'.

[Quoted in Smith 1931 p. 81]

On 22nd January 1808 Joseph Fox and Joseph Lancaster met at the home of William Corston at 10, Ludgate Street in London. Both Joseph Fox and William Corston had a keen interest in the education of the children of the poor. At this meeting of these three people minutes were taken. It was unanimously resolved:

'That, with a humble reliance upon the blessing of Lord God Almighty and with a single eye to His glory; and with a view to benefit the British Empire; the persons present do constitute themselves a Society for the purpose of affording education, procuring employment, and, as far as possible, to furnish clothing to the children of the poorer subjects of King George III.; and also to diffuse the providential discovery of the vaccine inoculation in order that at the same time they may be instrumental in the hands of Providence to preserve life from loathsome disease; and also, by furnishing objects for the exercise of industry, to render life useful.

That in order to prevent any impediment to the prosecution of this grand design, the persons present do constitute themselves Managers of this Society, to plan, prepare, and direct all its future operations; and that no business shall be brought before any meeting of subscribers who may

probably come forward in aid of this Society but what has been recommended by this Committee of Managers.'

[Salmon 1932 p.5]

William Allen, Samuel Whitbread and Joseph Fox formed a committee in 1808 with a brief to deal with the financial problems created by Joseph Lancaster. William Allen was appointed its treasurer and he was instrumental in trying to raise subscriptions for the society. He sought to raise subscriptions from Quaker friends in order to put the affairs of the Borough Road institutions on a sound financial footing. He was clear that economies needed to be made.

In the year 1808 Joseph Lancaster's system of teaching the children of the poor to read and write was gaining momentum. Some social reformers were beginning to learn that whilst the children were in school they were not causing mayhem in their local area. At the same time the children were receiving some education.

A solicitor named William Wilshere attended a lecture given by Joseph Lancaster in his own town of Hitchin in Hertfordshire. For some time prior to attending this lecture William Wilshere had been concerned about the numbers of young boys who were found roaming the streets during the daytime without anything productive to do. Many of them caused trouble.

Joseph Lancaster's lecture inspired him to form a school in the town as Hitchin had a problem with poor children roaming its streets. He opened a school in an old malt house which he owned in the town. The school catered for 150 boys.

Firstly the monitorial schools established by Joseph Lancaster in various parts of the country were told that they had to raise their own funds locally as Joseph Lancaster's funds were no longer able to support the payment of their monitors.

Further he tried to reduce the Society's expenditure on Borough Road and its associated enterprises. One of the casualties of this period was the slate factory. In addition the committee paid Joseph Lancaster's debts.

Revd Dr Andrew Bell sought to devise a plan whereby he might be better able to protect his system of education. In addition he also sent a circular to

several government officers requesting an official position in order to facilitate the promotion of the Madras system, which he had established in India. Alas his circular did not receive an immediate result.

In 1808 Revd Dr Andrew Bell was invited by the Church of England to organise monitorial schools on their behalf and he accepted the invitation. He was appointed superintendent of the schools under the auspices of the Church of England. Further the Society stated that it would follow the monitorial system devised by Revd. Dr Andrew Bell, who aimed to give the children of the poor an Anglican education.

The Royal Lancasterian Institution for the Education of the Poor was founded in 1808. It proposed to provide a non-sectarian education. At this point in time Anglicans and non-conformists were on the committee.

Joseph Lancaster used money given for the Borough Road institutions (a school and hostel for training monitors) for other purposes. All the members of the Committee felt that the progress of the work in Borough Road could be endangered if Joseph Lancaster remained actively involved in the running of the Borough Road institutions. Hence negotiations started between the Committee and Joseph Lancaster in order to retrieve the situation. In exchange for handing over the control of the Borough Road Institutions Joseph Lancaster would be absolved of the outstanding debts.

Just after the negotiations had been agreed, Joseph Lancaster asked some of his apprentice school masters at Borough Road to join his new venture in Tooting which was to be a middle class boarding school for boys. He did not refer the new venture to the Committee of the Royal Lancasterian Institution for the Education of the Poor of Every Religious Persuasion. However a bill for the maintenance of these apprentice teachers was sent to the Committee for payment. Unfortunately the Tooting venture failed and incurred large debts which disturbed the members of the Committee.

In 1809 Joseph Lancaster travelled widely promoting his monitorial system giving lectures, visiting subscribers to elicit donations and forming local committees to establish Lancasterian schools. William Corston noted in his publication entitled *A Brief Sketch of the Life of Joseph Lancaster including the Introduction of his System of Education* that Joseph Lancaster had travelled extensively in 1809 and had established fifteen Lancasterian

schools. In addition Joseph Lancaster produced a number of pamphlets with the purpose of strengthening the details of his monitorial system.

In 1809 the Committee requested Joseph Lancaster to take measures for two or three young males to come to Borough Road in order to undergo training for school teachers using the Lancasterian system of teaching. Two months board was to be provided for them (Hamilton 1958 p.4). From that date the number of teacher-apprentices grew on a year by year basis.

In 1810 the number of teacher-apprentices had risen to sixteen and in 1812 twenty had passed through the training college (Hamilton 1958 p.4). Female teacher-apprentices were also trained at Borough Road from 1803 under the leadership of Mary and Sarah Lancaster, both of whom were sisters of Joseph Lancaster. The girl's training institution moved to Martin Street in 1813 but transferred to King's Road in Chelsea in 1815 (Hamilton 1958 p.4).

When William Allen became aware of the financial problems which surrounded Joseph Lancaster, he canvassed Quaker friends for funds to support this work. William Allen assumed the position of treasurer of the society and immediately sought to bring the finances into good order. Further the other monitorial schools established by Joseph Lancaster were told that they must raise their own funds.

In his role as treasurer William Allen attempted to reduce the society's expenditure on the Borough Road Schools and its associated enterprises. It became apparent that the printing press and the slate factory did not pay their way. Hence one of the casualties of this period was the closing of his slate factory (Salmon 1932 p.4). This action was necessary in order to deal with the poor finances of Joseph Lancaster's institutions. In the same year this committee formed itself into the Society for Promoting the Lancasterian System for the Education of the Poor. William Allen was instrumental in trying to raise subscriptions for the society so that monies generated could be used to put the society on a sound financial footing.

The 1810s

In the first few years of the 1810s decade the Napoleonic Wars were still on-going. These wars came to an end by the passing of two peace treaties known as the Treaty of Paris. In 1814 the first treaty secured peace between France and the United Kingdom and other countries across Europe. The second peace treaty was signed in Paris in 1815 when Napoleon was defeated at Waterloo. However the Napoleonic Wars had an adverse effect on the British economy.

In 1810 a public meeting was held to encourage more subscribers since the society required more finances. As a result of this meeting an enlarged committee of the society was formed, which included William Wilberforce, James Mill, Henry Brougham and Samuel Whitbread. The enlarged committee called itself *The Committee of the Royal Lancasterian Institution for the Education of the Poor of Every Religious Persuasion* (Bartle 1976 p.5).

In 1810 a small committee was organised to deal with Joseph Lancaster's debts was expanded to look after The Institution for Promoting the Education of the Labouring and Manufacturing Classes of Society of Every Religious Persuasion. This committee soon became known as The Royal Lancasterian Society.

In 1810 Joseph Lancaster wrote a book giving a very detailed description of the schoolroom which should be provided for the pupils. A picture of the Lancastrian Schoolroom is shown in Figure 1) and an extract taken directly from the original book entitled *British System of Education* was written by Joseph Lancaster in 1810 is reported in Appendix 3.

In 1811 the new Society held an anniversary dinner in the presence of the Duke of Kent, who was its president. In the same year an address by the Committee for Promoting the Royal Lancasterian System for the Education of the Poor was made. In this manifesto address the Committee outlined its plan to improve the education of the children of the poor (Appendix 1).

1811 an address by the Committee for Promoting the Royal Lancasterian Institution for the Poor was given in full in the report of the Finance Committee and Trustees of the Committee for the Royal Lancasterian

Institution for the Education of the Poor for the year 1811. The full report was published in 1812.

In 1811 Revd Dr Andrew Bell's ideas on teaching children of the poor gained the support of some prominent members of the Church of England, who met to discuss means of promoting monitorial schools which taught the liturgy of the Church of England. This meeting resulted in the formation of a new society, which was to be called the National Society and would provide schools for poor children. Andrew Bell was appointed superintendent of the schools under the auspices of the Anglican Church.

The original name was The National Society for the Promotion of the Education of the Poor in the Principles of the Established Church. The founders were deeply concerned about the fate of the population, including children, working in the factories, mills and mines of the newly industrialised Britain. They established the National Society in order to raise money for the building of schools and paying the teachers. The schools were to teach basic skills and also to provide for the moral and spiritual welfare of the children, by teaching them the '*National Religion*'. The aim of the National Society was to have a church school in every parish.

Thus in the early years of the 1810s two societies provided education for the children of the poor. Both societies promoted monitorial schools. Revd Dr Andrew Bell's ideas quickly gained support and in 1811 the National Society was founded. Joseph Lancaster's initiatives had become the Society for Promoting the Education of the Labouring Classes of Every Religious Persuasion. Thus the National Society was associated with the Anglican Church whilst the other society was non-denomination in outlook.

The National Society was formed primarily due to Joshua Watson with two friends all of whom were High Church Anglicans and active members of the Society for the Propagation of Christian Knowledge (Churton 1961). The Archbishop of Canterbury was the President and had other prominent supporters. All these people supported the fundamental principle:

'that the national religion should be made the foundation of national education, and should be the first chief thing taught to the poor, according to the excellent liturgy and catechism provided by our Church for that purpose'.

[Watson 1961 Chapter 5]

The National Society declared its purpose to be *'that the National Religion should be made the foundation of a National Education'*. The purpose of the National Society was to promote the education of the poor in the principles of the established church throughout England and Wales. Its schools were taught religion as stated in the Catechism and the Book of Common Prayer.

The aims of the National Society were expressed in the Annual Report of the National Society published in 1812 as stated below.

'The sole object in view being to communicate to the poor generally, by means of a summary mode of education lately brought into practice, such knowledge and habits are sufficient to teach them the doctrine of Religion according to the principles of the established Church, and to train them to the performance of their religious duties by an early discipline'.

[National Society 1812 Annual Report, p.19]

Francis Place was a strong supporter of the Lancasterian system in its early days and he became a very active member of the British and Foreign School Society's Committee. Together with Lord Brougham, Edward Wakefield and James Mill, Francis Place conceived the idea of a complete system of primary and secondary schools starting with the London area. In particular Francis Place sought to eliminate and guard against the introduction of the words *'patronage'* or *'class charity'*.

In 1811 Francis Place met James Mill. These men shared a common interest in establishing a West London Lancastrian Association in order to extend the non-sectarian Lancasterian system of education to all poor children living west of Temple Bar. In 1813 Francis Place helped to found the West London Lancastrian Association.

In 1812 Ann Springman, an ex-monitor of Borough Road School, became head of the girls' school and teaching training institution for girls. This school and teacher training institution followed the Lancasterian method.

In 1813 John Pickton, an ex-monitor at Borough Road School, began to enforce an edit from the Committee of the British and Foreign School Society to expel any boy who went from the Borough Road School to the Tooting School if the man slept a day there. Joseph Lancaster was upset that

John Pickton followed the edit of the British and Foreign School Society. It was clear that John Pickton's first loyalty was to the Borough Road School.

Francis Place took an active part in the work of the British and Foreign School Society. In July 1813 Francis Place and a number of like-minded men met at a coffee house in Cockspur Street and the West London Lancastrian Association was formed. The motto of this new organisation was '*Schools for All*'. Francis Place designed a new series of reading lessons for the children, which dealt with practical things.

Joseph Fox was appointed the secretary of the West London Lancastrian Association with no formal relationship with the Borough Road School. Francis Place was determined that the new association should be established under tight control of its finances and management. Initially it was necessary to determine the number of poor children in each of the districts into which the area was divided. Francis Place made all the arrangements for a detailed survey to be undertaken but alas it was not done.

At the first meeting of the West London Lancastrian Association the following Resolution was read to the assembled membership. An extract is given below:

1st. 'This Association intends providing instructions in reading, writing, arithmetic, and good morals, for the children of both sexes, and of every religious denomination, of a district bounded on the North by the New-road from Paddington to Battle-bridge; on the east by Grays-Inn-lane and the City of London to the Thames; on the South, by the Thames from the City of London to the intended bridge to Vauxhall; and on the West, from Mill Bank through Grosvenor-place, Park-lane and the Edgware-road, the New-road.

2d. That by the last returns to Parliament, this district appears to contain 38,560 houses, 84529 families and 356,550 inhabitants.

3d. That every annual subscriber of the amount of five shillings and upwards be a member of this Association; every subscriber of five guineas, in one sum, a life member; and to every subscriber of thirty guineas a member of the Committee.

4th. That the Address of this Association be printed, and delivered to every family within the district.....

[West London Lancastrian Association 1813]

The first venture of the West London Lancastrian Association was to investigate educational needs in the west half of London north of the Thames. The aim was to extend the non-sectarian Lancasterian system to all poor children living west of Temple Bar. The Lancasterian system was based on a broad Christian education.

Penny a week subscriptions were canvassed on a house by house basis. This subscription was required for the purpose of establishing schools in the area. Further the organisation aimed to found similar organisations elsewhere in the country. Alas the West London Lancasterian Association ceased several years later as a result of difficulties between it and its parent body.

Francis Place was actively engaged with many of the British and Foreign School Society's activities. With the help of Jeremy Bentham and other committee members, Francis Place sought to apply the Lancasterian system of teaching to secondary schools. He had in mind to establish higher primary or secondary schools giving a modern education.

Francis Place came into conflict with Joseph Fox over this matter. Unfortunately Joseph Fox had the support of William Allen as both of them considered the teaching department of Borough Road vital for the society to maintain. Trained teachers were in great demand not just for locations around the United Kingdom but in other countries of the world.

As a result of the activities of the West London Lancasterian Association Jeremy Bentham was indirectly responsible for having the idea of establishing a radical new day school for the children of middle class parents, which became known as a *chrestomatic* school. The idea was to give boys and girls between the ages of seven and fourteen years an encyclopaedic secondary education on Lancasterian lines (Wallas 1925). The idea was unrealistic in the climate of the day.

Two particular rules created friction between some members of the British and Foreign School Society. These rules included the requirement for the pupils and apprentice teachers to attend a place of worship on a Sunday. Both Francis Place and James Mill protested against this regulation so it was omitted from the rules of the West London Lancasterian Association. In addition all children attending a British school had to join their parents at a

place of worship on a Sunday. A child could be expelled from the school if he/she did not attend the place of worship.

The position of Joseph Fox as Treasurer of both the Royal Lancasterian Society (soon to become the British and Foreign School Society) and the West London Lancasterian Association soon caused friction between Francis Place and himself. The friction was concerned with financial matters involving the Borough Road establishments.

Joseph Fox was concerned that '*Deism*' was to be taught in West London Lancasterian Association schools, which was not acceptable in the Borough Road institutions (Salmon 1904 p.61).

Francis Place and James Mill were opposed to two rules of the British and Foreign School Society. The West London Lancasterian Association committee decided to substitute the rule on reading books to: '*the Bible alone, without gloss or comment, written or spoken, will be read*'. Joseph Fox, William Allen and the Central Committee were unhappy with this statement.

Francis Place withdrew from the West London Lancasterian Association in 1815 as a result of conflict between Joseph Fox, the Treasurer, and himself. Francis Place was an agnostic rather than a confirmed Christian. Soon after Francis Place's resignation the West London Lancasterian Association collapsed and its monitorial schools were placed under the control of the British and Foreign School Society. James Mill and Joseph Hume and some other members of the British and Foreign School Society remained on the Committee for several years but gradually their interests in popular education changed.

The British and Foreign School Society gradually became dependent on the support of the non-conformists and the patronage of its aristocratic subscribers. On the other hand the high Anglicans of the National Society, the followers of Robert Owen and a number of radicals, who had secular views on education, promoted their own schools and training institutions.

The British and Foreign School Society formulated rules and regulations for its membership, which were published in 1813(Appendix 2).

The teacher training institution in Borough Road kept the trainee teachers with all expenses paid. The individual student was provided with full board, clothing and tuition. Francis Place considered that many of the trainee teachers would not be able to make good teachers and the expense for their education was unacceptable.

However William Allen, Joseph Fox and their supporters were determined to keep Joseph Lancaster's original purpose. In particular the Borough Road schools should be '*free*' and where the poorest children could be taught reading and writing (Bartle 1976 p.11).

The British and Foreign School Society gradually became dependent on the support of the non-conformists and the patronage of its aristocratic subscribers. On the other hand the high Anglicans of the National Society, the followers of Robert Owen and a number of radicals, who had secular views on education, promoted their own schools and training institutions.

From 1818 the reading lessons used in British schools followed the selection made by William Allen. The Holy Bible was to be the exclusive use as the source of all reading lessons.

However the idea prompted other thinkers and educators to suggest a more realistic curriculum for high grade elementary schools. The introduction of at least one modern foreign language, normally French, and the introduction of other types of mathematics such as geometry and trigonometry were included in the curriculum over the first quarter of the twentieth century. This type of school established pedagogical principles including the use of visual aids, and wall diagrams to reinforce learning. The children were placed in groups according to their ability and proficiency (Quoted in Armytage 1970 p.92).

During the decade the training for a school master was to include the following branches of education namely:

- (a) knowledge of English grammar - speaking, writing their own language correctly;
- (b) improvement in hand writing and knowledge of arithmetic;
- (c) Geography and History;
- (d) other useful branches of knowledge under direction and inspection of superintendents.

[Binns 1908 p.80]

The end of the Napoleonic Wars resulted in a slump, which caused educational progress to be very slow. In particular attempts for reform of education were suppressed due to a lack of available finances. However there were some influential people who tried to persuade parliament to inquire into the education of the children of the working class. Of these influential people, Lord Henry Brougham condemned England as the '*worst educated country of Europe*' (Hansard 28th June 1820 Vol.2 cc41-91).

Robert Owen was a wealthy cotton trader living in Manchester. On his travels he had seen the slum conditions in which many people lived and worked and he was greatly shocked. He found the conditions in the mills were disgusting and the workers/apprentices were ignorant and destitute and many of his employees were addicted to theft, drunkenness and lying.

On buying two cotton mills in New Lanark, Scotland, Robert Owen was determined to make the lives of his employees who worked in the cotton mills much better. He set rules for the homes and behaviour of his workforce. In addition he provided support for the children of his employees. He started the first infant school in 1816. The infant school catered for children of his employees for whilst they were working in the mills. Children attended the school between the ages of two and six of age. In effect he created a community village based around his mills.

Robert Owen believed that a person's environment shaped the character of individual and his/her personality. He stated that:
'to consist of whatever might be supposed useful that they could understand, and much attention was devoted to singing, dancing and playing'
[Hadow 1931 p.3]

In 1816 a Select Committee of Parliament headed by Lord Henry Brougham, was appointed to investigate *The Education of the Lower Orders in the Metropolis and Beyond*. The Select Committee was appointed to ascertain the educational opportunities for children of the poor and report back to Parliament in due course of time.

In 1816 Joseph Lancaster published a manual, which described in minute detail the organisation and administration of a Lancastrian school as well as

hints for the formation and management of associated school societies (Lancaster 1994 reproduction of 1816 version).

The text was divided into four sections. The first section dealt with the general arrangement of the school including the furniture and the aids in each class room and the second part considered the division of the school into ten different classes. The third section discussed discipline within the school. In particular discipline was central to the effective running of the school and which utilised particular pupils known as monitors and monitor generals to affect discipline so that learning could occur. The role of the master of a given school was to ensure that all of the monitors carried out their duties as written in the manual. The last part of the manual gave hints for the formation and management of school societies.

In the manual Joseph Lancaster also gave details for his British system of education for girls. Essentially the schools for girls were to follow the same plan as for the boys. However the seating was to be somewhat different so that needlework could be taught and practical work undertaken. Different aspects of needlework were taught throughout the whole school experience. Facsimile reprint of the edition originally published for the benefit of the British and Foreign School Society in 1816 is available at the Archives of Brunel University.

However in 1816 Henry Brougham, who was a lawyer, a member of parliament and a member of the British and Foreign School Society, persuaded the Government to conduct an enquiry into the Education of the Poor. He thought that literacy could be a means of preparing the working class for employment and give them an interest in politics.

Joseph Lancaster designed his own schoolroom so that one master could teach a large number of pupils with the help of monitors at a rate of ten pupils per monitor. The exclusive use of the Bible as the source of all reading lessons was implemented.

Edward Wakefield, James Mill and Henry Brougham planned the systematic organisation of education in the Metropolis.

A meeting of the West London Lancastrian Association held on 2nd August 1813 Edward Wakefield gave an address after an introduction by Sir James

Macintosh. He outlined a number of resolutions for the meeting to agree of which several are given here.

'England, in which useful learning has made so vast a progress, which raises for the public service a hundred millions per annum, which has its docks, its roads, its canals, upon a scale of expense with which no other nation can vie, has no adequate institutions for the education of the majority of the population'.

Initially the Select Committee sought to get the facts about the elementary schools for the poor, discover deficiencies in the educational system and ascertain the state of secondary education within the Metropolis. William Allen described the inadequacies of London's educational provision to the Select Committee (Goldstrom 1972 p. 51).

Subsequently the investigation was extended across the country and in 1818 the data collected revealed that the state of education for the lower orders was incredibly poor. Very many poor children received no education although parents were happy for them to receive an education.

The old buildings, which had served since the establishment of the Borough Road institutions, was showing signs of dilapidation and did not allow for expansion. With specific monies donated by the British and Foreign School Society and the support of its members, which included William Allen, Joseph Fox and several royal dukes, a new building was commissioned in early 1816. New accommodation was needed as a matter of urgency and the Society sought help from government unsuccessfully (Bartle 1976 9.11). In order to raise the necessary finances William Allen, Joseph Fox and some support from a number of royal dukes, worked to raise a sum of several thousand pounds for the new building.

In 1817 a new larger building comprising the school, the training institution and the stores was opened in Borough Road opposite the original site of Joseph Lancaster's school by the Duke of Sussex. The new building could accommodate five hundred boys and three hundred girls as well as a training institution and storerooms (Bartle 1976 p.11). This building survived unchanged to 1834 after which time the building was enlarged.

In 1818 the Parliament of Great Britain launched a detailed investigation into the activities of charitable trusts in England and Wales. This

investigation was the result of lobbying by Henry Brougham and is commonly known as the Brougham Commission. Its report was published in 1819 and became the first of a number of further reports over a period of years (Parliamentary Papers 1819).

In 1818 the report of Brougham's Committee noted that there had been a steady increase in the means of educating the poor in large towns but there was a continued deficiency in the more populated districts of the country. It recommended that the State should provide funds for the building of schools where there were insufficient schools for the relevant population.

Initially the Select Committee sought to get the facts about the elementary schools for the poor, discover deficiencies in the educational system and ascertain the state of secondary education within the Metropolis.

The inquiry was very thorough and the committee concluded that a very large number of poor children did not receive any education. Of significance was the great demand for elementary schools so that poor children could receive an education. However the committee was aware that cost was rather a limiting factor.

Subsequently the investigation was extended across the country. The data collected revealed that the state of education for the lower orders was totally unsatisfactory. Very many poor children received no education although parents were happy for them to receive an education.

The parliamentary report received evidence from a number of people representing different organisations concerned about the children of the poor. The treasurer of the British and Foreign School Society, Mr William Allen, gave evidence regarding costs involved in providing school buildings.

Evidence presented to the Committee by William Allen

'What should you calculate would be the expense, upon the British and Foreign school plan, of giving education to [those who lack it]?'

Expense will vary according to local circumstances; where the number of children is sufficient to form a school of 500 or 600 in one place, the total expense per annum, in my opinion, need not exceed £200 or so much. We generally calculate that the expense per head in the largest schools, should

not exceed five or six shillings; but it is obvious that local circumstances, such as the price of provisions, the rent of premises, etc. will cause a difference in different places.

Should you think twelve shillings a head affair average, taking schools of all sizes into account, one with another? Yes

Do you mean thereby to cover the expenses of school rooms?

All expenses, except those requisite for the first erection of the building.

Then do you mean that from three to four hundred thousands pounds a year would suffice for the education of all the poor now uneducated?

Certainly, if the sum of £400,000 could be devoted to that purpose, every child requiring this sort of education might be provided with it throughout England and Wales, so as to leave not an uneducated person in the country; and in my opinion a much smaller sum would suffice....

Can you give the committee any estimate, generally, of the expenses of a school-room?

The school-room at Kingsland, in the neighbourhood of London, was erected for a less sum than £400 and will contain 300 children; but in many parts of the country, an old barn or an old warehouse might be found, which would prevent the necessity of erecting a new building.

Suppose a grant were made merely of the money required to build the school, and the annual expenses were to be defrayed by subscriptions would such meet with assistance, in your apprehension, in the progress of the system?

In my apprehension it would do everything, because it would encourage benevolent persons in the neighbourhood to promote school associations throughout their districts, on the plan recommended by the British and Foreign School Society, in which the poor themselves would become interested in the education of their children, and receive it, not merely as an act of charity, but as a thing which they themselves had subscribed for.

[Extract from the Report of the Select Committee (1816) p.161 – 162]

The Rector of Saint Clement Danes also provided evidence of the provision made to care for the poor children of the Metropolis. He informed the Select Committee that many children did not go to any school. Many of the children came from extremely poor families where the children had to share

clothes and so often did not leave the homestead (Select Committee 1816 p. 14-17)

Robert Owen outlined details of the curriculum and regime at his mills in New Lanark. His vision of educating every child was important to him. Children as young as three years of age could enter a preparatory school and progress to their ten year. During this period of years the children received a full education which not only involved curricular subjects but also other activities such as engaging in amusements, singing, dancing and playing an instrument for pupils with an interest in music. At all stages the children were supervised. At the age of ten years the children were employed in the mills belonging to Robert Owen (Select Committee 1816 p. 240-241).

The Secretary of the Sunday School Union, Mr W F Lloyd, also gave evidence in support of the evidence produced by both Mr Allen and the Rector of Saint Clement Danes Church. Both men confirmed that the vast majority of the children of the poor did not attend any school. Instead many of the children needed to earn a little money by selling matches, sweeping streets and other small tasks for payment (Select Committee 1818 p.8-9).

In 1815 John Pickton was given an allowance of two hundred pounds per year for his family In addition he was provided with forty guineas a year to support six students at the teacher training institution in Borough Road.

Finally John Pickton was appointed to be the head of the Royal Free School in Borough Road. In his position as head of the Royal Free School, John Pickton had some difficult decisions to make. One of his most important decisions was to inform the British and Foreign School Society about the move of Joseph Lancaster to move to Salvador House. He stated that Joseph Lancaster moved quite suddenly into Salvador House and went to great expense in order to equip it for the pupils in his new commercial school in Tooting.

John Pickton, Superintendent of the Borough Road institutions, informed the Select Committee that there were 500 boys and 250 girls of whom twelve were training as monitors. The estimated cost of training each pupil was forty guineas each year. The training to be trained as a teacher was six months. When asked why the period of training was low John Pickton responded that *'they had already acquired a knowledge of the system in their*

previous school and their chief purpose in coming to Borough Road was *'to acquire the art of governing schools'*.
[Select Committee 1816 p.180-187]

The 1820s

The decade of 1820s saw a number of educational developments ranging from the education of children to the opening of a university in England. Many of these educational initiatives involved Henry Brougham, who was a staunch member of the British and Foreign School Society (New 1961). He entered Parliament in 1810 and sought to promote education for all members of society from the children of poor parents to adults seeking higher education. Henry Brougham sought to extend elementary education throughout the decade and beyond (Molley1939). Particularly in the 1820s Henry Brougham introduced a number of bills with the education of all the members of society in mind.

In 1820 Henry Brougham proposed the Parish Schools Bill which outlined a scheme for producing a national system for the education of poor children. The cost of building the new schools was to be borne by manufacturers and maintained by local rates. School fees would be charged except in the case of children unable to pay the fees. Alas religious prejudice together with a demand for Anglican control of the schools and their teaching met with failure. The Dissenters and Roman Catholics opposed the bill and it was withdrawn. However Henry Brougham had raised the idea that the State should be involved in the education all children.

In the 1820s the British and Foreign School Society was in need of finances. As a result it was necessary to obtain new funds for its work by attempting to get local enthusiasm for its activities. A travelling agent was appointed to be sent round the country to visit local committees and request financial support for the British and Foreign School Society. Despite these efforts the Society remained in debt throughout most of the decade.

The foreign and overseas work of the British and Foreign School Society took a great deal of the committee's time during the 1820s since Joseph Lancaster's trained monitors had taken his memorial system of teaching to a large number of countries across the world. For most of the 1820s the Society did not have a full-time secretary to deal with the mass of correspondence coming from many countries.

In addition to financial problems the Society experienced a period which could best be described as in the '*doldrums*'. Alas John Pickton and his wife, who ran the Borough Road Institutions in the 1820s, did not have the zeal

and enthusiasm of Joseph Lancaster. Unfortunately the committee of the British and Foreign School Society experienced the loss of several prominent members of the Society. In particular the death of the Duke of Kent, who had been a very active supporter of the British and Foreign School Society, was sorely missed. In addition William Allen was often abroad and had many other educational commitments to undertake.

In 1820 William Allen compiled a manual known as *Scripture Lessons for Schools on the British System for Mutual Instruction*. The book was divided into sections illustrating the various duties and responsibilities of the Christian. These sections included *Duties of Parents towards their Children*, *Duties of masters and Servants and Of Anger and Malice*. Quotations were taken directly from the Bible. No comment or interpretation was made so that no accusations of bias towards any particular denomination could be made.

William Allen's book was distributed to all non-conformist schools in 1820. In its preface to the book William Allen commented that no other work of ethics or moral reasoning could equal the Holy Scriptures since God was the author (Allen 1820 preface).

A committee comprising James Mills, Henry Brougham and Zachary Macaulay started a school using Robert Owen's methods in Spitalfields, London in 1820. All three men were prominent members of the British and Foreign School Society. The school was placed in the care of Samuel Wilderspin.

In 1823 Samuel Wilderspin published a document entitled '*On the Importance of Educating the Infant Children of the Poor*'. In this document he demonstrated how three hundred children between the ages of eighteen months and seven years of age could be managed by one master and one mistress.

Samuel Wilderspin saw the educational value of amusement, activities and change. He called the school playground the '*uncovered schoolroom*'. He felt that the playgrounds should have apparatus and planted with trees and shrubs. However he disliked the mechanical methods of the monitorial system.

In 1823 the British and Foreign School Society applied for a government grant but it was rejected by the government. The reason given was '*that it might establish a precedent and extremely inconvenient to Government*' (Binns 1908 p.103).

In 1823 Dr George Birkbeck moved to live and work in London. Prior to his move to London Dr George Birkbeck had worked in Glasgow at the Andersonian University where he offered science and engineering for adult working men. On an evening in December 1823 in London over two thousand people crowded into the Anchor Tavern on the Strand in order to launch London's first Mechanics Institute (Goddard 1884). At this meeting Dr George Birkbeck, J C Hobhouse MP, Jeremy Bentham and Henry Brougham were present to launch this new institution, which was to be dedicated for the education of working people. This institute was an adult education college with finances provided by wealthy local industrialists.

In 1824 the London Infant School Society was formed by people with an interest in improving the education of children including Henry Brougham. The society's objectives were to provide schools for children two to six years of age. Hitherto such children had only been able to access dame schools. Within a year infant schools were established in England, Scotland and Ireland. Samuel Wilderspin acted as an agent for the London Infant School Society. In this capacity Samuel Wilderspin travelled across the country in promoting the society. However the society did not last long.

In 1825 sets of geography and grammar lessons were first issued to the British schools. Each topic utilised the scriptural method of teaching. Precise details of the lessons were given in the British and Foreign School Society's manual.

In 1825 the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge was formed lectures (Percival 1978). The Society was formed as an outcome of a pamphlet written by Henry Brougham entitled *Observations on the Education of the People*. Its objectives were to popularise science and general knowledge with the publication of educational books at low cost. The content of the pamphlet attracted a great deal of attention in the educational world.

Over its existence the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge published a number of texts. One of its most important publications was a

landmark text in cartography. The first publication displayed maps of the old world, which included Europe, Africa, Great Britain etc. The second publication covered maps of the new world, which included America, South Africa, colonies of Australia, South America etc.

In the early 1820s the idea of establishing a new university in London, which was to be free from religious teaching gained momentum. In 1825 the poet Thomas Campbell wrote a letter to Henry Brougham, which was published in *The Times* on 9th February. In this letter Thomas Campbell pleaded for the establishment of a university in London. This idea was warmly welcomed by George Birkbeck, Francis Place, Zachary Macaulay, Joseph Hume and other educationalists of the time. Many of the educationalists were supporters of the British and Foreign School Society. It was the wish of these people to extend affordable education to the middle classes. The supporters advocated a non-residential university charging moderate fees so that the children of the middle classes could access university. The tuition fee was set at twenty-five pounds per annum for all subjects except medicine.

The leading article of *The Times* published on the same day as Thomas Campbell's letter was not sympathetic to the proposal in that letter. In particular the secular constitution met a lot of opposition. Thomas Arnold, headmaster of Mill Hill School, agreed with the opposition as did many non-conformists.

The Glasgow Infant Society was opened in 1826 by David Stow and in the following year he converted a house and garden in a slum area of Glasgow into a school and playground for infant children. During the next few years David Stow developed his method of training his teachers (Stow 1859). He made a distinction between instruction and training. By training David Stow meant the development of right physical and moral habits. He regarded the playground as a valuable adjunct to the classroom. He felt strongly that the children should not be idle but rather have a diet of variety of activities.

David Stow was a religious man and he made religious teaching an integral part of the school work. He did not feel that simply reading the Bible or memorising the Catechism was sufficient. Instead he developed a '*picturing-out*' method. This method was also applied to other oral lessons.

David Stow had developed the *picturing-out* method from his time as a Sunday school teacher early in the nineteenth century. In this method he

used vivid familiar mental images of the Bible stories to interest the children.

David Stow considered that teaching was a highly skilled craft '*awaking thought, stimulating and directing enquiry, and evolving the energies of intellect*' (Quoted in Smith 1931 p.101).

However it had become apparent that there was an increasing need for a national system but strong differing religious views would cause problems. Henry Brougham had raised the idea that the State should be involved in the education of all children.

In 1827 Henry Brougham played a prominent part in the formation of a university free from religious influence. The following year the University of London was founded. It was known as '*the godless institution in Gower Street*', which is now known as University College, London University. The university operated on two major principles, namely that university education should operate at moderate cost and operate irrespective of '*class or creed*'.

A plot of land for the new university was bought in Gower Street. The foundation stone for the London University was laid by the Duke of Sussex in 1827 and the university opened its doors the following year. At this point in time the university did not have a charter. Indeed Cambridge and Oxford universities resisted the new university having a charter.

A number of attempts were made to settle whether the University of London should have teaching functions. These attempts continued for some years. Reform of the University of London was required and a draft constitution for the reconstructed University of London was prepared. Alas it was not possible to get the agreement of all parties involved.

Robert Owen's infant school persuaded Henry Brougham, James Mill and Zachary Macaulay to open such an infant school in Westminster, London. A master, who was named James Buchanan, was recruited from Robert Owen's school. Initially William Allen was a partner in Robert Owen's infant school. However a rift between Robert Owen and William Allen developed and eventually in 1824 the school was placed under the patronage of the British and Foreign School Society

Robert Owen had been an early admirer of Joseph Lancaster's teaching method and he gave one thousand pounds to the British and Foreign School Society. Having established his own primary school in New Lanark he came to realise that Joseph Lancaster's methods had serious limitations.

Robert Owen was aware that very young children were employed in the cotton mills for long periods of time each day. He sought to improve the lot of the children by reducing the hours worked per day to ten hours. Further the minimum age for a child to work in the cotton mills was set to be ten years of age. He gave free education for the children of his employees by providing schools for children to the age of twelve years which were based on the Lancastrian monitorial model for the older children.

Robert Owen considered that the character of a child was moulded at an early age by his/her environment. He showed an interest in the development of each child until adulthood. He wanted the children to be healthy, active and happy. In the infant school instruction was given in order to stimulate the senses. Such items included maps and brightly coloured pictures hung on the walls and simple solid objects placed on the tables/desks so that the children could touch and smell (Quoted in Martin 1979 p.21).

The children were encouraged to get exercise in the open air when weather conditions were suitable. All the children were taught to read, to write and to manage simple arithmetic. Teaching aids were provided by the British and Foreign School Society. Religious education was to be non-sectarian with the Holy Bible used as an aid to teaching. Additionally girls were taught to sew. Dancing, singing and playing a musical instrument were offered and evening classes organised for adults. The syllabus included the 3R's, geography, history, nature study, dancing, singing and drill.

The Council of University College considered approaching the Crown for the granting of a charter but the Anglican party was against the idea and were activated to oppose the charter for University College into action against the proposal.

A significant number of influential people considered that religion had to be an essential constituent of education at all stages. The Rector of Lambeth, Dr George D'Oyley, suggested a second university should be formed in which religious instruction should form part of the education provided. Hence

there was a move to form a college for general education, which was to be located in London.

In May 1828 a meeting was held at which the Prime Minister, the Archbishops of Canterbury and York and other prelates were present. At this meeting the following statement was made:

'It is the opinion of this meeting that a college for general education be founded in the metropolis, in which, while the various branches of literature and science are made the subject of instruction, it shall be an essential part of the system to imbue the minds youth with a knowledge of the doctrines and duties of Christianity as inculcate by the united Church of England and Ireland'.

[Hearnshaw 1929 p.41]

At this meeting a resolution was passed agreeing to the foundation of the new college in which the doctrine and form of worship of the Church of England should be recognised. George IV promised patronage for this venture and the name of the new college was to be called King's College. The new college was granted a Royal Charter of incorporation in 1829.

Finally in 1828 the British and Foreign School Society cleared its debts and was able to appoint a full-time resident secretary Henry Dunn, who was an ex-Borough Road trained teacher and had worked overseas. He had responsibility for dealing with all home and foreign correspondence, which was substantial.

During the period 1828 – 1829 King's College was founded by a group of politicians, churchmen and other eminent persons. In 1829 King's College was opened in the Strand as an Anglican alternative to the secular University College in Gower Street. Its aim was:

'to imbue the minds of youth with a knowledge of the doctrines and duties of Christianity, as inculcated by the United Church of England and Wales'

The repeal of the Test Acts in 1828/29 led to the recognition of civil rights for nonconformists and Roman Catholics. The Catholic Relief Act of 1829 permitted members of the Catholic Church to take seats in Parliament. To that date in time the non-conformists and Roman Catholics had been excluded from holding national or municipal offices (Davis 1999).

Thus the decade ended with members of the Anglican Church and other religious denominations including Roman Catholics being admitted to take an active role in educational activities. All were agreed that every child needed to receive some education.

The 1830s

At the start of the 1830s the public began to demand secular education. At that time there were two main types of schools for the education of the children of the working class either Church of England (National) schools or British and Foreign School Society (BFSS) schools. The BFSS schools were non- denominational or rather non-conformist in their outlook.

The early 1830s gave the working class more free time due to restrictions being placed on employers. Gradually concern grew that this free time was not being spent on useful activities. Some people thought that the people of the working class should select activities which would benefit society and reading was suggested as such a useful activity.

Prior to 1830 neither King's College nor the University of London had been incorporated and did not have the power to grant degrees. The power to grant degrees was opposed by Oxford and Cambridge Universities. The proposition was raised in the House of Commons and the House of Lords. The Privy Council was inundated with petitions and counter-petitions concerning the power to award degrees. However the 1830s decade advanced higher education in London.

The British and Foreign School Society appointed a full-time travelling agent in 1830. His job was to collect subscriptions as well as inspecting British schools. In addition another part-time inspector by name Henry Althans inspected British schools in London. By profession Henry Althans was a corn merchant with an interest in education. He inspected British schools for over twenty years.

In the early 1830s there was interest in having another higher education college in London. The new college was prompted by the Anglican Church. Subscriptions for the proposed new college produced enough money to secure a site in the Strand next to Somerset House. A building was erected and in 1831 King's College together with a Royal Charter was opened and incorporation was secured. Its curriculum was extensive and included the study for religion and morals.

Interest in education started in the 1832 *Representation of the People Act*, more commonly known as the Reform Act, applied to England and Wales. The passing of this act caused many changes to the voting system in the

United Kingdom, since many more people in England and Wales became entitled to vote. The new voters were to have a significant influence on the future educational provision for their children. People living in Scotland and Ireland had their own reform acts, which were also passed in 1832.

The act gave the vote to a significant number of people for the first time. These people largely belonged to the '*middle class*' most of who were involved in newly created industries. These new voters sought to improve the lot of their children and wanted them to be educated. Hence they were to have a significant influence on the future provision for children.

Although the electorate had increased many working class people were still denied the vote as the criterion for having a vote was that the male voter had to have property worth a minimum of ten pounds. Alas this criterion excluded many male working class people and as a result dissatisfaction grew amongst these people. The lack of voting rights led to the formation of the Chartist Movement later in the decade.

At the time there were limited opportunities for the working class to gain books to read as they were expensive to purchase. Hence the idea of providing places where books could be borrowed free of charge was strongly welcomed by reformers with an interest in bettering the opportunities for others and themselves. For workers Mechanic Institutes provided free lectures on subjects of relevance to their working jobs and also some cultural aspects to widen their horizons.

In 1831 the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge founded The Quarterly Journal of Education. Its major founder was Henry Brougham, who sought to bring cheap texts, which were intended to adapt scientific material to the rapidly increasing public. In particular it sought to bring information to people who were unable to obtain formal education. The journal was primarily concerned with educational trends in the United Kingdom but also gave information on educational progress abroad. In addition it produced reviews of educational books (Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge 1831).

A Royal Commission enquired into the Operation of the Poor Laws in 1832 (Appendix 8). The Royal Commission was to inquire into the practical operation of the Poor Laws for the relief of the poor in England and Wales and to report within one year what improvements could be made to them in

order to the manner of administrating them. The final report was published in 1834 (House of Commons 1834 xxvii – xxxix).

In the 1830s instruction was based on the Society's text books produced by Henry Dunn, John Crossley and James Cornwell, all of whom had trained at the Borough Road institution. There was little attempt to stimulate pupils to think independently or relate text book information to things outside the classroom. Due to the nature of the subject, geography had the advantage that it related to the world at large.

In the 1830s there was a battle on-going between the religious organisations and the State. The Church of England wished to control and organise all education in the country whilst government wanted to introduce new ideas to the rapidly growing electorate. Further government believed that it had a right and duty to play a role in the education of the people. For some time the Church had won most skirmishes.

When the Council of London University considered requesting the granting of a charter the Anglican Church opposed the suggestion. Thus King's College was created as a second university, which opened in The Strand in 1831. Hence at this point in time London had two rival colleges based on different principles. Neither of the colleges had the power of granting academic degrees.

Efforts were made to unite the two colleges but all attempts were thwarted by King's College. The Gower Street College petitioned for a charter which was granted in 1836. The original Gower Street College was renamed University College, London (Harte and North 1990). In the same year a Royal Charter created the University of London as a body with power '*to perform all the functions of the examiners in Senate House of Cambridge*'. Eventually in 1836 a compromise was reached. A new body called the University of London was given power to grant degrees in arts, laws, and medicine. King's College and University College became the two founding colleges of the University of London. Now students who took courses at either King's College or University College could be admitted as candidates for the degrees of the University of London.

Originally King's College and University College were satisfied with the compromise but in time defects became apparent. The University of London was merely an organisation for examining candidates and referring degrees.

It was not a teaching body. The original charter for the University of London had authority to affiliate other colleges.

Finances limited the British and Foreign School Society's ability to perform regular inspections across the country. Hence the likelihood of an independent State inspection seemed to pose no threat to a non-denominational body like the British and Foreign School Society. Such State inspections were to have no power to change the management or religious instruction given in their schools.

Alas the National Society viewed the proposed inspection as a threat to the autonomy of the church schools and so opposed the proposed scheme. After a long discussion with the committee of the National Society and James Kay-Shuttleworth, it was agreed with the secretary of the new Committee of Council that Anglican inspectors should inspect National Schools.

In the course of several years Anglican inspectors were recruited to carry out school inspections of church schools. When it became apparent that the National Society had gained this concession, the British and Foreign School Society started to become alarmed and sought reassurance that all inspections should be impartial.

The concerns of the British and Foreign School Society were heightened when the Committee of Council appointed Mr T S Tremenheere, who was a barrister, to be the inspector of British Schools. Mr Tremenheere was opposed to the monitorial system of education and so it was thought that he would be unsympathetic to the methods used in the British Schools. As the tension mounted about Mr Tremenheere's appointment there was pressure within the British and Foreign School Society to free the Society from inspection and State control altogether. Alas this could only be achieved by refusing all governmental grants. It was feared that the Society could be asked to repay the special grant used for rebuilding the Normal School and would have to rely totally on subscriptions to the Society.

In the early part of the 1830s the number of pupils training to be elementary teachers in the Borough Road institution was increasing steadily. As a result the existing building needed urgent expansion. In 1834 the British and Foreign School Society spent twenty-six thousand pounds on enlarging the building in order to provide additional living quarters and classrooms for the evening instruction of trainee teachers (Bartle 1976 p.20). However it soon

became apparent that a new building was required. After much deliberation of alternative locations for the new building, the Committee of the British and Foreign School Society decided that the new building would have to be constructed on the site of the current building.

Clearly more land was required in order to realise these plans so it was necessary to acquire the new land and sufficient finances to buy the land and pay for the new building's construction and fitting. In the end land adjacent to the existing building was leased from the City of London Corporation who owned the land (Bartle 1976 p.20).

In order to raise the necessary finances the British and Foreign School Society launched an appeal to its subscribers. Twenty thousand pounds were raised in this way. To this amount the Corporation of the City of London donated one thousand pounds and a special governmental grant of five hundred pounds was also received.

From the time that Joseph Lancaster started training monitors, his method of teaching quickly expanded across England and to other countries. As a result news from ex-monitors teaching abroad reached Borough Road, Southwark and so the pupils were aware of many countries across the world. Sometimes the teachers trained at Joseph Lancaster's school in Southwark were to be seen visiting their old training college. Whilst there the visitors would speak and talk with the current pupils of the school about their experiences in other countries of the world. In addition Joseph Lancaster and other monitors took the pupils on visits to the British Museum founded in 1753. Some years later monitors took pupils to London Zoo where the pupils witnessed strange animals and unusual artefacts about which they had heard from visitors (BFSS Annual Report 1837 p.45).

In 1833 the urgent need for '*the universal and national education of the whole People*' was raised by Mr A J Roebuck MP. Parliament was provided with the outline of a proposed national education for every person (Hansard 30th July 1833 Vol.XX, cols.139-66). The proposal was debated at length but did not get passed into law but it did arouse a great deal of interest and twenty thousand pounds were allocated by Parliament as a grant for the building of public elementary schools and maintenance in England and Wales (Hansard 1833 series XX1X).

This money was given to the National and British and Foreign School Society to help them build schools. The National Society was under the aegis of the Church of England and became part of the state system of education on accepting the government grant. Its schools were voluntary aided or voluntarily controlled. The British Society was non-conformist and non-denominational and also received government grants. It was soon realised that a committee was needed to administer the grants.

In 1833 Roebuck advocated the education of all children. He made the following statement in the House of Commons:

'Education means, not merely these necessary means or instrument for the acquiring of knowledge but it means also the so training or fashioning the intellectual and moral qualities of the individual, that he may be able and willing to acquire knowledge, and to turn it to its right use'.

[Hansard 1833 XX col.143]

Roebuck moved a motion in the House of Commons stating that:

'This house, deeply impressed with the necessity of providing for a due education of the people at large, and believing that to this end the aid and care of the State are absolutely needed, with early during the next session of Parliament proceed to devise a means for the universal and national education of the whole people'.

[Quoted in Adamson 1830 p.32; Smith 1931 p.138]

Roebuck proposed three types of state schools, namely infant, schools of industry and normal schools for training teachers. In addition evening schools in towns were suggested. Further Roebuck suggested that the country should be divided into school districts, each of which was administered by a committee. The various committees were to be overseen by a Minister of Public Institution. The proposal was debated at length but did not get passed into law (De Montmorency 1902 p. 325)

The original grant was to build schools preferably concentrated in large cities. The voluntary organisations were to supply half the cost of building new school houses. Unfortunately there were no standards for the buildings, no inspection to see that the schools were kept in good order and there was no comment about the teaching in them. The first grants were given on an annual basis from 1833 onwards.

The first grant awarded in 1833 was twenty thousand pounds which was divided between the National Society and the British and Foreign School Society. The National Society received eleven thousand pounds and the British and Foreign School Society nine thousand pounds (Kay-Shuttleworth 1862 p.235). It was soon realised that there was no accountability for these grants so some means of checking on the use to which the grants were made needed to be agreed. This started to happen in 1839.

In 1834 the Poor Law Amendment Act was passed. This act was to provide for the amendment and better administration of the laws relating to the poor of England and Wales. In this act the poverty relief system of England was radically reformed. Its task was to devise a national system for dealing with poverty.

Relief was based around the concept of a Union Workhouse. In order to achieve this end the parishes were put into Poor Law Unions each of which had its own workhouse. The work houses were locally managed. A Poor Law Commission was established with a remit to oversee the national operation of the system. This Commission was to be independent of Parliament. The work houses were there to provide relief mainly for the old, infirm and orphans.

The Poor Law Amendment Act ensured daily instruction to pauper children of three hours per day. The Poor Law Unions had to appoint a schoolmaster and/or schoolmistress to teach the children. Further the act proposed setting up district schools away from their work house premises.

In 1834 Lord Brougham persuaded a Parliamentary Committee of the House of Commons to consider a system of national education. He stated that it was the government's duty to provide training for the elementary school teachers. In particular he emphasised the importance of establishing training teachers for work in elementary schools. Further he proposed that four Normal Schools should be established in different parts of the country, namely London, Exeter, Lancaster and York.

In 1834 the Parliamentary Select Committee on the State of Education raised the issue of the adequacy of teacher training and the social status of teachers. John Crossley of the Borough Road Institution gave evidence to this

committee. He told the committee that the teacher training course lasted three months.

Also in the same year the *Report of the Parliamentary Committee on the State of Education* commented on the educational provision provided at the time. In particular the report considered the training of teachers, their salaries and affiliation to a religious denomination. The academic standard of the teachers had been of concern for some years. It was felt that a rise in salary could provide better qualified and more motivated teachers.

Mr Dunn (Secretary of the BFSS) and Mr Crossley (Master of the Joseph Lancaster Memorial School) gave evidence to the Select Committee. In their evidence they gave detailed information on the training of their teachers for work in elementary schools.

'They are required to rise every morning at five o'clock, and spend an hour before seven in private study. At seven o'clock they are assembled and questioned together in a Bible class and questioned as to their knowledge of the Scriptures. From nine – twelve they are employed as monitors in the school, learning to communicate that which they had already know or are supposed to know. From two to five they are employed in a similar way and from five to seven they were engaged under a master who instructs them in arithmetic and the elements of geometry, geography, and the globes, or in other branches in which they may be deficient. The remainder of the evening is generally occupied in preparing exercises for the subsequent day. One object is to keep them incessantly employed from five in the morning to ten at night. We have rather exceeded in the time devoted to study to the limit we would choose on account of the very short period we are able to keep them, and we have found in some instances that their health has suffered on account of their having been previously unaccustomed to mental occupation'.

[Select Committee on Education 1834 Minutes of Evidence p. 232]

In the statement to the Select Committee it was noted that the object of the daily timetable was intended to keep the trainee teachers fully occupied from 5.00 am in the morning until 10.00 pm in the evening. This regime was very hard on the trainee teachers many of whom were not accustomed to the mental rigour of the course and the somewhat harsh conditions of their accommodation in the hostel provided for them. As a result some of the trainee teachers failed to survive the short course of three months' duration.

At that time such failed students could find alternative employment with remunerations better than the salary paid to a school master.

The following year a report of the Parliamentary Committee on the State of Education gave information about proposed compulsory education to be provided by the State and investigate the training of teachers. In particular the salaries of teachers and their religious affiliations and concerns were examined. In this committee Lord Brougham again stated that it was the government's duty to provide training for the elementary school teachers (Hansard, 21 May 1835 col.1332). Further Lord Brougham suggested that four schools in different parts of England for the training of such teachers should be established. Later in 1835 the government set aside the sum of ten thousand pounds to be used for the building of normal schools.

Unfortunately the *Report on the State of Education* raised a number of problems which the Select Committee seemed unable to tackle. In particular the major issues concerned the finances and machinery required to introduce a national scheme of schooling.

In order to achieve this proposal there was clearly a need to have a Board of Education which was under the control of parliament. It advocated that state inspectors should be appointed to inspect the schools with a remit to check the curricula of the school, the teachers and their buildings.

James Silk Buckingham MP introduced a bill to parliament, which would permit boroughs to change a tax to establish libraries and museums (Kelly 1977). Alas this bill did not become law but it did influence William Ewart MP and Joseph Brotherton MP. These two members of parliament introduced a bill which would allow boroughs with a population in excess of ten thousand to raise one half penny for the establishments of museums.

During the 1830s there was a revival of mutual improvement societies amongst elementary teachers. London teachers working in British schools asked the British and Foreign School Society for money to form an organisation which would enable them to share mutual interests.

'To form an association, with the object of going through regular courses of study, passing examinations, holding meetings, lectures and essay and discussion groups on the government of discipline of schools and best methods of teaching.

[British Teachers' Reporter 1836 Number 1p.1]

The British and Foreign School Society agreed to this request. In 1836 the British Teachers' Quarterly Association started to hold meetings at Borough Road. Also in that year the Home and Colonial Infant School Society was established to train teachers for infant schools (Whitbread 1972).

The Infant School Society, which was founded by the Anglican Church in 1836, was originally based in the Gray's Inn Road in London. The founders of this society were educationalists Elizabeth and Charles Mayo, J P Greaves and J S Reynolds, all of whom were advocates of the Pezzalozzi method. The Society combined formal teacher training with the education of pupils. It was concerned with the systematic infant education of a time when this was not seen as important. In particular the Society was against catechisms and rote learning of all kinds. Queen Victoria was the patroness of the Infant School Society.

The aim of the Society was:

'for the Improvement and Extension of the Infant School System and Home and Abroad and the Education of Teachers'.

[The Times 21st February 1837]

In 1836 an alternative to the National Society and the British and Foreign School Society was formed. It was called The Central Society of Education and Lord Denman was its President and its function was to keep religion out of the schools altogether (Parkin 1975, Ely 1982). Hitherto the elementary schools, which were run by the British and Foreign School Society and the National Society, had religious connections.

The Committee of the Central Society included eighteen Members of Parliament. The Society's aims were to improve society by secular means and declared itself neutral of religious affairs. It was the intention of the Society to examine all matters relevant to the education of children. In particular the Society wanted a national scheme of education established rather than having a voluntary system, which was not working well.

Although the National Society and the British and Foreign School Society were providing education for the children of poor parents, the voluntary system was failing.

The new society aimed to keep religion out of schools altogether, thereby becoming secular schools (Ely and University of Leeds 1972). It wanted to have a national educational system with money allocated to distribute. In order to achieve this proposal there was clearly a need to have a Board of Education which was under the control of Parliament. It advocated that state inspectors should be appointed to inspect the schools with a remit to check the curricula of the school, the teachers and their buildings.

Immediately after its foundation the Central Society of Education was demanding a government authority to found their own schools and train teachers for them i.e. a national educational system with money allocated to distribute what was wanted (Central Society of Education 1837). In addition it had become obvious that there was a need to supervise the grants given to different societies (Parkin and University of Leeds 1976).

In 1836 an alternative to the National Society and the British and Foreign School Society was formed. The new society, which was called the Central Society of Education, aimed to keep religion out of schools altogether, thereby becoming secular schools (Ely and University of Leeds 1972). Until 1837 there were only three establishments recognised as teacher training colleges, namely Borough Road College, National Society's Training Centre in Westminster and the Home and Colonial Infant School Society's Training Institution.

The Chartist Movement, which started in 1838, attempted to make political and social reform in the United Kingdom (Thomson 1950). It was the first working class labour movement and was caused by the inequities remaining after the passing of the 1832 Reform Act. Members of this movement, commonly known as Chartists, attempted to achieve democracy as a step on the road to social and economic reform. The members of this movement proposed to inquire '*what is and what ought to be the education of both sexes of all classes*' (The Central Society of Education 1837 Vol.1 p.3).

The Chartists made six main demands which included votes for all men. There was a desire for equal electoral districts to be created. In particular the Chartists wanted to have the requirement that members of parliament did not

have to be property owners. Further the Member of Parliament should be paid for his services. An election should be held every year by secret ballot (Goodway 1982). The movement did not last for many years but it brought the idea of universal voting rights for all men (Charlton 1997).

Parliamentary reform was sought including universal male suffrage, equal electoral districts, secret ballots, annual parliaments, abolishment of the property qualification to vote and payment for members of Parliament. The movement did not last for many years but it brought the idea of universal voting rights for all men (Charlton 1997).

The Chartists organised a petition and got more than a million signatures in order to present it to the House of Commons. Unfortunately the charter was rejected. Two further petitions were presented to the House of Commons but both were also rejected. The movement ceased after the third rejection. However it did raise the issue that more people wanted to have a part to play in the government of the country (Everett 1999).

In 1839 a state system of inspection was established applicable to all grant aided educational institutions. Initially the Society welcomed this initiative as the Secretary of the Society and the master of the school at Borough Road appreciated that inspection of all such schools was needed. Although the Society had a full-time inspector from 1830 he was not able to visit all the Society's schools nor could the Society afford to pay all his salary and all expenses incurred in the performance of this task. The Society felt that state inspection posed no threat to a non-denominational organisation as it was confirmed that the inspectors would not have any power to interfere with the management or religious instruction of the schools.

On 4th February 1839 Lord John Russell wrote to Lord Lansdowne outlining the Queen's deep concern about the lack of education for all of her subjects. In particular the concerns included a lack of qualified schoolmasters, the imperfect mode of teaching, the nature of the instruction given in the schools and the need for a model school to assist in the training of potential school teachers. Above all reference was made to a lack of governmental legislation to remedy these defects.

In the letter Lord Russell suggested that a committee or board with a remit to consider all aspects of the education of the Queen's subjects should be

established. The board or committee was to have a chair and consist of four other members selected from high ranking government officials.

Interestingly at this point in time Lord Russell was the Home Secretary and Lord Lansdowne was the Lord Chancellor. Both these men were long term subscribers to the work of the British and Foreign School Society. Further Lord Russell was the son of the Duke of Bedford, who at this time was President of the British and Foreign School Society. Lord Russell attended the annual inspection of the British schools (Bartle 1976 p 20).

Thus later in the year a Committee of the Privy Council on Education was established. Its remit was to consider '*all matters that affected the education of the people*'. The committee comprised:

The Lord President of the Council
The Lord Privy Seal
The Chancellor of the Exchequer
The Secretary of State for the Home Department
The Master of the Mint

All five of these people were influential members appointed by the government. This committee, who adopted a positive approach to educational policy, soon set about establishing the normal or model school. Soon the Board of Education announced that a State Normal School for the training of elementary school teachers was proposed. However there was a great deal of opposition to this proposal mainly on the issue surrounding the arrangements for religious instruction in the school. Anglicans opposed the nonconformists having a major role and the nonconformists objected to the dominant role accorded to the Anglicans. As a result the proposal had to be postponed.

The committee, to be known as the Committee of Council for Education of the Privy Council, saw the formation of an embryo education department. The committee was established by Dr James Philips-Kay, who assumed the assumed the post of its first secretary.

The advent of the Committee of Council in 1839 had to tackle some immediate problems regarding the education of the children of the poor. The Committee of Council's first task was to raise the level of commitment of the government towards the education of the children of the poor. The

shortage of qualified teachers meant that there was a need to establish model schools for the purpose of training more teachers. It was felt that there was a lack of examination of the nature of the instruction given and the method of teaching the pupils, which was found in the majority of schools.

The government felt that the attention of the Committee of Council should be directed to the absence of any official inspection of the schools in receipt of parliamentary grants. These grants had been awarded for six years when the Committee of Council was formed and amounted to an increase of ten thousand pounds (May and Greer 1973 p.6).

Alas the plan for a state or national normal school was considered by the Privy Council but not approved. However the grant was raised to thirty pounds in 1839 to be divided between the two voluntary societies, namely the British and Foreign School Society and the National Society.

Within a few days of the Committee's formation the notion of the *normal school* was formulated. These normal schools would provide the environment for candidates aiming to become teachers in schools for the poor children could acquire the knowledge necessary to become successful teachers. In the normal schools the trainee teachers could practise their skills in the approved methods of training and instruction before gaining a post as a certificated teacher.

The trainee teachers were to be resident in the training establishment which provided the qualified teachers to provide them with the necessary knowledge and methods of teaching to become certificated teachers. Each normal school was to have two schools for children associated with it.

The immediate tasks of the newly formed committee were to establish a normal school where best practise could be seen, apply for an annual allocation of funds to the National and British Schools and consider gratuities to serving teachers who demonstrated very good teaching. Further the normal or model school should offer the following facets as part of the teaching, namely religious instruction, general instruction, moral training and habits of industry.

Alas the plan for a state or national normal school was considered by the Privy Council but not approved. However the grant was raised to thirty thousand pounds in 1839 to be divided between the two voluntary societies,

namely the British and Foreign School Society and the National Society (May and Greer 1976 p.6).

The Education Department of the Committee of Council appointed inspectors early in its existence (Ball 1939). Her Majesty's Inspectorate started work in 1839 with a remit to inspect schools within their appointed region of the country. It soon became apparent very many of the school sites and their buildings needed to be improved and controlled by the Education Department.

One of the first duties of the Committee of Council was to determine the way in which grants to the schools should be distributed. In July 1839 the Committee of Council issued a Minute which stated that all future building grants would involve the right of inspection.

'The right of inspection will be required by the Committee in all cases; inspectors, authorised by Her Majesty in Council, will be appointed from time to time to visit schools to be henceforth aided by public money: the inspectors will not interfere with religious instruction, or discipline, or management of the school, it being their object to collect facts and information, and to report the result of their inspections to the Committee of Council'.

[Minutes of Committee of Council 24th September 1839 p.2]

The Daily Lesson Book was the first secular reading book to be produced by the British and Foreign School Society in 1839. It was written to accompany the text entitled *Scripture Lessons*. Altogether four *Daily Lesson Books* were published by Mr Crossley, head teacher of the Practising School attached to the Borough Road Training College of the British and Foreign School Society, immediately after the Society had rescinded its rule confining reading to the scriptures.

The first book was a primer; the second a spelling and reading book; the third a prose and poetry reader and the fourth a class book consisting of lessons in geography, history and natural philosophy. The amount of actual reading material was comparatively small, but each lesson was to be made an avenue to a great store of miscellaneous information. A reading lesson on books, for example, provided the occasion for an object lesson on book.

With the collapse of the Normal School plan, the newly appointed secretary of the Committee of Council on Education by name Dr James Phillips Kay decided that he would himself promote the normal school idea. Dr James Phillips Kay was convinced that he needed to improve the supply and quality of teachers. Hence in his role as secretary of this committee, Dr James Phillips Kay sought to secure grants for the voluntary teacher training colleges. In addition as a private individual he founded together with a friend an experimental teacher training college in Battersea.

On 24th September 1839 the Committee of Council stated that the conditions required in order to receive a building grant: *“Every building ... should be of substantial erection, and that in the plans thereof not less than six square feet be provided for each child”*.

[Minutes of Committee of Council 1839-1840 p.2]

Accompanying the application it was essential to include detailed plans for a school house, the master's house, and the children's playground.

In the late 1830s the conditions under which the student teachers lived and worked were extremely harsh. The students had little time to reflect on their day's activities. Some of the student teachers did not survive the course of training. At that time all the student teachers were in residence and a copy of the relevant regulations for being in residence are given in Appendix 5.

The conscience clause was instituted by the Board of Education in December 1839. This clause had to be included in the trust deeds of any school which wished to have a share in the annual grant from the Treasury. This clause did not apply to any school connected with the British and Foreign School Society or the National Society. The statement which needed to be inserted in the trust deeds was as follows:

‘And it is hereby declared that the instruction at the said school shall comprise at least the following branches of school learning, namely reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, Scripture history and (in the case of girls) needlework: and it is further declared that it shall be a fundamental regulation and practice of the said school that the Bible be read daily therein and that no child shall be required to learn any catechism or other religious formulary or to attend any Sunday School or place of worship to which his or her parent or other person having the custody of such child shall on religious grounds object, but the selection of such Sunday School

and place of worship shall in all cases, be left to the free choice of such parent or person, without the child's thereby incurring any loss of the benefits and privileges of the school the trusts whereof are hereby declared'. [Quoted in Garfit 1868 p.4]

Circular 1, which was published in December 1839, comprised a set of forty-two questions. All questions had to be completed by the applicant before a building grant was given. The questions covered the size of the building, the nature of the tenure, names of the trustees and the specification for its walls, windows, roof, floors and ventilation.

'The mode of ventilating and warming the school is of such importance to the health of the masters and scholars, that it ought to be most carefully considered by the school committee, and a sketch of the air-grates and flues should be included in the sectional drawings. The school committee will find useful explanatory of the plans of school-houses published in the 8vo edition of the Minutes of the Committee of Council'
[Minutes of Committee of Council 1839-1840 p.11]

In 1839 the Queen asked via Lord John Russell to request the Lord President of the Privy Council to form a Board or Committee. Such a Committee of the Privy Council of Education was established. Its remit was to consider *'all matters affecting the Education of the People'* (Quoted in Maclure 1974 p.43).

Finances limited the British and Foreign School Society's ability to perform regular inspections across the country. Hence the likelihood an independent State inspection seemed to pose no threat to a non-denominational body like the British and Foreign School Society. Such State inspections were to have no power to change the management or religious instruction given in their schools.

Alas the National Society viewed the proposed inspection as a threat to the autonomy of the church schools and so opposed the proposed scheme. After a long discussion with the committee of the National Society and James Kay-Shuttleworth, it was agreed with the secretary of the new Committee of Council and the Committee of Council that Anglican inspectors should inspect National Schools. In the course of several years Anglican inspectors were recruited to carry out school inspections of church schools. When it became apparent that the National Society had gained this concession, the

British and Foreign School Society started to become alarmed and sought reassurance that all inspections should be impartial.

In 1833 the urgent need for '*the universal and national education of the whole People*' was raised by Mr A J Roebuck MP (Hansard 1833 XX cols. 133 – 166). Parliament was provided with the outline of a proposed national education for everyone.

In the early part of the 1830s the number of pupils training to be elementary teachers in the Borough Road institution was increasing steadily. As a result the existing building needed urgent expansion.

In 1834 the British and Foreign School Society twenty-six thousand pounds were spent on enlarging the building in order to provide additional living quarters and classrooms for the evening instruction of trainee teachers. However it soon became apparent that a new building was required.

In the following year Lord Brougham again stressed the urgent need for trained teachers who could provide popular education for the country's children. In particular he emphasised the need for '*seminaries where good schoolmasters might be trained*' (Hansard, 21 May 1835. Vol. XXVII, col. 1332). He received a quick response to his words for within a few weeks Lord Russell persuaded the House of Commons to provide ten thousand pounds to assist the building of Normal Schools.

However the proposed national education for all did arouse a great deal of interest and twenty thousand pounds were allocated by Parliament as a grant for the building of public elementary schools and maintenance in Great Britain (Hansard 3rd series XXIX). This money was given to the National and British and Foreign School Society to help them build schools. The National Society was under the aegis of the Church of England and became part of the state system of education on accepting the government grant. Its schools were voluntary aided or voluntarily controlled. The British Society was non-conformist and non-denominational and also received government grants. It was realised that a committee was needed to administer the government grants.

In 1835 Lord Brougham re-emphasised the necessity to train teachers for elementary schools declaring that the most urgent need of popular education

was *'for seminaries where good schoolmasters may be trained'* (Hansard 1935 XXVII col. 1332).

A few weeks lapsed before Lord John Russell, a supporter of the British and Foreign School Society, persuaded the House of Commons to provide grants for the building of normal schools in Great Britain. Government set aside the sum of ten thousand pounds to be used for the building of normal schools. This was the first government grant for public education in Great Britain except for Army education, which had been grant aided from 1812.

However it did arouse a great deal of interest and a few days later twenty thousand pounds were allocated by Parliament as a grant for the building and maintenance of public elementary schools in England and Wales under the auspices of two religious societies. This money was given to the National Society (Church of England schools) and the British and Foreign School Society which was non- denominational or rather non-conformist in its outlook (May and Greer 1973). The schools of the societies were known as National Schools and British Schools respectively. The National Society was under the aegis of the Church of England and became part of the state system of education on accepting the government grant. Its schools were voluntary aided or voluntarily controlled. Furthermore the action of receiving grants from government revealed a need for an organisation/committee to be formed in order to deal with the grants.

In 1835, James Silk Buckingham MP became the Chair of a Select Committee, which would examine *'the extent, causes, and consequences of the prevailing vice of intoxication among the labouring classes of the United Kingdom'* and propose solutions (HCPP 1835). Francis Place, a campaigner for the working class and had been a member of the British and Foreign School Society, agreed that *'the establishment of parish libraries and district reading rooms, and popular lectures on subjects both entertaining and instructive to the community might draw off a number of those who now frequent public houses for the sole enjoyment they afford'* (HCPP 1835).

James Silk Buckingham MP introduced to Parliament a Public Institution Bill, which would permit boroughs to charge a tax to establish libraries and museums. Although this bill did not become law, it had a major influence on William Ewart MP and Joseph Brotherton MP.

During the 1830s there was a revival of mutual improvement societies amongst elementary teachers. London teachers working in British schools asked the British and Foreign School Society for money to form an organisation which would enable them to share mutual interests. Professor Asher Tropp stated the aims of the organisation as:

'To form an association, with the object of going through regular courses of study, passing examinations, holding meetings, lectures and essay and discussion groups on the government of discipline of schools and best methods of teaching.

[British Teachers' Reporter 1836 Number 1p.1]

The Central Society of Education was founded in 1836 with Lord Denman as its president. Its committee included eighteen Members of Parliament. The Society's aims were to improve society by secular means and declared being neutral of religious affairs. It was the intention of the Society to examine all matters relevant to the education of children. In particular the Society wanted a national scheme of education established rather than having a voluntary system, which was not working well. Although the National Society and the British and Foreign School Society were providing education for the children of poor parents, the voluntary system was failing.

In the same year Lord Brougham persuaded a Parliamentary Committee of the House of Commons to consider a system of national education. In particular he emphasise the importance of establishing training teachers for work in elementary schools. Further he proposed that four Normal Schools should be established in different parts of the country, namely London, Exeter, Lancaster and York.

In 1834 the Parliamentary Committee on the State of Education
Also in the same year the *Report of the Parliamentary Committee on the State of Education* commented on the educational provision provided at the time. In particular the report considered the training of teachers, their salaries and affiliation to a religious denomination. In addition the issue of the adequacy of teacher training and the social status of teachers were raised.

The academic standard of the teachers had been of concern for some years. It was felt that a rise in salary could provide better qualified and more motivated teachers.

Mr Dunn (Secretary of the BFSS) and Mr Crossley (Master of the Joseph Lancaster Memorial School) gave evidence to the Select Committee. In their evidence they gave detailed information on the training of their teachers for work in elementary schools.

They stated that the trainee teachers were kept hard at work throughout the day. Their day started at 5.00 am and had to undertake one hour of private study. At 7.00 am the trainee teachers assembled together for a Bible class followed by questions on their knowledge of the Scriptures. From 9.00 am to 12.00 noon the trainee teachers were engaged as monitors in the schools learning how to teach the knowledge that they had obtained in lectures. Their work as monitors then continued after a break for the afternoon session from 2.00 am to 5.00 pm. In the evening they were taught by a master in those elements of arithmetic, geometry, the globes and other areas of the school curriculum where the trainee teachers could benefit from further instruction. The remainder of the evening was spent in preparing the lessons for the following day.

Unfortunately the *Report on the State of Education* raised a number of problems which the Select Committee seemed unable to tackle. In particular the major issues concerned the finances and machinery required to introduce a national scheme of schooling.

In order to achieve this proposal there was clearly a need to have a Board of Education which was under the control of parliament. It advocated that state inspectors should be appointed to inspect the schools with a remit to check the curricula of the school, the teachers and their buildings.

Subscriptions for the proposed new university college produced enough money to secure a site in the Strand next to Somerset House. A building was erected and in 1831 King's College together with a Royal Charter was opened. Its curriculum was extensive and included the study for religion and morals.

Neither King's College nor the University of London had been incorporated and did not have the power to grant degrees. In 1831 incorporation was secured. However the power to grant degrees was opposed by Oxford and Cambridge Universities. The proposition was raised in the House of Commons and the House of Lords. The Privy Council was inundated with petitions and counter-petitions concerning the power to award degrees. The

first Senate of the University of London was appointed by the government in 1837 (Curtis 1968 p.423). The membership of the Senate included Dr Thomas Arnold, headmaster of Rugby School, and Michael Faraday.

A new body called the University of London was given powers '*to perform all the functions of examiners in the Senate House of Cambridge*'. Degrees in arts, laws, and medicine were instituted. Students who took courses at either King's College or University College could be admitted as candidates for the degrees of the University of London. The first graduates were obtained in 1839. Attempts were made to unite King's College and University College but all efforts were refuted.

The University of London was merely an organisation for examining candidates and conferring degrees. At this point in time the university was not a teaching body. Its affiliated colleges teaching the degree students had no organic relationship with the university.

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Interestingly at this point in time Lord Russell was the Home Secretary and Lord Lansdowne was the Lord Chancellor. Both these men were long term subscribers to the work of the British and Foreign School Society. Further Lord Russell was the son of the Duke of Bedford, who at this time was President of the British and Foreign School Society. Lord Russell attended the annual inspection of the British schools (Bartle 1976 p 20).

In 1839 the Queen asked via Lord John Russell to request the Lord President of the Privy Council to form a Board or Committee. Such a Committee of the Privy Council of Education was established. Its remit was to consider '*all matters affecting the Education of the People*' (Quoted in Maclure 1974 p.43). The committee comprised:

This committee, to be known as the Committee of Council for Education of the Privy Council, saw the formation of an embryo education department. The committee was established by Dr James Philips-Kay, who assumed the assumed the post of its first secretary.

The advent of the Committee of Council in 1839 had to tackle some immediate problems regarding the education of the children of the poor, namely:

1. the shortage of qualified teachers;
2. the method of teaching found in the vast majority of the schools;
3. absence of sufficient inspection of the schools;
4. lack of the examination of the nature of the instruction given;
5. the need for model schools to be established.
6. the lack of attention given by government to the subject of educating the children of the poor.

The government felt that the priority for the attention of the Committee of Council was to deal with the absence of any official inspection of the schools in receipt of parliamentary grants. These grants had been awarded for six years when the Committee of Council was formed and amounted to an increase of ten thousand pounds (May and Greer 1973 p.6).

Within a few days of the Committee's formation the notion of the *normal school* was formulated. These normal schools would provide the environment for candidates aiming to become teachers in schools for the poor children could acquire the knowledge necessary to become successful teachers. In the normal schools the trainee teachers could practise their skills in the approved methods of training and instruction before gaining a post as a certificated teacher.

The trainee teachers were to be resident in the training establishment which provided the qualified teachers with the necessary knowledge and methods of teaching to become certificated teachers. Each normal school was to have two schools for children associated with it.

The immediate tasks of the newly formed committee were to establish a normal school where best practise could be seen, apply for an annual allocation of funds to the National and British Schools and consider

gratuities to serving teachers who demonstrated very good teaching. Further the normal or model school should offer the following facets as part of the teaching, namely religious instruction, general instruction, moral training and habits of industry.

The Education Department appointed inspectors early in its existence (Ball 1939). Her Majesty's Inspectorate started work in 1839 with a remit to inspect schools within their appointed region of the country. It soon became apparent very many of the school sites and their buildings needed to be improved and controlled by the education department.

In September 1839 the Committee of Council stated that the conditions required in order to receive a building grant. *“Every building ... should be of substantial erection, and that in the plans thereof not less than six square feet be provided for each child”*.

Circular 1, which was published in December 1839, comprised a set of forty-two questions. All questions had to be completed by the applicant before a building grant was given. The questions covered the size of the building, the nature of the tenure, names of the trustees and the specification for its walls, windows, roof, floors and ventilation. Accompanying the application it was essential to include detailed plans for a schoolhouse, the master's house, and the children's playground.

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dominant role accorded to the Anglicans. As a result the proposal had to be postponed.

Hence in his role as secretary of the Committee, Dr James Phillips Kay sought to secure grants for the voluntary teacher training colleges. In addition as a private individual he founded together with a friend an experimental teacher training college in Battersea. The teacher training college in Battersea, which was founded in 1838, did not last long as an independent institution. It became part of the National Society's colleges in 1841.

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Discipline of the students in the Joseph Lancaster's school and its residential accommodation were articulated in writing. The rules and regulations were reported in the 1839 Annual Report of the British and Foreign School Society (Appendix 2).

After school hours the students were supervised by a resident curator (later known as the Superintendent), who was assisted by two senior students, were responsible for their conduct. A daily written report had to be made and given to the secretary. The rules and regulations were strictly followed.

In particular the students were not allowed to leave the building without permission of the curator. In order to confirm their presence four roll calls were taken during the day. The curator also supervised the private study periods of the students. In addition the curator officiated at morning and evening prayers and presided at meal times. The students had to remain standing until the curator and the housekeeper had taken their seats. The meal was eaten in silence with the students showing good behaviour. Any bad behaviour such as loud singing, loud talking or any other unacceptable actions were strictly forbidden and the offenders were reported to the committee. Even minor infringements such as leaving books or articles of dress around the dormitories or classrooms, were punished by a fine. The dormitory cubicles were put out of bounds during the day and conversation was forbidden after the students had retired for the night. (Bartle 1976 p.25)

As soon as the Committee of Council of the Privy Council was established in 1839, government became concerned about the lack of qualified teachers and the absence of any official inspection of the schools receiving a parliament grant posed administrative problems. Hence these problems needed to be addressed.

As soon as the Committee of Council of the Privy Council was established Within a few days of the establishment of the Committee of Council plans were put forward to formulate a scheme for a '*normal school*'. The Committee of Council considered that a normal school:

'was a school in which the candidates for the office of teacher in schools for the poorer classes may acquire the knowledge necessary to the exercise of their future profession and may be practised in the most approved methods of religious and moral training and instruction'.

Quoted in Adamson 1930 p.124]

The trainee teachers were to be resident in the institution where they were to receive instruction. Two schools for children were to be associated with the normal school.

The 1840s

Prior to the 1840s the vast majority of teachers were trained in '*normal schools*' or in centres attached to schools. The one exception to this method of learning the techniques of teaching was the residential college established by Joseph Lancaster and latterly known as Borough Road College.

The Committee of Council issued a brief for the inspectors of schools very soon after its formation (Committee of Council on Education 1840 – 1841 p.1-11). The brief was entitled '*Instructions to Inspectors*' and was accompanied by a list of 174 questions for their guidance. Further it was to be noted that the inspection was not intended as a means of exercising control rather the inspection should afford assistance to the schools (Minutes of the Committee of Council 1839-1840 p.22). The first priority of the inspectors was to ensure that public money was well spent. Secondly the inspectors were to collect information on discipline, management and methods of instruction in schools.

In the early 1840s many of the early the training institutions largely followed the pattern of the Swiss training system practised in their schools, which had been established several decades earlier. The curriculum included both academic and practical subjects, namely elementary work, practical work in various practical subjects including drawing, science, geography, mensuration and accounts. In addition there was an attempt to introduce education as a subject with theoretical and practical components.

In 1840 Dr James Phillip-Kay with his friend Mr E Carleton Tufnell established a residential teacher training school in Battersea, which was soon receiving a grant from the Committee of Council. His training school, otherwise known as a '*normal school*', was the equivalent of the teacher training college. It recruited two types of students, namely pupil-teachers from institutions like Norwood and older men between the ages of twenty to thirty. A year long course, which included a study of academic subjects and methods of teaching, was provided at this teacher training school in Battersea.

Dr James Phillip-Kay had been influenced by Pestalozzi and Fellberg. The life style could be described as spartan. The students rose at 5.30am with and undertook domestic and garden activities until 8.00am. Meals, school and gardening alternated throughout the day until 9.00pm. The students had to

make their own beds, scrub floors, clean their boots, lay tables and prepare vegetables, Outdoors they had to look after animals, and grow vegetables and fruit for the needs of their community.

Many of the students were found to lack basic educational skills and the course started teaching those elementary subjects, prior to embarking on the curriculum. Mensuration, land survey, geography, elementary science, accounts, drawing and music formed the curriculum. The religious instruction followed the Anglican tradition and on Sundays each student had to go to the Battersea Parish Church. Alas this teacher training school quickly ran into financial difficulties and in 1843 the college was given to the National Society to administer.

In the early part of the decade the National Society opened residential teacher training colleges starting in the London area. St John's College was a residential college for men started in 1840 and in the following year the Church of England opened Whiteland's College, a teacher training institution for women wishing to teach in elementary schools in Roehampton.

The Education Department of the Committee of Council took a close look at teacher supply. Dr James Phillips-Kay was convinced that he needed to improve the supply and quality of teachers. Later Dr James Phillips-Kay changed his name on marriage to Sir James Kay-Shuttleworth in 1842. He sought to pursue a progressive form of education.

The minutes of the Committee of Council of 1840 gave details of plans and specifications for different types of schools. Firstly the monitorial schools centered on Joseph Lancaster and Andrew Bell was considered to be one type. The second type of school was described as a '*mixed and simultaneous*' school utilising the method devised by David Stow and Samuel Wilderspin. In this method the pupils were divided into classes with each class being taught by a separate teacher. Interest in the fabric of the buildings, both inside and outside, was considered as well as the lodgings allocated to the teacher in charge of the school. At last the interest shown in school buildings brought about the need for architects with an interest in the design of schools for pupils.

In 1840 the Committee of Council began to control school sites and buildings as they were reported by Her Majesty's Inspectors to be in urgent

need of improvement. The Committee of Council engaged an architect by the name of H. E. Kendall to produce an album of designs for schools. He produced a design which became a model for a Victorian church school. The design incorporated playgrounds and galleries around the classrooms. The galleries enabled pupil-teachers to witness the lessons. Afterwards the pupil-teachers were able to discuss the lessons with their mentor. By 1847 a typical Victorian school had been designed for building new schools.

In 1840 a Concordat with the National Society regarding the inspection of schools was agreed with the Established Church (Committee of Council 1839 – 1840 p.21). The archbishops had the right of nominating persons as inspectors of Church schools. The instructions to the inspectors as regards religious teaching and the instructions issued to them by the Committee of Council were to be shown to the archbishops before they received sanction.

The religious societies utilised tailor-made model texts for use by the elementary schools. The British and Foreign School Society was one of the first societies to produce texts known as *Daily Lesson Books* during the period 1840 – 1842. These texts were written by Henry Dunn and J T Crossley, both of whom had trained at Borough Road School.

When the Daily Lesson Books series appeared in 1840 a section on political economy with a lesson on wages was written by Archbishop Whately. The text included all the essential elements of teaching that the middle classes desired to imprint on the working man. Henry Dunn and J T Crossley added revision notes to assist understanding of the concepts articulated in the text.

In 1842 the monitorial system of teaching was very much in decline as it had come into a lot of criticism from a significant number of influential people associated with education. The monitorial system was summarised by Professor J. W. Adamson as:

'It made the provision of popular instruction on a national scale feasible, it compensated to a certain degree for the absence of teachers, provided a rough scheme of teachers' training and prepared the way for the pupil-teacher system'.

[Adamson 1931]

A new Normal College at Borough Road was built and formally opened in 1842 by Lord John Russell (Bartle 1976 p.22). A formal opening ceremony

was held at which some important members of the British and Foreign School Society attended together with members of staff, students and pupils. In addition there was a display of work by students and pupils of the Society. For many years this new building was considered to be institutional and grim. Indeed the Inspectors regarded the new building as having inadequate space and the arrangements for heating and the sanitary requirements were poor.

The building had three floors, which provided accommodation for 45 men and 30 women. There was a lecture theatre, several classrooms for the use of students, large classrooms for boys and girls taught together with class teaching galleries, a dining room, residential accommodation for the secretary and curator offices for the quarters for the secretary and resident curator and offices for conducting the business of the Society. Alongside this new building there was a wing in which there was a repository stocking books and equipment which were sent to schools across the world (Bartle 1976 p.22).

The new building allowed for the pupils to be divided into two separate classes. The upper class was placed under the supervision of James Cornwell and the junior class under Robert Sanders. Both of these men had trained at Borough Road. When the college received its first maintenance grant from the government in 1845 James Cornwell was given the title of Principal.

When the new building was operative the teaching was still based around the monitorial plan of Joseph Lancaster. Even in the 1840s each student seldom spent more than six months at the college. Whilst at the college the student spent four to five hours each day practicing the monitorial system in the model schools. Alas little time was given to improve the education of the individual student.

In 1842 the Committee of Council for Education was permitted to establish training colleges and schools by religious organisations and voluntary societies. In 1842 grants were awarded to a value of £40,000 by government to permit such colleges and schools to be established. The British and Foreign School Society was able to make use of this grant.

Mr Tremenheere was appointed an HMI in the early days of the Committee of Council being formed. The duties of Mr Tremenheere were restricted to the schools under the control of the British and Foreign School Society. He

favoured a state system of education with a strong central authority. He was against the monitorial system which had been central to the British schools.

Faced with the possibility of a hostile inspection of Borough Road School, the British and Foreign School Society was close to ending relations with the Committee of Council. However Mr Dunn in his role as Secretary of the Society negotiated with the Committee of Council to seek that inspections of British Schools should be free from the bias of the appointed inspector.

In 1842 the inspector Mr Tremenheere made a series of visits to the London schools under the auspices of the British and Foreign School Society. HMI Tremenheere produced a very critical report on the monitorial system still being used in British Schools. In its place Mr Tremenheere advocated the 'simultaneous' system of teaching.

In 1843 Mr Tremenheere was moved to another governmental department and the Committee of Council agreed that no inspection should be appointed to a British School without the prior agreement of the British and Foreign School Society.

In 1843 the British and Foreign School Society was still using the monitorial system as its method of teaching. In that year the Secretary of the British and Foreign School Society wrote to the Committee of Council:

'The Committee cannot keep out of sight the fact that, in order to secure sound moral and religious influence in their schools, they have hitherto adopted and propose still to adhere to a course which frequently involves a considerable sacrifice of intellectual attainment. They refer to their practice of receiving only those who by age as well as by character may be ranked among persons of fixed and settled religious principles. To obtain youth of considerable talent, or shrew and clever mechanics, whose ability would reflect credit on any public examination, is not difficult if moral and religious character can be regarded as a secondary consideration: but to secure persons who are decided as to their religious views, persons who have given some evidence of their desire at least to cultivate a degree of seriousness, humility, patience and meekness (virtues which could scarcely come under the notice of an inspector, yet without which the instructions of a teacher are of little moral value) it is frequently necessary to be content with a less amount talent and more limited acquirements than would otherwise be demanded. The publication of reports (which could not notice

mortal differences) would necessarily tend on the one hand to discourage these humble though generally most useful labourers, and on the other to call out and stimulate more intellectual power, and this is to be feared to foster a spirit of reckless ambition, which could never find satisfaction in the performance of the laborious and self-denying duties of an elementary school'

[B.P.P. 1843 XL Minutes 1843 p.812]

In 1843 grants were given for building houses for schoolmasters and schoolmistresses, provision of school furniture and apparatus and building training schools (Committee of Council 1842 – 1843 p.i-iii).

Horace Mann's report on European education confirmed that England was behind all civilised countries in the provision of a national system (Mann 1857). In his report Mr Mann stated that Scotland, Ireland, France, Holland, Prussia and Saxony and Belgium were all considered to have better education for its young citizens. Horace Mann had nothing good to say about English elementary schools.

'England is the only one among the nations of Europe, conspicuous for its civilisation and resources, which has not, and never has had, any system for the education of its people'.

[Quoted in Smith 1931 p.200]

Very soon the inspectorate was increased in manpower. In 1844 the inspectorate consisted of six persons. The early reports produced by the inspectors found a number of deficiencies within the school environment and they sought to offer explanations for them. Of major concern was the irregular of attendance of some pupils in elementary schools. Often children had to withdraw early in order to support the family's finances. In addition the inspectors found significant numbers of their teachers to be inefficient utilising a poor monitorial system of teaching, which was reliant on rote-learning.

Dr Kay-Shuttleworth took the view that a school should become a centre of community life and not only instruct the children of the poor. The inspection had to report on the provision of playgrounds, the relation between teacher and parent, maintaining the interest of former pupils, provision of a school library and its accessibility, association of the school with mutual assurance societies and social clubs. Such inspection information was very similar to

Joseph Lancaster's own view of conducting a school very early in the century.

From 1845 Borough Road College made significant changes. Joseph Lancaster's ideas diminished and the teaching practice element of the course reduced. In the same year James Cornwell was given the title of Principal at Borough Road College. In the same year the college received its first maintenance grant from government. James Cornwell's main teaching subject was geography and he wrote school text books (see reference list at end of book for some examples of his text books).

William Ewart MP and Joseph Brotherton MP introduced a bill which would give boroughs having a population in excess of ten thousand to raise a 1/2d levy for the establishment of museums. Although met with opposition this bill was passed in 1845 and became known as the Museums Act.

In 1846 the Committee of Council established the pupil-teacher system and the Teacher's Certificate. The new system tackled a number of issues which had come to light over a period of time. It provided a framework for future teacher training which survived for nearly seventy years.

In 1846 grants were given for maintenance and building of schools. Also in the same year government made grants to schools of industry and in the same year started annual grants to Baptists and Congregationalists for their schools. The following year government expanded annual grants to Wesleyan Methodist and the Catholic Poor School Committee.

In the mid-1840s the pupil-teacher system replaced the monitorial system as a method of training teachers for schools. In 1846 Dr James Kay-Shuttleworth started a modified form of the pupil-teacher system. He constructed syllabi and arranged for annual examinations to be started. In addition he sought to provide grants and bursaries for likely pupil-teachers. Above all he made great efforts to increase the salaries of appointed and inspected school teachers who were deemed satisfactory in terms of their character, conduct and their duties in the school. The schools themselves had to receive a good report from the inspector. Lastly a five year pupil-teacher scheme was established. Success in the pupil-teacher scheme could lead to the entry to teacher training college if an additional examination was taken. Success in this extra examination made the apprentice a Queen's Scholar.

The Queen's scholars took examinations which consisted of basic subjects of instruction in reading, writing, history, geography, arithmetic and practical teaching. These tasks were assessed by HMIs and the college of preference of the Queen's scholar (Bartle 1976 p.27).

By 1846 the monitorial system was generally accepted as a failure and another method of training teachers needed to be devised. In that year the Committee of the Privy Council proposed a five year apprenticeship scheme for pupil teachers and the granting of a teacher's certificate in place of the current monitorial system of teacher training. It became known as the pupil-teacher system as a method of training teachers for elementary schools.

In 1846 Dr James Philip-Kay started a modified form of the pupil-teacher system. He constructed syllabi and arranged for annual examinations to be started. In addition he sought to provide grants and bursaries for likely pupil-teachers. Above all he made great efforts to increase the salaries of appointed and inspected school teachers who were deemed satisfactory in terms of their character, conduct and their duties in the school. The schools themselves had to receive a good report from the inspector. Lastly a five year pupil-teacher scheme was established. Success in the pupil-teacher scheme could lead to the entry to teacher training college if an additional examination was taken. Success in this extra examination made the apprentice teacher into a Queen's Scholar.

The aims of the Pupil-Teacher System were:

'To raise the character and position of the schoolmaster.....to render the school popular among the poor, as a means of introducing their children to more honorable and profitable employment, and.... To create in the minds of the working class a juster estimate of the value of education for their children'.

[Dr Kay-Shuttleworth: Minutes of the Council 1846]

There were a number of features to this pupil-teacher scheme, namely:

1. an agreed syllabus for pupil-teachers;
2. grants to the pupil-teachers for their stipends;
3. bounties to qualified teachers for having an apprentice under their control;
4. grants to schools;

5. grants towards the salaries of teachers in schools approved for pupil-teachers;
6. scholarships and bursaries for students selected for the training colleges;
7. grants to training colleges based on their student numbers.

For a period of five years a pupil-teacher would work closely with a qualified teacher. Each school day the pupil would receive mentoring from the teacher. This tutoring would be given for a period of 1.5 hours either before or after the school day and the teacher would receive a fee for each pupil who was mentored.

To qualify for acceptance as a pupil-teacher an applicant had to satisfy three criteria. The pupil-teacher had to be approved by an HMI and pass an examination, set by the Board of Education, in reading, recitation, English, History, Geography, Arithmetic, Algebra and Teaching. In addition the girls had to pass an examination in needlework and boys had to pass an examination in Euclid. Also the pupil-teacher had to pass a medical examination. For those pupils wanting to teach in church schools there were other criteria to satisfy, namely their religious views, upbringing and moral standing.

The syllabi of the different subjects were articulated in the Committee of Council's minutes. The teaching of Geography was to be an inductive study. Such a method of teaching requires certain conditions to be given from which certain results can be deduced. For example students were expected to discover that certain currents of rivers of eastern Europe flowed slowly but the rivers of western Europe flowed rapidly. In order for the students to make this deduction, the students were told that the rivers of eastern Europe have their origins at a slight elevation and a very long course to the sea whilst the rivers of western Europe started their journey to the sea from high land in Central Europe and they had a relatively short distance to flow to reach the sea.

The entymology of geographical names was an important aspect of geographical knowledge at that time. For example the name New York informs people that the place was once a colony of England. However it was originally known as New Amsterdam having been founded originally by the Dutch. An example given by HMI Fletcher in his report of 1846 the words '*ben*' and '*pen*' are names found in the most mountainous regions and

confirms that these high altitude places were unconquered by the northern invaders from Scandinavia. Rather the place names continued in the possession of the original Celtic inhabitants. In Fletcher's words *'finding out the cause of the fact, and the cause of the name the reason has been exercised and the study rendered highly philosophical; and a science which has been thought to consist only of lists of hard unmeaning words, has been made attractive in a more than usual degree'*.

[BFSS Report of 1846]

The pupil- teacher could become involved in this scheme from the age of thirteen years. Before acceptance to the apprenticeship scheme, the pupil had to meet some academic requirements including fluency in speech, ability to write neatly and correctly, have some knowledge about the table of weights and measures, perform simple arithmetic tasks, be able to identify parts of speech in simple sentences and have some knowledge of geography. In addition every pupil had to teach a junior class to the satisfaction of an inspector. Girls had to show expertise in knitting and sewing.

If the candidate was connected with a Church of England school, he/she was required to repeat the catechism as well as having a good knowledge of the scriptures. The parish priest would take part in the examination involving this aspect of the syllabus. For other denominational or voluntary schools the manager of the school was responsible for certifying the candidate's religious knowledge.

At the end of each year of the apprenticeship the pupil had to pass examinations and pass an inspected practical teaching lesson. In addition the pupil required a certificate from the school indicating good conduct, diligence, obedience and attention to detail in order to proceed with the apprenticeship. These examinations were assessed by an HMI and the principal of the college where the pupil-teacher hoped to take his/her formal training as a school teacher.

The new system established a formal procedure for the training of teachers. From the age of thirteen years boys and girls of potential could be indentured as pupil-teachers to selected schools for an apprenticeship of five years. The pupil-teacher was examined on an annual basis by HMIs. On successful completion of the pupil-teacher apprenticeship, the pupil could compete for Queens Scholarships by taking examinations in the basic

subjects of reading, writing, history, geography, arithmetic and practical teaching.

At the end of the fifth year a certain number of selected pupils entered an open competition so that they could qualify for a course at a training college. If they were successful the pupil became a Queen's Scholar and was given an amount of money to help finance their way through the course.

Most students in the colleges came straight from their apprenticeship at the age of eighteen years. As a result they had little experience of the world and so were quite immature in outlook. In the college course they had to work extremely hard. Besides having to gain an accepted standard the academic work each student had to spend 150 hours in practical teaching. However the time allocated to professional training was considered to be somewhat inadequate.

In order to become fully qualified and be known as a certified teacher, a pupil-teacher after five years as an apprentice had to complete two more years of teaching to become fully qualified.

The inauguration of the pupil-teacher scheme placed more demands on the inspectorate. Each inspector had an increased role since he had to examine the apprentices, approve new candidates and ensure that their teacher was instructing the pupil properly. In the year when the pupil-teacher scheme was established the inspectorate consisted of eight inspectors and only fourteen in 1850.

The Queen's Scholarship provided funding (£20 or £25) for a minimum of one year's course of study. This scholarship came to the pupil-teacher to pay half of his fees. On successful completion of the year's work the college received the other half of their fees. The qualified teacher received a certificate. A state pension was given to qualified teachers retiring after fifteen years' service.

The pupil could become involved in this scheme from the age of thirteen years. Before acceptance to the apprenticeship scheme, the pupil had to meet some academic requirements including fluency in speech, ability to write neatly and correctly, have some knowledge about the table of weights and measures, perform simple arithmetic tasks and some knowledge of

geography. Girls had to show expertise in knitting and sewing. In addition every pupil had to teach a junior class to the satisfaction of an inspector.

For a candidate connected with a Church of England school, he/she was required to repeat the catechism as well as having a good knowledge of the scriptures. The parish priest would take part in the examination involving this aspect of the syllabus. For other denominational or voluntary schools the manager was responsible for certifying the candidate's religious knowledge.

At the end of each year, as in the apprenticeship scheme, the pupil took a number of examinations. At the end of the fifth year a certain number of selected pupils entered an open competition so that they could qualify for a course at a training college. If they were successful the pupil became a Queen's Scholar and was given an amount of money to help finance their way through the course.

In 1847 HMI Fletcher conducted the first inspection of Borough Road College without prejudice. The Inspector was full of praise for the model school. *'It is quite obvious that as a practicing school of monitorial teaching and a model of order and discipline, this school can scarcely have a rival'*. (Minutes of Committee of Council 1846 II p. 383)

In 1847 government forwarded one hundred pounds in order to finance the pupil-teacher scheme and buy equipment for the schools. In the same year a committee to consider the current provision of public libraries and make recommendations for the establishment of free public libraries was established.

The first Teacher's Certificate examinations were held in 1848 for practising teachers and in 1851 for students having undergone the college course. The inspector's report commented that geography, history and grammar did very well in the examinations. In preparation for the examinations the pupil had to engage in studying academic subjects in the evening. The subjects studied included English, geography, history, mathematics, Natural Philosophy and Natural History as well as singing and drawing (Bartle 1976 p.23).

In this scheme selected elementary school pupils aged thirteen or more would be apprenticed to chosen head teachers for a period of five years. A number of attributes needed to be satisfied, namely their intellectual capacity, their physical stature and their moral stance. The pupils taught

throughout the school day and received tuition from the head teacher before and after the school day for a minimum of one and a half hours on each of five days of the week. The boy pupil teacher was paid by the Committee of Council at a rate of £10 for the first year. Subsequent annual increments would be £2.10s to a maximum of £20. The girl pupil teacher would receive about two-thirds of the amount given to a boy pupil teacher.

The head teacher would also receive payment both for teaching and supervising the pupil-teacher. However the payment was conditional upon the pupil- teacher passing the HMI's annual examination, an annual assessment of his/her good character and satisfactory progress.

On successfully completing the apprenticeship, the Committee of Council would issue a certificate which enabled him/her to:

1. sit the public examination for the award of a Queen's Scholarship;
2. success in this examination would qualify the individual to gain a place in recognised training colleges. The place came with an annual maintenance grant of £5 for men and £20 for women;
3. take a post in a grant-aided elementary school as an '*uncertificated teacher*';
4. take a post in one of the departments of state as a lower grade person in the Civil Service.

The head teacher would also receive payment both for teaching and supervising the pupil-teacher. However the payment was conditional upon the pupil- teacher passing the HMI's annual examination, an annual assessment of his/her good character and satisfactory progress.

On successfully completing the apprenticeship, the Committee of Council would issue a certificate which enabled him/her to seek an appointment in a public elementary school.

The Teacher's Certificate was classified according to the number of years that the training college student had spent there. Each year attracted an annual supplement to his/her salary. However there were three conditions set to the payment of these supplements, namely:

1. In the scheme selected elementary school pupils aged thirteen or more would be apprenticed to chosen head teachers for a period of five years.

A number of attributes needed to be satisfied to make them acceptable teachers.

2. The pupils taught throughout the school day and received tuition from the head teacher before and after the school day for a minimum of one and a half hours on each of five days of the week. The boy pupil teacher was paid by the Committee of Council at a rate of £10 for the first year. Subsequent annual increments would be £2.10s to a maximum of £20. The girl pupil teacher would receive about two-thirds of the amount given to a boy pupil teacher.
3. The head teacher would also receive payment both for teaching and supervising the pupil-teacher. However the payment was conditional upon the pupil- teacher passing the HMI's annual examination, an annual assessment of his/her good character and satisfactory progress.

For Borough Road College there was always a shortage of money because of its charitable status. There was a gap between the age of a pupil leaving school and the time at which he could be accepted at college for training as a certificated teacher. The length of time the student spent at the college was often less than essential to gain full qualified teacher status. Whilst a number of existing teacher training colleges recruited poorly qualified students, Borough Road College was lucky in getting a higher number of more qualified students. The lack of good students was largely due to the low prestige of the teaching profession at the time.

For Borough Road College the issues identified included a constant shortage of adequate finances, the low quality of candidates for training as teachers, the gap between the age when a good quality pupil left school and gained entry to a teacher training college, persuading trainee teachers to remain for the duration of the course and the low prestige of teaching as a career. The low status of teachers in elementary schools was not easy to achieve.

In 1847 the examination paper for Geography for teacher training candidates was reported in the minutes of The Council of Education.

Examination Paper for Geography

Upper Class of Men's Normal School - First Inspection 1847

1. What is meant by a parallel of latitude, and by the meridian of any place?
2. What is our first meridian, and what do you reckon from it?
3. Name the zones; the parallel's which form their limits, and the roots of their names.
4. What proportion does the land bear to the water on the surface of the globe?
5. What is a peninsula, the root of the name; and the direction and character of the great peninsulas of Europe?
6. What is the direction of the great watershed of Europe, and the effects of that direction upon the course of its rivers?
7. Name the six largest rivers of Europe; state their length, and describe their course.
8. What is the character of the surface of the north of Europe, south and east of the Baltic?
9. Describe the direction of the chief watershed of England?
10. In what parts of land does mineral wealth most abound? Name the chief coal fields, and the localities in which the several metals are principally found and wrought.
11. Name the chief manufactures of England, the localities in which they are carried on, and the circumstances which have attached various of them to certain localities.
12. Name the chief imports and exports of England, from which and to what countries?

13. Name the rivers of Asia that drain the district north of the great table-lands, east of it, and south of it.
14. Explain why the largest rivers of the world are found in America.

[Minutes of The Council of Education 1847 Volume II Appendix D p.431]

Each weekday involved the pupil- teachers attending schools and taking part in the activities of the schools. Every weekday evening the trainee teachers had to study the academic subjects, which included English, Geography, History, Mathematics, Natural Philosophy, Natural History, singing and drawing.

The instruction concentrated on the books produced for the British and Foreign School Society by Henry Dunn, John Crossley and James Cornwell. All of these men had been students at Borough Road College. Geography detailed the etymology of geographical names and memorising vast quantities of facts. Dr Cornwell produced the geography text book which was described by Mary Sturt '*a fat and revolting volume of 338 pages*' (Sturt 1967 p, 236).

The new system established a formal procedure for the training of teachers. From the age of thirteen years boys and girls of potential could be indentured as pupil-teachers to selected schools for an apprenticeship of five years subject to certain scholastic, moral and physical conditions of the pupils being met. At the end of each year of the apprenticeship the pupil had to pass examinations and pass an inspected practical teaching lesson. In addition the pupil required a certificate from the school indicating good conduct, diligence, obedience and attention to detail in order to proceed with the apprenticeship. These examinations were assessed by an HMI and the principal of the college where the pupil-teacher hoped to take his/her formal training as a school teacher.

The pupil-teacher would be required to teach throughout the school day. In addition the pupil-teacher would be taught by the head of the school before or after the end of the school day. Their time with the head was to last one and a half hours on five days of the week.

The pupil-teacher was paid by the Committee of Council at the rate of £10 for the first year and rose annually by £2.50 to a maximum of £20. Female pupil-teachers got a lesser sum each year.

The qualifications of candidates to be pupil teachers were stated as being at least thirteen years of age and to have no bodily infirmity likely to impair their usefulness as a pupil teacher. For Church of England schools, the moral character of the candidates and his family were also important.

The candidate had also to satisfy a number of educational achievements, namely the ability to read with fluency, ease and expression and to write in a neat hand, with correct spelling and punctuation, a simple prose narrative slowly read to them. In particular the candidate needed to point out the parts of speech in a simple sentence.

In mathematics the candidate had to write from dictation sums in the first four rules of arithmetic, simple and compound and to work them correctly, and to know the tables of weights and measures. In addition the candidate needed to have an elementary knowledge of geography.

In Church of England schools the candidate was required to repeat the Catechism, and to show that they understand its meaning and are acquainted with the outline of Scripture history. This part of the examination would be assisted by the relevant parochial clergyman.

A number of preliminary conditions had to be satisfied before a pupil-teacher could be appointed to a school. The school had to be well furnished with a sufficient supply of books and apparatus for the subjects of the school curriculum. Further the pupils in the school were divided into classes and the discipline was mild and firm creating an environment for good order. It was important that the instruction was skilful and graduated according to the age of the children and the time they have been at school. Above all there was an expectation that the salaries of the master and mistress as well as the ordinary expenses of the school would be provided for the whole period of the apprenticeship (Minutes of Committee of Council 1846 Volume 1 p.2-9).

The head teacher received the sum of £5 annually for supervising and teaching one pupil-teacher, £9 pounds for two, £12 for three and £3 per annum for extra pupil teachers. The number of pupil-teachers was determined by the ratio of one to every 25 pupils on roll in the school.

The pupil-teacher was examined on an annual basis by HMIs. On successful completion of the pupil-teacher apprenticeship, the pupil could compete for Queens Scholarships by taking examinations in the basic subjects of reading, writing, history, geography, arithmetic and practical teaching.

The scholarship provided funding (£25 for a boy and £20 for a girl) for a minimum of one year's course of study. This scholarship came to the pupil-teacher to pay half of his fees. On successful completion of the year's work the college received the other half of their fees. The qualified teacher received a certificate.

A first class, second class or third class teacher's certificate was given to students who successfully completed one, two or three years training respectively. The certificate entitled the owner with an annual supplement to his salary. The payment was made by the Committee of Council but was subject to several conditions.

On 25th August 1846 the Committee of Council framed regulations for pupil teachers, namely:

1. the qualifications of the school master having responsibility for the pupil teacher;
2. the conditions of instruction in the school;
3. local contributions to be required as conditions under which annual grants may be made as stipends for the apprentices in elementary schools;
4. preparing indentures of apprenticeship including the nature of instruction to be given, the duties of the apprentice, the nature of instruction to receive and the periods of examination by the Inspector of Schools;
5. circumstances under which the indenture may be dissolved.

The criteria for selecting suitable school masters for being in charge of giving instruction and training to school apprentices was to be assessed on the character and skills of selected school masters. Such selected schoolmasters were to be given annual grants for their services.

Later in the same year the Committee of Council issued some general preliminary conditions, namely the master (or mistress) had to be competent to conduct the apprentice.

The College of Preceptors was originally started as the Society of Teachers in 1846. It was founded by private schoolmasters working in Brighton, who were concerned about the standards particularly in secondary schools. The original members of the Society sought to offer private teachers a professional council and register which would ensure standards in the schools. The name for this society became the College of Preceptors in the following year.

The College of Preceptors aimed to raise the profession of teachers irrespective of religious persuasions and political views. It was incorporated by Royal Charter in the year 1849. Its aims were:

'for the purpose of promoting sound learning and of advancing the interests of education, especially among the middle classes, by affording facilities to the teacher for acquiring a knowledge of his profession, and by providing for the periodical session of a competent board of examiners, to ascertain and give certificates of the acquirements and fitness for their office of persons engaged or desiring to be engaged in the education of youth'.

The College of Preceptors opened a teacher training college for men but it had a life span of just two years. The reason for its failure was noted in a book entitled *Fifty years of Progress in Education* and written for the College of Preceptors. In the text of the book the following statement is made:

'Secondary training for male teachers has not yet been accepted as a matter of course or necessity'.

[College of Preceptors (1986) *Fifty Years of Progress in Education*, London: College of Preceptors]

The charter empowered the college to hold examinations for teachers and schools and to grant diplomas and certificates to anyone who passed the appropriate examinations satisfactorily. Two types of examinations were held twice a year for teachers and pupils. The examinations for teachers were devised in order to ascertain their qualifications and fitness to take part in the work of instruction whilst the examinations for pupils were intended

to test their progress and give the teacher and the public a satisfactory statement of the instruction that the pupil had received.

The monitorial system of teaching could best be described as an instruction system rather than teaching. The system was mechanical and relied on rote memory. However it brought to the general public the concept that every person should receive an elementary education. Further the education should be free at the point of delivery.

The monitorial system was summarised by Professor J. W. Adamson as:

'It made the provision of popular instruction on a national scale feasible, it compensated to a certain degree for the absence of teachers, provided a rough scheme of teachers' training and prepared the way for the pupil-teacher system'

[Quoted in Adamson 1931]

Pupil-Teacher Apprenticeships (Geography Syllabus for 5 years)

Year 1	In the geography of Great Britain and Palestine
Year 2	In geography of Great Britain, Europe, the British Empire and Palestine
Year 3	In the geography of the four quarters of the globe
Year 4	In the geography of Great Britain as connected with the outlines of English history
Year 5	In the use of globes or in the geography of the British Empire and Europe as connected with the outlines of English history

[Minutes of the Committee of Council on Education 1846 p. 514]

Years later Mart Sturt described James Cornwell's Geography text book as:

'a fat and revolting volume of 338 pages. It covers the world and is a mass of verbal facts, each one of which is to be committed to memory. James

Cornwell admitted that it cost him much labour to compile it. It would certainly cost any student an incredible amount to master it'.

[Sturt 1967 p. 236]

In the following year the minutes of the Committee of Council included plans and specifications for different types of schools. Firstly the schools centred on Joseph Lancaster and Andrew Bell was considered to be one type. The second type of school was described as a 'mixed' school utilising the method utilised by Stow and Wilderspin.

Hence the interest shown in school buildings brought about the need for architects with an interest in the design of schools for pupils.

William Ewart MP and Joseph Brotherton MP introduced a bill which would give boroughs having a population in excess of ten thousand to raise a 1/2d levy for the establishment of museums. Although met with opposition this bill was passed in 1845 and became known as the Museums Act.

In 1847 Parliament appointed a committee to consider whether libraries should be established throughout the country. The committee was led by William Ewart. Its report entitled *Report on Public Library Provision* was published in 1849. The report noted the poor condition of the library service and recommended that free public libraries should be established throughout the country. This report led to the 1850 Public Library Act. In this act cities with a population in excess of ten thousand were able to levy taxes for the support of public libraries. With this act the literacy of the population grew.

The Educational Record was an official publication of the British and Foreign School Society, which started in 1848 and was published quarterly. This magazine gave details of university successes gained by past students of Borough Road College, details on their careers and other achievements.

The first teacher's certificate examinations held at Borough Road College in 1848 were for practising teachers only. It was not until 1851 that the Teacher's Certificate was available for those students having completed a full year of training and for those people who had completed their five year apprenticeship. The first full batch of students taking the Teacher's Certificate examinations included two Queen's scholars.

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The Geography paper for the Teacher's Certificate for 1849 is shown below.

Geography Paper for Teacher's Certificate

January 1849

Section 1

1. How can it be shown that the earth is round?
2. What produces the difference in the length of day and night at different seasons?
3. Name the zones and state account for their extent respectively.
4. What is meant by degrees of latitude and longitude? By what means are the latitude and longitude of a place ascertained?

Section 2

1. Describe the course of the Severn and of the Thames
2. Describe the situation, appearance, and height of the principal mountains in Great Britain.
3. Name the sea-ports in Great Britain, and give a full account of any two which you may select.
4. Describe the extent and chief physical features of each portion of the British Isles.

Section 3

1. Describe the position of these places – Caesarea, Bethlehem, Nazareth, Tiberias, Hebron and Shechem.
2. Describe the course of the Tigris and the Euphrates.
3. Point out the situation of the chief cities of Asia Minor, named in the Acts of the Apostles.
4. Give some account of the countries bordering on Palestine.

Section 4

1. Enumerate the British possessions in North America.
2. Give some account of the British settlements in Australasia.
3. Describe the climate and production of Hindostan and the inspection of the schools was agreed.
4. Account for the difference of climates within the same latitudes in the west of Europe and the east of Asia.
5. Describe the phenomena of the Arctic winter.

[Minutes of Committee of Council 1849 p. ccclxxxix]

By the end of the decade considerable advancement had been made in the training of teachers and the inspection of schools was agreed.

Grants were given for building accommodation for schoolmasters and schoolmistresses and provision made for school furniture, books and apparatus for practical activities. More importantly the monitorial method of teaching was gradually being replaced by the pupil-teacher system,

The 1850s

By the middle of the nineteenth century there was a weakening of the links between the Established (Anglican) Church and the State. In particular there were divisions amongst religious believers about the influence of the Established Church in educational matters. In addition there was a decline in the influence of religious organisations among the poorer classes. Also the number of nonconformists was increasing. Above all there was general agreement that there was an increased need for secular instruction in any modern industrialised society, which included Great Britain.

During the 1850s there was a growth in the population. In particular the lack of children and adults able to read and write became noticeable. It was clear that education of the public, whether children or adults, needed to be improved. Great Britain was beginning to lose its standing in the rapidly growing industrialised society. Hence in the 1850s several organisations provided educational provision excluding the schools already in existence. These organisations included the Department of Science and Art and the College of Preceptors.

In the 1850s there were a significant number of Queen's Scholars seeking entry to teacher training colleges. Unfortunately in any teacher training college the number of Queen's Scholars permitted was restricted by the Board of Education to one quarter of its total trainee teacher population. As a result many training colleges were not full of trainee teachers and their academic educational standards were low. Also in 1850 a list of registered teachers was produced.

In 1850 the power to affiliate other colleges to the University of London was actually implemented. The power had been granted in the original charter for the university. At that point in time many institutions were affiliated but unfortunately these institutions were inappropriate institutions to be affiliated to the university as their academic standards were not acceptable for higher education. Hence within the decade these inappropriate institutions were abandoned.

In 1850 the Public Libraries Act was passed (Kelly 1973; Murison 1971). This act allowed all cities with populations exceeding 10,000 to levy taxes to support public libraries and museums. Access to the libraries and museums were to be free of charge. With this act the literacy of the population grew.

Three years later this act was extended to Scotland and Ireland.

A Royal Commission was established in 1850 by Her Majesty Queen Victoria to arrange for the proposed Great Exhibition, which was to take place in 1851. Queen Victoria appointed Prince Albert to be the President and have control of all the arrangements for the Great Exhibition to be held in 1851. Its terms of reference were:

'to increase the means of industrial education and extend the influence of science and art upon productive industry'.

[

In 1851 the Great Exhibition of the Works of Industry of All Nations was held in London. This exhibition demonstrated scientific and technological achievements in an increasingly industrial society. The government came to realise that it needed to encourage more pupils in schools to take scientific and technical subjects as Great Britain was losing its competitive edge against other countries. Further it needed to have well qualified teachers in these subjects trained to teach the pupils at secondary level. As a result the teacher training colleges needed to produce more of these teachers.

The Great Exhibition of 1851 had opened the eyes of the general public to the achievements of industrialised Britain. The Department of Science and Art originated in response to the need for more people to have technical knowledge so that the various industries could operate to their full potential.

It was not until 1851 that the Teacher's Certificate was available for those students having completed a full year of teacher training and for those people who had completed their five year apprenticeship. The first full batch of students taking the Teacher's Certificate examinations at Borough Road College included two Queen's scholars.

In 1851 government abolished the *Pledge*. In its place the student teacher only had to sign a '*Declaration of Intent*'. Further in that year the School Grants Act was passed as well as a School Site Act. Also the Methodists opened a teacher training college for men and women in Westminster

The concept of kindergarten was introduced into England in 1851 by Baroness Marenholtz-Bulow, who had been influenced by the work of Friederich Froebel.

Further in the decade there was mounting concern about the lack of young children who could read and write. The Society for the Propagation of Christian Knowledge produced Reading Books for the National Society during the period 1851 – 1856. During this period there was very rapid population growth in the decade 1851 – 1849 but many children still did not have any schooling. In addition England was losing its importance in international industrial growth.

Opposition to the state aided voluntary education system, which had been established by the Committee of Council's Minutes of 1846, came from a number of different sources. Over a period of years the opposition grew as did the grant to teacher training colleges increased from £150,000 in 1851 to £836,920 in 1859 (Quoted in Tropp 1957 p.61).

In 1852 the Committee of Council ruled that all schools receiving grants a conscience clause must be inserted in their school deeds as seen below:

'Deed of conveyance for a school to be occupied as a school in connection with any particular manufacturing establishment or mining or foundry works:

and it is hereby declared that the instruction at the said school shall comprise at least the following branches of school learning, namely reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, Scripture, history and in the case of girls needlework. And it daily read therein by the children and that no child shall be required to learn any catechism or other religious formulary or to attend any Sunday school or place or worship to which respectively his or her parent or guardian shall on religious grounds object but the selection of such Sunday school and place of worship shall in all cases be left to the free choice of such parent or guardian without the child's thereby incurring any loss of the benefits and privileges of the school the trusts whereof are hereby declared'

[Minutes of the Committee of Privy Council on Education, 1852 xxxix, p. 71]

Alas this statement was bitterly opposed by the National Society.

In 1852 the first Queen's scholars were admitted to the Borough Road institution. The Queen's scholars brought grants to the college, which were much appreciated (Binns 1908 p.164).

The examinations for the Teachers' Certificate took place at Christmas in a number of set subjects which included English language, history, geography, arithmetic, geometry, algebra, reading, penmanship, physical science and singing. In addition every student was to be examined in practical class teaching by an HMI and to present their lesson plans for inspection. The new Teachers' Certificate provided a means by which a qualified teacher could enhance their annual salary.

In 1853 a Committee of Council Minute tackled the issue of raising the academic standard of the teacher training tutors. It was felt that the tutors like the school teachers should be able to augment their salaries. At Borough Road College the academic standard of the tutors was generally good as many of the tutors had a degree on appointment to the college. The Committee of Council allowed up to three tutors from the same college to qualify for special lectureships. In order to qualify for this status the tutor needed to pass more advanced examinations in the certificate subjects. On passing the extra examinations an annual increment of £120 was given.

However in 1853 the Committee of Council realised that considerable change needed to take place in order to ensure that all the colleges had their full complement of students. Hence the Committee of Council started to address the issues, which needed to be sorted as soon as possible.

The government acted in 1853 by establishing a body called the Department of Science and Art. It was a sub-division of the Board of Trade. The department sought to encourage the teaching of science and art by promoting education in art, science, design and technology in Great Britain and Ireland. In 1854 the Department of Science and Art came under the auspices of the Privy Council. In the same year the College of Preceptors started to award diplomas for its students.

The Crimean War, which lasted from 1854 to 1856, was very costly and so the government sought to curtail expenditure. Education grants were targeted. The teacher training colleges felt that their finances were vulnerable as the cost of the pupil-teacher was increasing year by year.

A draft common syllabus for the training colleges, which was based on three principles, was prepared by Revd Henry Moseley HMI in 1854. The syllabus sought to get the best from the trainee teachers. In particular the existing examination subjects were not to be increased or decreased. Further the

greatest weight was to be given to subjects taken in the elementary phase of education and there should not be any attempt to do more than could be done well (Ministry of the Committee of Council 1854 – 1855 p.14 – 22). The draft syllabus was accepted by the Committee of Council, who informed the training colleges that their examinations would follow this new syllabus.

The new syllabus covered a period of three years. Alas most trainee teachers did not stay in the college for the whole period of three years. It was soon realised that many of the college students were poorly educated and found the course difficult. The Committee of Council realised that more attention should be concentrated on increasing more Queen's scholars and inducing them to stay in the college for the full period of two years. The strategy was successful and many more students were recruited.

In 1854 HMI Revd Muirhead Mitchell made comments about the Kindergarten in his report:

This system, though intellectual, is truly infantile, it treats the child as a child; encourages him to think for himself; teaches him, by childish toys and methods, gradually to develop in action or hieroglyphic writing his own idea, to tell his own story and to listen to that of others....whatever is said and whatever is done is totally and altogether such as belongs to a child.
[Minutes of the Committee of Council 1854 – 1855 p.473]

In 1855 Charles Dickens helped to promote this kindergarten idea by publishing an article entitled '*Infant Gardens*' in the called *Household Words*. Charles Dickens thought that the Froebel system could degenerate into a mechanical routine rather than getting the pupils to think.

In 1855 Matthew Arnold suggested that the amount of time spent in teaching practice should be reduced. In his report Matthew Arnold made the following comments:

'As practice in teaching is not less requisite than lectures for the training of a schoolmaster, it is desired that the first and second year students should have a greater share in this advantage; and provision has, I am informed, been made for ensuring it during the coming year.'
[Arnold 1910]

In the same report Matthew Arnold the following statement is made:

'When I pass from these matters to consider the work actually done in the existing classes of this training college, it is difficult to express myself in too strong terms of praise. The distinctive spirit of the place seems to be one of active-mindedness'.

Matthew Arnold HMI referred to Mr Fitch with great approval as being *'fully alive to the necessity of infusing into the students something of the general culture, the want of which is perhaps the greatest defect of the present teachers of elementary schools, and the defect hardest to remedy'*. [Hamilton 1958 p.6]

In 1856 the Science and Art department was absorbed by a new Education Department but largely retained control in promoting artistic and scientific higher education with a particular emphasis on teacher training. Soon the Department of Science and Art was established in South Kensington (Sheppard 1975).

The Department of Science and Art offered financial rewards as well as prizes and certificates of merit to successful candidates in a range of subjects including Mathematics, Chemistry, Inorganic Chemistry, Physiology and Drawing.

By the year 1856 the teacher training course was either of one or two years' duration. If student left at the end of the first year he/she was classified as an *'uncertificated teacher'*. Certificated status was only given after the successful completion of the second year of the course.

In 1856 any student who entered a training college had to declare that he/she intended to become a teacher in a school which was recognised by the Education Department. This declaration became known as the *'Pledge'*. It did not have any legal status rather it was a matter of honour. By signing this undertaking the Board of Education made a grant to cover the tuition fees and maintenance for the whole of the teacher training course.

As a result of the various views on the state education of children there were efforts made by government to change some of its policies. In 1856 the three Rs were considered to be in need of attention. The following year the government decided to withdraw the condition that seven-tenths of the whole school income should be applied to the teachers' salary. In addition change after change was made in the syllabus for the trainee teachers

whereby attempts were made to limit the number of subjects taught and the extent to which each subject was studied.

Firstly the Committee of Council terminated the restriction on the number of Queen's Scholars in any training college. The Committee of Council sought to standardise the length of the college course as well as producing a common curriculum. For students who passed the first year college examinations automatic renewal of their scholarships was given. A number of resident lecturers were given an allowance of one hundred pounds. Up to a maximum of three resident tutors in a college could qualify for the allowance, of which the precise number was determined by the size of the college.

The allowances went to those tutors whose students had obtained above average attainments in one or two subjects from the following list: English Literature, History, Geography, Applied Mathematics and Physical Science, of which the precise number was determined by the size of the college. The allowances went to those tutors whose students had obtained above average attainments in one or two subjects from the following list: English Literature, History, Geography, Applied Mathematics and Physical Science.

In 1856 an inspection report on the training institution of the British and Foreign School Society in the Borough Road, Southwark was conducted by HMI Morell, He reported observation on the '*want of proper accommodation for both of the normal and practising schools*'. Further he noted that the deficiencies had arisen from the gradual growth of the institutions and the impossibility of grafting extensions to an original single monitorial school. HMI Morell went further and suggested that the entire complex of buildings (normal and practising schools and hostel accommodation) should seek a separate formal training school for females elsewhere. He stated that the British and Foreign School Society had agreed to the new female teacher training institution, which was to be erected in Stockwell.

In 1856 HMI Morell made the following comment about the Borough Road Institution:

'I have only in conclusion to express the pleasure and satisfaction I have felt in witnessing the order, the industry and the well-directed effort which reigns through the entire institution'

As soon as the Committee of Council of the Privy Council ????? became the Education Department and had its own responsible minister. This minister was formally given the title Vice-President of the Privy Council and had a seat in Parliament (Bartle 1974 p.31). The Committee of Council restricted the number of pupil-teachers a school might have.

Many people felt that the economy of the country could be improved if every child received education and so in 1858 a Royal Commission on the State of Popular Education in England was appointed with the Duke of Newcastle as its chairman. The Commission had a remit to look at educating every child. Its terms of reference were:

‘To inquire into the present state of Popular Education in England, and to consider and report what Measures, if any, are required for the extension of sound and cheap elementary instruction to all classes of the people’

The Newcastle Commission reported in 1862. The major thrust of the report was to investigate the rising level of public expenditure on education. The existing system was in receipt of complaints and action was needed.

The teacher training colleges felt financially in trouble. The cost of the pupil-teacher scheme was totally dependent on the number of their students. In order to remain financially sound the pupil-teachers had to get very good results in their annual examinations. Such successes provided the individual teacher training colleges with 75- 90% of their income from government grants.

In 1858 the practice of affiliating colleges to the university was abandoned and the university stated *‘the comprehensive principle of testing acquired knowledge by strict examination, with reasonable evidence of antecedent continuous study’* (Quoted in Curtis 1968 p.423).

A charter in 1858 permitted the Senate of the University of London to give certificates stating that candidates for degrees had attended a course of study at an affiliated college. With this charter the University of London had become an examining body. Everybody could take the requisite examinations without any requesting any information on their training or preparation. The *external degree* system of the university had been established. Many thousands of students including those studying at

Borough Road College could take appropriate external London University degrees alongside their teaching qualification.

By the late eighteen-fifties the education of women became an issue which HMIs E J Wilks and J Fitch sought to promote. Inspectors were continually stressing that the British and Foreign School Society wanted infant education to be addressed by them. Unfortunately there was no room for expansion of such a course for women on the Borough Road site in Southwark.

From 1859 the Science and Art Department offered examinations for science teachers, which became very popular later in the decade. The teacher, who held such a certificate from the Science and Art Department school had the right to teach in evening school as well as the day school thereby augmenting their income.`

In 1859 HMI Morell inspected the Borough Road Institutions again. In this 1859 report it was noted that his suggestion made in 1856 had been adopted by the British and Foreign School Society and as the 1859 report was being written the new premises for the female training school and hostel were presently in construction at Stockwell. This move would release valuable space for expansion of the Borough Road site.

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Amongst the miscellaneous things which were noted down in the course of the inspection were the neatness of the mapping, the great carefulness inculcated upon the students in keeping their note-books, the larger number who proved successful last year in taking drawing certificates, the cheerfulness with which the discipline of the house maintained by the

resident superintendent, and the extent of the practising schools which comprise about one thousand children. On these points it is not necessary to enlarge, and I have only the conclusion to express the pleasure and satisfaction I have felt in witnessing the order, the industry, and the well-directed effort which reigns through the entire institution'

HMI Morrell's report made no further mention of the accommodation as it was anticipated that developments would soon be taking place. The number of students was mentioned. The first year student intake was 55 males of which 53 were Queen's scholars and 63 female students of which 55 were Queen's scholars. In the second year there were just male twelve students.

The 1859 report finished with the following summary:

'Amongst the miscellaneous things which I have noted down in the course of my inspection were – the neatness of the mapping, the great carefulness inculcated upon the students in keeping their note-books, the larger number who proved successful last year in taking drawing certificates, the cheerfulness with which the discipline of the house maintained by the resident superintendent, and the extent of the practising schools which comprise about one thousand children. On these points it is not necessary to enlarge, and I have only the conclusion to express the pleasure and satisfaction I have felt in witnessing the order, the industry, and the well-directed effort which reigns through the entire institution.

[Committee of Council 1860 p.391]

The Department of Science and Art offered financial rewards as well as prizes and certificates of merit to successful candidates in a range of subjects including Mathematics, Chemistry, Inorganic Chemistry, Physiology and Drawing. From 1859 the Department of Science and Art offered examinations for prospective science teachers,

Due to the increase in the extra courses being offered Borough Road College needed to increase the number of part-time staff employed. Over time it became the norm to employ several of its most able students to function as assistant part-time tutors on a contract before they took a school appointment.

The late 1850s saw a bulge in the birth rate. As a result there was a need to expand teacher training and so planning was needed especially to train teachers for work in primary and junior schools.

In particular it was stated that the University of London opened its degrees to any student regardless of gender, class or creed. This decision was made after a very large number of applications from establishments wishing to be associated with London University. Students studying in the associated institutions were known to be '*external*' students of the university.

In 1859 Robert Lowe took the job as Vice-President of the Education Department and the permanent secretary was Mr R Lingan.

In 1859 HMI Morell inspected the Borough Road Institutions again. In this 1859 report it was noted that his suggestion made in 1856 had been adopted by the British and Foreign School Society and as the 1859 report was being written the new premises for the female training school and hostel were presently in construction at Stockwell. This move would release valuable space for expansion of the Borough Road site.

The arrangements of the university caused much criticism amongst different groups of people. Matthew Arnold described the University of London as a '*mere collegium or Board of Examiners*', which only examined for degrees but did not have any teaching function (Quoted in Curtis 1968 p.424). Matthew Arnold considered that the teaching function of the university was much more important than its examining function. He strongly urged that University College and King's College should be brought into a full relationship with the university.

The 1860s

With the arrival of the decade of the 1860s society was getting more interested in education at all levels. More people were passing through teacher training colleges and the curriculum in the elementary schools was becoming well established.

In the 1860s educationalists were concerned that children should be taught the events of history and relate them to geography. A quotation from Tate summaries the importance of the geography taught in the schoolroom.

'Geography should always be taught in connection with history. No teacher should give a lesson on geography of a country without associating the leading geographical facts with the most remarkable events of its history, or with the existing resources of trade and wealth. He should also introduce historical and picturesque descriptions of great cities of the country of which he treats. Great cities constitute the identity of a people: - their past history is sculptures on their monuments, churches and public buildings; - their existing industry, and real sources of wealth and power, are exhibited in their machinery, their factories, their shipping, and their market-places or thoroughfares, where the products of nature and art are bought and sold;- their intellectual, moral and political tendencies, may be seen in the tastes, habits, and pursuits of the people that crowd their public rendezvous; for the ceaseless struggle of opinions, passions and interests, which here manifest themselves, may be regarded as the throbbing of the great heart of society'.

[Tate 1860 Part II p.194]

In 1860 the various regulations and minutes of the Committee of the Privy Council on Education were consolidated in a code. Robert Lowe produced a Code of Regulations, which delineated the regulations concerning school grants and procedures in education.

In 1860 the Board of Education announced that it would not consider *'any new applications for grants towards the expense of building, enlarging, improving and fitting-up training colleges'*.

[Minutes of the Committee of Council on 21st January 1860]

The Royal Commission on the State of Popular Education in England, commonly known as the Newcastle Commission, was published in 1861.

The report which, consisted of six volumes, was to investigate the rising level of public expenditure on education. It recommended that public money for education should be continued but it was suggested that support for the schools should be dependent on the '*payment by results*'.

This Newcastle Report was the first thorough survey of the work of elementary schools in England. The members of the Commission decided that they needed to investigate the education of the poor children. However they also included the children of paupers, vagrants and criminals and schools supported by the State (the Army and Navy) and certain other charitable institutions.

The Commission also conducted very thorough investigations of specific districts in which schools were situated by employing ten assistant commissioners. The districts chosen were to be representative of different types of environments, namely agricultural, manufacturing, mining, maritime and metropolitan. Two assistant commissioners were allocated to each of these five districts. In addition Matthew Arnold visited France, Holland and the French part of Switzerland and Mark Pattison went to Germany in order to see how these countries were tackling the idea of providing elementary education for working class children. Lastly the commissioners studied reports provided by school inspectors from 1839 to the time of the commission started its research work.

The commissioners spent considerable time discussing the funding for elementary education and the quality of the existing teaching provision. As a result of their deliberations, the commissioners recommended that the Committee of Council should extend its operations whilst retaining the main features of the existing brief. However it was recommended that there should not be central control of the management of the schools. The management of the schools was a very sensitive issue since many of the schools were run by various religious denominations or voluntary organisations.

The report revealed that the majority of pupils had an average life of 4 – 6 years with the majority leaving school by the age of eleven years. A few pupils (around 5.0%) remained in the school for a further two years. Most of the pupils were still taught by pupil-teachers who often struggled to teach their pupils adequately. School attendance was often erratic which did not help the pupil progress with his/her education. Hence the Commission recommended regular attendance of the pupils at school. Inspection of

schools was to be continued and reports made on both the fabric of the school and the teaching taking place within it.

The Commission recommended that the grants, which started in 1833, should continue. However several conditions were given, namely regular school attendance of pupils needed to be maintained, the school buildings were kept in a good state of repair and the school received a satisfactory report from the inspector. The government would continue to pay grants to the schools on the conditions set above and the successful completion of the results of its pupils.

The Commission defined elementary education in the following ways:

1. read '*a common narrative*';
2. write '*a letter that shall be both legible and intelligible*';
3. know '*enough of ciphering to make out, or test the correctness of a common shop bill together with a little geography*';
4. ability '*to follow the allusions and the arguments of a plain Saxon sermon*'.

[Newcastle Commission 1861 Volume 1 p. 243]

The International College was founded in Spring Grove, Isleworth in the 1860s as part of a scheme launched by educational idealists of the time with the support of prominent Free Traders. Their aim in was to promote international and universal peace. It was planned to establish schools in four of the main countries of western Europe, namely Great Britain, France, Germany and Italy. All students at these schools were to follow the same curriculum and draw pupils from each of the countries cited. The three continental schools had limited success whilst the school at Spring Grove flourished. The site at Spring Grove was purchased with a loan provided by William Ellis, who was a wealthy supporter of progressive educational schemes. However the school ran into financial problems, which resulted in its closure later in the century.

In 1862 Robert Lowe undertook a revision of this code so that it met the proposals made by the Newcastle Commission and from 1862 the codes were issued on an annual basis. The codes dealt with educational, administrative and curricula aspects. Gradually the codes extended the range of subjects which could earn grants.

The Code of Regulations was introduced to save public money and to simplify departmental expenditure. Grants were to be paid to the school manager instead of directly to the teacher. The grants were to be paid by results and the Revised Code came to be known as ‘*payment by results*’ (Turner 1870).

The amounts to be paid to the school manager were given according to a given formula. A sum of twelve shillings was given for a pass in the 3Rs and the pupil had attended school regularly. The salary of the teacher was dependent upon the pupil’s results. The Revised Code soon changed the status and salaries of teachers. The Code specified the number of pupils which each teacher was allowed to teach. The code went into immense detail and specified the precise amounts that the school manager could claim at the end of each year for every pupil, subject to examination and the inspector’s report. In addition the Education Department cut other grants to pupil teachers and training colleges.

In the House of Commons Robert Lowe made following statement:

‘I cannot promise the House that this system will be an economical one and I cannot promise that it will be an efficient one, but I can promise that it shall be either one or the other. If it is not cheap, it shall be efficient; if it is not efficient, it should be cheap’.

[Hansard Vol.165, 225 dated 13th February 1862]

Pupils were arranged in six standards, which could correspond to six years of school life between the end of the infant phase of education and the age of twelve years. Grants were not available for children above twelve years. Hence the teachers concentrated their efforts on getting the children able to earn them money.

In 1862 the six standards representing the six years of school life were introduced. These standards continued almost to the end of the century.

Table 2: The Six Standards of Education as Defined in the Revised Code of Regulations 1862

STANDARD I

Reading	Narrative monosyllables
Writing	Form on blackboard or slate, form dictation, letters, capital and small, manuscript
Arithmetic	Form on blackboard or slate, from dictation, figures up to 20; add and subtract figures up to 10, orally, from examples of blackboard.
STANDARD II	
Reading	One of the narrative next in order after monosyllables in an elementary reading book used in the school
Writing	Copy in manuscript character a line of print
Arithmetic	A sum in simple addition or subtraction, and the multiplication table
STANDARD III	
Reading	A short paragraph from an elementary reading book used in school
Writing	A sentence from the same paragraph slowly read and then dictated in single words
Arithmetic	A sum in any simple rule as far as short division (inclusive)

STANDARD IV	
Reading	A short paragraph from a more advanced reading book read in the school.
Writing	A sentence slowly dictated once, by a few words at a time, from the same reading book, but not from the paragraph read
Arithmetic	A sum in compound rules (money)
STANDARD V	
Reading	A few lines of poetry from a reading book used in the first class of the school
Writing	A sentence slowly dictated once, by a few words at a time, from a reading book used in the first class of the school.
Arithmetic	A sum in compound rules (common weights and measures)
STANDARD VI	
Reading	A short ordinary paragraph in a newspaper, or other modern narrative
Writing	Another short ordinary paragraph in a newspaper, or other modern narrative, slowly dictated once by a few words at a time
Arithmetic	A sum in practice or bills of parcels

The Revised Code had to satisfy two conditions for a grant, namely attendance of the pupil and the results of examinations. The conditions were very comprehensive.

Mr Robert Lowe, who was vice-president of the Council of Education and head of the Education Department, produced the Revised Code in 1862 having accepted the recommendations of the Newcastle Commission. The Revised Code met with opposition from both sides of the House of Commons. As a result its implementation was delayed but finally came into operation on 1st August 1863.

The Revised Code made two conditions for the awarding of grants, namely the attendance of the pupils and their results in examinations. Attendance was defined as two hours instruction in the morning or afternoon and one and a half hours instruction in an evening for pupils aged twelve years.

Each pupil could earn its school twelve shillings a year if he/she passed the appropriate tests in the 3Rs and attended school regularly. The attendance grant for regular attendance earned four shillings for the school. The remainder of the grant was dependent upon the results of the examinations. If a scholar failed to pass the examination in the 3Rs, the amount of two shillings and eight pence would be forfeited per subject. Hence the pay of the teacher became dependent upon the results of the pupils. Other grants, which were also given to pupil-teachers and teacher training colleges, were cut. The revised code changed the way in which the pupils were taught as the teachers sought to concentrate on ensuring that their pupils passed the HMI examinations.

This system was intended to ensure that the students fulfilled their '*pledge*' and went into teaching. If a student failed to complete their course or abandoned their teaching career they experienced a loss of income.

The new code made a number of specific recommendations, namely:

1. payments to managers of schools by means of a single grant;
2. a lower certificate was started;
3. increased the number of trainee teachers allowed for each qualified teacher;
4. grants for school buildings;

5. the essential subjects of reading ,writing and arithmetic were placed in six standards;
6. payment of the amount of the grant for any given school was given according to each pupil's achievement at the examined standard;
7. head teachers of all schools receiving a grant must keep a log book recording information about the life of the school such as appointment of new staff, stage progress and special events;
8. stopped grants for building and improving training colleges.

The new code had a number of negative implications. The pupil-teachers had to be paid from the block grant so the school manager tried to get them as cheaply as possible. Inevitably the salaries paid to pupil-teachers dropped. Further Queen's scholarships were abolished in 1863 (Bartle 1976 p.31).

In Matthew Arnold's report for the year 1863, the year after the implementation of the Revised Code, he reported that he had noticed certain changes. In particular he noticed that there was an improvement of the school reading books.

The International Education Society was conceived in 1863 largely by the enthusiasm of Richard Cobden, who was a Liberal politician and industrialist. He hoped that education could help eliminate war and promote free trade. The International College was founded in Spring Grove, Isleworth in the 1860s as part of a scheme launched by educational idealists of the time with the support of prominent Free Traders. The site at Spring Grove in Isleworth was purchased with a loan provided by William Ellis, who was a wealthy supporter of progressive educational schemes. The aim of the international college was to promote international and universal peace. It was planned to establish schools in four of the main countries of western Europe, namely Great Britain, France, Germany and Italy.

Direct grants for improving or enlarging teacher training college buildings were withdrawn. Fortunately the scheme for the new girls' normal school, which was part of the original Borough Road complex, had already received governmental approval before this code became implemented.

The system of paying grants on the basis of examination successes posed financial problems to many teacher training institutions as the grants were not paid until the student had completed the second year of the course, passed all the examinations and completed the period of probationary

teaching. Further the total grant to the college was not permitted to exceed 75% of its total annual expenditure. This meant that the teacher training colleges had to get money from alternative sources including fee paying students and subscriptions if the college had voluntary status.

Hitherto the teacher's certificate had been graded on the basis of one, two or three years of training. This system was altered by the Committee of Council to give four grades of which the training college could only award the fourth grade. Other grades could be awarded to practising teachers on successful periods of teaching separated by five years on the recommendation of the school inspector.

The Revised Code caused many protests from both individuals such as the teachers and some HMIs as well as petitions from a number of voluntary organisations. Indeed Henry Dunn and William Forster representing the British and Foreign School Society led a petition to the Education Department. Unfortunately these protests and petitions had little effect on the Education Department.

The conditions set by the Education Department did not go down well with the potential teachers especially when they were notified that pensions were cancelled to new recruits to the profession whilst established teachers kept their pensions. With the cut in salary, recruitment to the teacher training colleges especially the male colleges fell at a time when pupil numbers were increasing. At the time men could easily gain jobs elsewhere. However for women there were less opportunities to gain employment outside domestic service or in teaching.

In a general report produced by HMI Matthew Arnold in 1867 made comment was made on one of the consequences of the implementation of the Revised Code, namely an increase in the number of pupils assigned to one class. In 1861 thirty-six children were found in each class and five years later the number of children found in each class had risen to fifty-four children. He claimed that the school legislation of 1862 had struck its heaviest possible blow at pupil-teachers. This resulted in the *'slack and languid conditions of our elementary schools'*.

Matthew Arnold further commented that:

'The performance of the reduced number of candidates is weaker and more inaccurate.... The mode of teaching the primary schools has certainly fallen off in intelligence, spirit and inventiveness during the four or five years, which have elapsed since my last report'.

[Quoted in Maclure 1986 p.81]

The condition of each school was thoroughly investigated by the school inspector. In particular attention was paid to the lighting, drainage, ventilation, amount of school office space and the amount of internal space for each child in average attendance at the school. Money for the school grant could be reduced or withheld if the conditions of the school were deemed unsatisfactory.

In this code precise standards in reading, writing and arithmetic were stated. In particular the pupil had to be able to read a short paragraph from a newspaper, write from dictation by the school inspector and able to calculate various sums.

Above all the public were against the '*payment by results*' approach. However the Revised Code did give publicity to the problem of elementary education in the country and it did establish that money dictated the educational system as practised in the early 1860s.

By 1867 the Education Department became very concerned about the number of people completing their teacher training course. As a result the Education Department relaxed the Code of Regulations. In particular the Teacher's Certificate syllabuses were simplified. Boys and girls had somewhat different syllabuses for some subjects, of which geography was one such subject. Grants for additional subjects such as higher mathematics and languages were much reduced.

Matthew Arnold opposed the Revised Code. Commenting on the English elementary schools in 1867 he made the following statement:

'I find them in general, if I compare them with their former selves, a deadness, a slackness, and a discouragement which are not the signs and accompaniments of progress. If I compare them with the schools of the Continent I find in them a lack of intelligent life much more striking now than it was when I returned home from the Continent in 1859'.

[Minutes of Committee of Council 1867-1868 p.190]

In the year 1867 the Committee of Council admitted that the Revised Code had tended to discourage the teaching of subjects other than the three R's (Minutes of Committee of Council 1866- 1867 p. xix). For the school managers the amount of money gained from grants became more and important.

The overall course syllabus for male candidates covered the following subjects, namely School Management, Grammar, Composition, Geography, History, Euclid, Economy, Vocal Music* and Drawing. The geography syllabus for male candidates is shown in the text.

Geography Syllabus

First Year

1. To be able to describe⁺ and draw^{\$} the map of the four quarters of the globe, and the map of each country in Europe (that of Great Britain in fuller detail).
2. To answer questions on the physical, political and commercial geography of one quarter of the globe. In December 1863, Africa

Second Year

1. Physical Geography
2. Political Geography
3. Commercial Geography
4. Elementary propositions in geography, which depend upon Astronomy for explanation

+ The term "describe" is confined to *words*, as distinguished from *drawing*.

\$ The neatness as well as the correctness of these outlines will be taken into consideration. The degree of longitude and latitude must be given, in order to obtain *full* credits for the exercise.

* The vocal music paper is not given to any candidate who does not produce a certificate signed by the principal of the training school.

[Report of the Committee of Council in Education (1862 – 1863), xxxiv – xxxv]

In 1867 language, geography and history received grants for their examinations (Royal Commission 1861 p 121 – 136). From 1867 onwards the annual code gradually extended the range of subjects which could earn a grant for their school.

The agreement between pupil-teacher and the school head was replaced by an arrangement by the pupil-teacher with the school manager. This new relationship tended to reduce the salaries of the pupil-teachers. The salaries of the trained teachers were poor in comparison with other professions. As a result the poor salaries caused a shortfall in the number of trained teachers. In order to cope with this shortfall the government lowered the standard of the Queen's Scholarship and increased the grants to trainee teachers.

With this articulation of the curriculum the schools had the freedom to organise it and make provision for local needs. In particular it was important that the pupils leaving school were prepared for getting a job. In the urban areas the young people starting work needed to have knowledge of business whilst those living in rural areas might need knowledge of agriculture and farming practices.

The Newcastle Commission concluded that the new Education Department of the Committee of Council had to pursue a policy of extending sound elementary education to all classes of the people cheaply. It became apparent that legislation needed to be introduced. Unfortunately Parliament was unable to intervene as a result of denominational differences amongst them

'and recommended that the state should provide It noted that 'as estimated by the Registrar General in the summer of 1858 ... the proportion ... of scholars in weekday schools of all kinds to the entire population was 1 in 7.7 or 12.99 per cent, that this compared favourably with other countries and was 'nearly as high as can be reasonably expected'. But it went on to warn:

'We are bound to observe, however, that a very delusive estimate of the state of education must result from confining attention to the mere amount of numbers under day school instruction. We have seen that less than three years ago there were in elementary day schools 2,213,694 children of the poorer classes. But of this number, 573,536 were attending private schools, which, as our evidence uniformly shows, are, for the most part, inferior as schools for the poor, and ill-calculated to give to the children an education which shall be serviceable to them in after-life. Of the 1,549,312 children

whose names are on the books of public elementary day schools belonging to the religious denominations, only 19.3 per cent were in their 12th year or upwards, and only that proportion, therefore, can be regarded as educated up to the standard suited to their stations. As many as 786,202 attend for less than 100 days in the year and can therefore hardly receive a serviceable amount of education, while our evidence goes to prove that a large proportion, even of those whose attendance is more regular, fail in obtaining it on account of inefficient teaching. Much, therefore, still remains to be done to bring up the state of elementary education in England and Wales to the degree of usefulness which we all regard as attainable and desirable.'

The Report was also critical of the quality of education provided:

'We have seen overwhelming evidence from Her Majesty's Inspectors, to the effect that not more than one fourth of the children receive a good education. So great a failure in the teaching demanded the closest investigation; and as the result of it we have been obliged to come to the conclusion that the instruction given is commonly both too ambitious and too superficial in its character, that (except in the very best schools) it has been too exclusively adapted to the elder scholars to the neglect of the younger ones, and that it often omits to secure a thorough grounding in the simplest but most essential parts of instruction. We have shown that the present system has never completely met this serious difficulty in elementary teaching; that inspection looks chiefly to the upper classes and to the general condition of the school, and cannot profess to examine carefully individual scholars; and that a main object of the schools is defeated in respect of every child who, having attended for a considerable time, leaves without the power of reading, writing, and cyphering in an intelligent manner.'

The Commissioners spent much time debating the funding of education. They noted that *'all the principal nations of Europe, and the United States of America, as well as British North America, have felt it necessary to provide for the education of the people by public taxation'*, and they proceeded to: *'propose means by which, in the first place, the present system may be made applicable to the poorer no less than the richer districts throughout the whole country; secondly, by which the present expenditure may be controlled and regulated; thirdly, by which the complication of business in the office may be checked; fourthly, by which greater local activity and interest in education may be encouraged; fifthly, by which the general*

attainment of a greater degree of elementary knowledge may be secured than is acquired at present ...'

[Extracts from The Royal Commission on the State of Popular Education in England, Parliamentary Papers, 1861, XXI. pp. 293-328]

As a result the British and Foreign School Society built a new women's training college at Stockwell. The women's college was located about a mile and half from the men's college in Southwark. The building was opened by Lord John Russell in 1861. A new girls' school and an infant practice school were built next to the female teacher training institution. Miss Louisa Scott was placed in charge of the women's teacher training institution having replaced Ann Springman, who had been one of Joseph Lancaster's early monitors.

The removal of the women's college made it possible to make extensive alterations on the Borough Road site. In particular a new lecture hall, four additional classrooms and residential accommodation for about one hundred trainee teachers were constructed. Alas a day recreation room for the male students was not provided although the inspectors expected such a facility for the men to be built.

The implementation of the Revised Code in 1861 and in subsequent years was responsible for reduction of public expenditure on education. The administrative minutes of the Privy Council from 1862 identified changes to the Revised Code with a series of conditional grants, which were known by the term '*payment by results*'. These new regulations caused a loss of income for Borough Road and all other teacher training institutions.

From 1862 the money given to schools in receipt of a government grant was solely dependent on the results of an annual examination of each child in the 3Rs by the inspector together with the record of their school attendance. In addition many other methods of reducing public expenditure in education were declared and implemented.

The extra payments which had been paid to teachers who had tutored the pupil-teachers were abolished and the pupil teachers themselves were to be paid by the school manager and not the central authority. Increases in salaries and pensions for certificated teachers were stopped. It was up to the individual teacher to negotiate his/her salary with the school manager, who had charge of the school finances. In the same year the Committee of

Council initiated a lower class of certificates than those already existing thereby raising the regulation number of pupils allowed for each teacher. Further no more grants were available for building and improving colleges.

For the teacher training colleges direct grants for improving or enlarging college buildings were withdrawn. By 1863 the Queen's Scholarship system of grants on entry were suspended. Also grants to the colleges on behalf of their students were to be paid in retrospect and only for certificated teachers, who had trained for two years and further completed two year probationary period in schools. This action seriously worried the teacher training colleges who were at risk of not receiving any money on behalf of any student leaving during the course or abandoning teaching within two years of qualification.

Furthermore the teacher training colleges grants were reduced by a quarter i.e. not to exceed 75% of their previous year's expenditure. An extra 25% saving on a year-by-year basis was required. For Borough Road College these financial constraints posed considerable difficulties.

Lastly the Teacher's Certificate syllabi produced by the Education Department were simplified in order to ensure that the teachers in-training were equipped to cope with the basic skills needing to be taught and examined in the schools. Also the grants for additional subjects were drastically reduced.

The Revised Code and its supplementary minutes had a tremendous demoralising effect on both the schools and the colleges. In particular the teachers deeply resented the fierce cutbacks in the educational field. Indeed educational reformers and supporters of popular education such as Matthew Arnold and James Kay-Shuttleworth, together with voluntary organisations, led made petitions and deputations to the Education Department in an attempt to redress these cutbacks.

The British and Foreign School Society sent a deputation led by Mr Dunn and Mr Forster to the Education Department to voice t concerns. Alas the changes took place with little in the way of modifications. For Borough Road College student applications decreased and the number of pupil teachers declined as the decade progressed.

This report was the first thorough survey of the work of elementary schools in England. The members of the Commission decided that they needed to investigate the education of the poor children. However they also included the children of paupers, vagrants and criminals and schools supported by the State (the Army and Navy) and certain other charitable institutions.

The commissioners spent considerable time discussing the funding for elementary education and the quality of the existing teaching provision. As a result of their deliberations, the commissioners recommended that the Committee of Council should extend its operations whilst retaining the main features of the existing brief. However it was recommended that there should not be central control of the management of the schools. The management of the schools was a very sensitive issue since many of the schools were run by various religious denominations or voluntary organisations.

The report revealed that the majority of pupils had an average life of 4 – 6 years with the majority leaving school by the age of eleven years. A few pupils (around 5.0%) remained in the school for a further two years. Most of the pupils were still taught by pupil-teachers who often struggled to teach their pupils adequately. School attendance was often erratic which did not help the pupil progress with his/her education. Hence the Commission recommended regular attendance of the pupils at school. Inspection of schools was to be continued and reports made on both the fabric of the school and the teaching taking place within it.

The Commission recommended that the grants, which started in 1833, should continue. However several conditions were given, namely:

1. regular school attendance of pupils needed to be maintained;
2. school buildings were kept in a good state of repair;
3. school received a satisfactory report from the inspector.

Thus government would continue to pay grants to the schools on the conditions set above and the successful completion of the results of its pupils.

The commission defined elementary education in the following ways:

1. read '*a common narrative*';
2. write '*a letter that shall be both legible and intelligible*';
3. know '*enough of ciphering to make out, or test the correctness of a common shop bill*' together with a little geography;

4. ability to ‘*follow the allusions and the arguments of a plain Saxon sermon*’.

[Newcastle 1861 Volume 1 p.243]

With this articulation of the curriculum the schools had the freedom to organise it and make provision for local needs. In particular it was important that the pupils leaving school were prepared for getting a job. In the urban areas the young people starting work needed to have knowledge of business whilst those living in rural areas might need knowledge of agriculture and farming practices.

The Newcastle Commission considered that teacher training colleges should concern themselves solely with subjects that they would be likely to teach to the poor children. As a result of this recommendation the syllabus for trainee teachers would be reduced to an essential minimum.

Geography Syllabus for Boys

First Year

3. To be able to describe⁺ and draw^{\$} the map of the four quarters of the globe, and the map of each country in Europe (that of Great Britain in fuller detail).
4. To answer questions on the physical, political and commercial geography of one quarter of the globe. In December 1863, Africa

+ The term ‘*describe*’ is confined to *words*, as distinguished from *drawing*.

\$ The neatness as well as the correctness of these outlines will be taken into consideration. The degree of longitude and latitude must be given, in order to obtain *full* credits for the exercise.

Second Year

5. Physical Geography
 6. Political Geography
 7. Commercial Geography
 8. Elementary propositions in geography, which depend upon Astronomy for explanation
- | of the British Empire

[Report of the Committee of Council in Education (1862 – 1863), xxxiv – xxxv]

The term “describe” is confined to *words*, as distinguished from *drawing*.
\$ The neatness as well as the correctness of these outlines will be taken into consideration. The degree of longitude and latitude must be given, in order to obtain *full* credits for the exercise.

The syllabus remained essentially the same for some years with minor modifications. Each year the quarter of the globe changed. For example in December 1863 it was Africa and in 1871 it was North America.

The Revised Code of 1862 resulted in school syllabi being narrowed and intending teachers were encouraged to study those subjects which they would have to teach when trained. As a result the curricula of the schools had to be covered by the teacher training colleges.

The outcome of the Newcastle Commission's report was the 1870 Elementary Education Act, commonly known as the Forster Act, which introduced compulsory universal education for all children aged 5-13 years and established school boards to oversee and complete the network of schools and to bring them all under some form of supervision. Such a strategy would have to be affordable and acceptable to the many sectional religious interests.

Thus 1870 can be described as the year in which the government finally began to take the education of the nation's children seriously. Having said that, it must be acknowledged that elementary education was, in many ways, limited and inferior, Blyth (1965) argued that elementary schools were '*a whole educational process in themselves and one which is by definition limited and by implication inferior; a low plateau, rather than the foothills of a complete education*'.

The elementary schools

1. catered for children up to 14;
2. were for the working class;
3. provided a restricted curriculum with the emphasis almost exclusively on the '3Rs' (reading, writing and 'rithmetic);

4. pursued other, less clearly defined, aims including social-disciplinary objectives (acceptance of the teacher's authority, the need for punctuality, obedience, conformity etc);
5. operated the 'monitorial' system, whereby a teacher supervised a large class with assistance from a team of monitors (usually older pupils).

The remuneration of elementary school teachers was based on the system of '*payment by results*' introduced by Lowe's Revised Code in 1862. This laid down precise standards in reading, writing and arithmetic - 'reading a short paragraph in a newspaper; writing similar matter from dictation; working sums in practice and fractions'. (Williams 1965) Thus while public aid to the schools increased, money was tied to the criterion of a minimum standard.

This report undertook a detailed examination of available data on the schools provided for children between the ages of five and twelve. Evidence from Her Majesty's Inspectors reported that less than 25% of children in schools received a satisfactory education. The quality of the education provided in the schools was not considered sufficient for equipping the pupils with sufficient learning for taking their place in a rapidly changing society. Funding for the provision of schools was also a considerable issue for the members of the Royal Commission.

The commissioners examined the funding in the United States of America, all the major countries of Europe as well as in England. In each country the funding for education should be obtained from public taxation. As a result of their deliberations the commissioners made the following suggestions for funding:

1. propose means by which the present system of education may be made applicable to every district throughout England;
2. regulate and control the current expenditure;
3. check all aspects of the administration of the educational system;
4. encourage greater local activity and interest in education;
5. assist pupils to learn a greater degree of elementary knowledge.

The report discovered that there were insufficient places for all the children in the country. Further the report revealed that the majority of pupils had an average life of 4 – 6 years with the majority leaving school by the age of eleven years. A few pupils (around 5.0%) remained in the school for a further two years. Most of the pupils were still taught by pupil-teachers who often struggled to teach even the elementary subjects adequately. As a result of evidence from Her Majesty's Inspectors it was reported that not more than one fourth of the children receive a good education.

'We have seen overwhelming evidence from Her Majesty's Inspectors, to the effect that not more than one fourth of the children receive a good education. So great a failure in the teaching demanded the closest investigation; and as the result of it we have been obliged to come to the conclusion that the instruction given is commonly both too ambitious and too superficial in its character, that (except in the very best schools) it has been too exclusively adapted to the elder scholars to the neglect of the younger ones, and that it often omits to secure a thorough grounding in the simplest but most essential parts of instruction. We have shown that the present system has never completely met this serious difficulty in elementary teaching; that inspection looks chiefly to the upper classes and to the general condition of the school, and cannot profess to examine carefully individual scholars; and that a main object of the schools is defeated in respect of every child who, having attended for a considerable time, leaves without the power of reading, writing, and cyphering in an intelligent manner.'

The Commission defined elementary education in the way that the pupils the pupils should be able to perform the following tasks, namely:

5. read 'a common narrative';
6. write 'a letter that shall be both legible and intelligible';
7. know 'enough of ciphering to make out, or test the correctness of a common shop bill' together with a little geography;
8. ability 'to follow the allusions and the arguments of a plain Saxon sermon'.

[Newcastle Commission Volume 1 p. 243]

With this articulation of the curriculum the schools had the freedom to organise it and make provision for local needs. In particular it was important that the pupils leaving school were prepared for getting a job. In the urban

areas the young people starting work needed to have knowledge of business whilst those living in rural areas might need an adequate knowledge of agriculture and farming practices.

School attendance also assumed a great detail of attention. School attendance was often erratic, especially in rural areas. Alas poor attendance did not help the pupil progress with his/her education. Hence the Royal Commission recommended regular attendance of the pupils at school. Inspection of schools was to be continued and reports made on both the fabric of the school and the teaching within it (Newcastle Report).

The Commission recommended that the government grants, which started in 1833, should continue. However several conditions were given, namely:

1. regular school attendance of pupils needed to be maintained;
2. school buildings were kept in a good state of repair;
3. school received a satisfactory report from the inspector.

Thus government would continue to pay grants to the schools on the conditions set above and the successful completion of the results of pupils.

Mr Robert Lowe, who was Vice-President of the Council of Education and head of the Education Department, produced the Revised Code in 1862 having accepted the recommendations of the Newcastle Commission.

The Revised Code itemised monies to be given to schools for each pupil, namely 4s to be given for a satisfactory attendance record plus 8s for the passing of the examinations in reading, writing and arithmetic.

The salaries of the teachers in the schools were dependent on the size of the grant given to the school. As a result the HMIs felt that teachers might be tempted to concentrate on preparing the pupils for their examinations and thereby teaching a narrow curriculum. Lowe felt that Revised Code would ensure that public money was spent wisely.

In a speech to the House of Commons Robert Lowe defended his Revised Code.

'I cannot promise the House that this system will be an economical one and I cannot promise that it will be an efficient one, but I can promise that it will be either one or the other. If it is not cheap, it shall be efficient: if it is not efficient, it shall be cheap'.

[Speech by Robert Lowe to House of Commons Hansard Vol.165 p.1862]

The Revised Code met with opposition from both sides of the House of Commons. As a result its implementation was delayed but finally came into operation on 1st August 1863.

Each pupil could earn its school twelve shillings a year if he/she passed the appropriate tests in the 3Rs and attended school regularly. The attendance grant for regular attendance earned four shillings for the school. The remainder of the grant was dependent upon the results of the examinations. If a scholar failed to pass the examination in the 3Rs, the amount of two shillings and eight pence would be forfeited per subject. Hence the pay of the teacher became dependent upon the results of the pupils. Other grants, which were also given to pupil-teachers and teacher training colleges, were cut. The revised code changed the way in which the pupils were taught as the teachers sought to concentrate on ensuring that their pupils passed the HMI examinations.

This system was intended to ensure that the students fulfilled their '*pledge*' and went into teaching. If a student failed to complete their course or abandoned their teaching career they experienced a loss of income.

The new code made a number of specific recommendations, namely:

1. payments to managers of schools by means of a single grant;
2. a lower certificate was started;
3. increased the number of trainee teachers allowed for each qualified teacher;
4. grants for school buildings;
5. the essential subjects of reading ,writing and arithmetic were placed in six standards;
6. payment of the amount of the grant for any given school was given according to each pupil's achievement at the examined standard;
7. head teachers of all schools receiving a grant must keep a log book recording information about the life of the school such as appointment of new staff, stage progress and special events;
8. stopped grants for building and improving training colleges.

The Revised Code had a number of negative implications. The new code abolished specific grants to schools and replaced them by a single block

grant, which was paid to the manager of each school. A third of the block grant was given on the basis of the number of pupils in attendance. The remaining two-thirds of the block grant were allocated on the performance of the pupils in annual examinations in reading, writing and arithmetic, which were otherwise known as the 3Rs.

The pupil-teachers had to be paid from the block grant so the school manager tried to get them as cheaply as possible. In addition the five year indentured apprenticeship was replaced by a contract which was renewable every six months. The result of these changes the number of entrants to pupil teaching made a sharp decline.

Further Queen's scholarships were abolished in 1863. In addition the system of paying *per capita* grants on examination successes was also stopped. In future these grants were only to be paid on students had successfully completes two years in training and a period of probationary teaching. Lastly the total grant to a college was not to exceed 75% of iys annual expenditure.

Direct grants for improving or enlarging teacher training college buildings were also withdrawn. Fortunately the scheme for the new girls' normal school, which was part of the original Borough Road complex, had already received governmental approval before this code became implemented.

The system of paying grants on the basis of examination successes posed financial problems to many teacher training institutions as the grants were not paid until the student had completed the second year of the course, passed all the examinations and completed the period of probationary teaching. Further the total grant to the college was not permitted to exceed 75% of its total annual expenditure. This meant that the teacher training colleges had to get money from alternative sources including fee paying students and subscriptions if the college had voluntary status.

Hitherto the teacher's certificate had been graded on the basis of one, two or three years of training. This system was altered by the Committee of Council to give four grades of which the training college could only award the fourth grade. Other grades could be awarded to practising teachers on successful periods of teaching separated by five years on the recommendation of the school inspector.

The Revised Code caused many protests from both individuals such as the teachers and some HMIs as well as petitions from a number of voluntary organisations. Indeed Henry Dunn and William Forster representing the British and Foreign School Society led a petition to the Education Department. Unfortunately these protests and petitions had little effect on the Education Department.

The Committee of Council had to develop strategies in order to increase the number of trainee teachers. Firstly the grant on examination results was reinstated. Secondly students were permitted to qualify having had just one year of training for teaching. Thirdly the pass standard of the Certificate was lowered. Finally HMI were given the power to recommend, without examination, serving teachers for the Certificate. Using these strategies it was hoped to greatly increase the number of teachers in the schools.

The conditions did not go down well with the potential teachers especially when they were notified that pensions were cancelled to new recruits to the profession whilst established teachers kept their pensions. With the cut in salary, recruitment to the teacher training colleges especially the male colleges fell at a time when pupil numbers were increasing. At the time men could easily gain jobs elsewhere. However for women there were less opportunities to gain employment outside domestic service or in teaching.

In 1862 the six standards represented the six years of school life were introduced. These standards continued with slight changes almost to the end of the century.

The Six Standards of Education Contained in the Revised of Regulations, 1862	
STANDARD I	
Reading	One of the narratives next in order after monosyllables in an elementary reading book used in the school.

Writing	Copy in manuscript character a line of print, and write from dictation a few common words.
Arithmetic	Simple addition and subtraction of numbers of not more than four figures, and the multiplication table to multiplication by six.
STANDARD II	
Reading	A short paragraph from an elementary reading book.
Writing	A sentence from the same book, slowly read once, and then dictated in single words.
Arithmetic	The multiplication table, and any simple rule as far as short division (inclusive).
STANDARD III	
Reading	A short paragraph from a more advanced reading book.
Writing	A sentence slowly dictated once by a few words at a time, from the same book.
Arithmetic	Long division and compound rules (money).
STANDARD IV	
Reading	A few lines of poetry or prose, at the choice of the inspector.

Writing	A sentence slowly dictated once, by a few words at a time, from a reading book, such as is used in the first class of the school.
Arithmetic	Compound rules (common weights and measures).
STANDARD V	
Reading	A short ordinary paragraph in a newspaper, or other modern narrative.
Writing	Another short ordinary paragraph in a newspaper, or other modern narrative, slowly dictated once by a few words at a time.
Arithmetic	Practice and bills of parcels.
STANDARD VI	
Reading	To read with fluency and expression.
Writing	A short theme or letter, or an easy paraphrase.
Arithmetic	Proportion and fractions (vulgar and decimal).

In this code precise standards in reading, writing and arithmetic were stated.

Each standard identified the work of one year's study into six stages between the ages of seven and thirteen years of the pupils.

The condition of each school was thoroughly investigated by the school inspector. In particular attention was paid to the lighting, drainage, ventilation, amount of school office space and the amount of internal space

for each child in average attendance at the school. Money for the school grant could be reduced or withheld if the conditions of the school were deemed unsatisfactory.

One of the consequences of the implementation of the 1867 Revised Code was an increase in the number of pupils assigned to one class as follows:

1861	1: 36 pupils
1866	1: 54 pupils

(Matthew Arnold 1867 General Report)

Above all the public were against the '*payment by results*' approach. However the Revised Code did give publicity to the problem of elementary education in the country and it did establish that money dictated the educational system as practised in the early 1860s.

In 1864 the British and Foreign School Society opened a *Kintergarden* in the Infant School attached to its new teacher training college in Stockwell.

The Gothic International College in Isleworth was completed in 1866 and the school was officially opened by the Prince of Wales in the following year. The official name of the college was the London College of the International Education Society but locally it was known as the Spring Grove School located in Isleworth (Sylvester 2002).

The south front of the building had stone medallions representing the countries in the International College scheme. These stone medallions displayed Shakespeare, Goethe, Dante, Homer, Aristotle and Cicero. In addition there was a large detached hall which had been used as a gymnasium and was available for other activities.

This International College had three other companion colleges, which were in France, Germany and Italy. It enrolled secondary school students from a number of countries on a programme aimed at fostering international sentiments in its pupils. Each pupil would spend some time in each country during their time at the school. In particular the school sought to provide a liberal education so that its leavers could gain jobs in commerce and the professions. The college undertook a number of educational experiments

besides having a focus on internationalism. Corporal punishment was not allowed.

All students at these schools were to follow the same curriculum and draw pupils from each of the countries cited. The three continental schools had limited success whilst the school at Spring Grove flourished.

The curriculum had a largely science-focused curriculum, which was developed by Thomas Huxley and John Tydall. Both these men were well known physical scientists. The curriculum included modern languages and elements of physical and social science.

By 1867 the Education Department became very concerned about the number of people completing their teacher training course. As a result the Education Department relaxed the Code of Regulations. In particular the Teacher's Certificate syllabuses were simplified. Boys and girls had somewhat different syllabuses for some subjects, of which geography was one such subject. Grants for additional subjects such as higher mathematics and languages were much reduced.

The overall course syllabus for male candidates covered the following subjects, namely School Management, Grammar, Composition, Geography, History, Euclid, Economy, Vocal Music* and Drawing.

*The Vocal Music paper was not given to any candidate who did not produce a certificate signed by the principal of the training school that *he has such an amount of musical skill, vocal or instrumental, as is sufficient for the purpose of teaching children to sing from notes.*

[(Goldstrom 1972 p.131)]

Geography Syllabus for Male Candidates

First Year

5. To be able to describe⁺ and draw^{\$} the map of the four quarters of the globe, and the map of each country in Europe (that of Great Britain in fuller detail).
6. To answer questions on the physical, political and commercial geography of one quarter of the globe. In December 1863, Africa

Second Year

1. Physical Geography
 2. Political Geography
 3. Commercial Geography
 4. Elementary propositions in geography, which depend upon Astronomy for explanation
- | of the British Empire

- + The term “describe” is confined to *words*, as distinguished from *drawing*.
- \$ The neatness as well as the correctness of these outlines will be taken into consideration. The degree of longitude and latitude must be given, in order to obtain *full* credits for the exercise.

[Report of the Committee of Council in Education (1862 – 1863), xxxiv – xxxv]

- * The vocal music paper is not given to any candidate who does not produce a certificate signed by the principal of the training school.

In 1867 language, geography and history received grants for their examinations (Royal Commission 1861 p 121 – 136).

The general report by Matthew Arnold, an HMI Inspector, in 1867 had some derogatory remarks to make regarding the teaching in the elementary schools. He attacked the mechanical processes and the mechanical form of examination in the teaching of the pupils. Further he stated that he found the *payment by results* methodology applied was harmful to education. He was convinced that a more flexible approach was required.

In his report he stated “*general feeling that the pupils were passing the examinations in reading, writing and ciphering without having an intellectual understanding of these subjects*”.

From 1867 onwards the annual code gradually extended the range of subjects which could earn a grant for their school.

1867 the Representation of the People Act was the second Reform Act to be passed in the nineteenth century. It extended the vote to the urban working class in England and Wales. The act gave the vote to every male adult householder living in a borough constituency. Adult men living in

unfurnished rooms were also granted the vote if they paid a ten pound fee for the room.

Overnight the voting population of the country doubled. Hence the influence of the upper classes of the country lost some of their influence. The government needed to understand that the new electorate would have different priorities to the long established members of the upper and middle classes.

In 1867 the Birmingham Education League was formed by George Dixon MP for Birmingham, Joseph Chamberlain and Jesse Collings as a political organisation which extended across England and Wales (Muirhead 1909). Soon this society became the National Education League which was a non-conformist pressure group established in 1869 to ensure that education should be secular, free and compulsory to the age of eleven years. The league sought to get elementary education for all children free from religious control. The non-denominational schools were supported by local rates and were subject to local control and provided free education (Stephens 1998).

The Nation Education League articulated the means to obtain their objectives. These are stated below:

- 1. Local authorities shall be compelled by law to see that sufficient school accommodation is provided for every child in their district.*
- 2. The cost of founding, and maintaining such schools as may be required shall be provided out of local rates, supplemented by government grants.*
- 3. All schools aided by local rates shall be under the management of local authorities and subject to government inspection.*
- 4. All schools aided by local rates shall be Unsectarian.*
- 5. To all schools aided by local rates admission shall be free.*
- 6. With school accommodation being provided, the state or the local authorities were to have power to compel the attendance of children of suitable age not otherwise receiving education'.*

[National Education League Handbill c.1870]

Part IV p.516 – 517

p. 125 in Stuart McClure

'It appears to us that geography, if properly taught, is a branch of elementary science which need not be separated from science generally, and can well be taught along with other branches of science, 'by means of object lessons...'

The National Education Union originated in the Manchester area and had association with the Anglican Church. It aimed *'to secure the primary education of every child by judiciously supplementing the present system of National Education'* and was supported by voluntary contributions. The schools depended for their finances on parent fees. The union was also against compulsory attendance since they could not cope with the increase in the number of places likely to be required in the near future.

The National Education League was opposed by the National Education Union. It wanted non-sectarian education to be free of any influences by the various denominations. At the time the Anglican and Catholic churches had control of most of the voluntary schools and the religious education practiced therein. On the other hand the Liberals and the Dissenters wanted to have compulsory education for all children without any religious influences at all.

However both these organisations were aware that the education of all children was essential for the future economy of the country. In separate ways they were instrumental in helping to get further education acts on the statute book. As a result the establishment of a system which would secure an education for every child in the country was getting nearer.

Also in 1867 geography, history and geometry were subjects earning grants (Sanderson, 1867 p.17)

The Schools Inquiry Commission, which produced the Taunton Report in 1868, found that provision of secondary education was poor and unevenly distributed. Two thirds of English towns had no secondary schools of any kind and in the remaining third *'there were marked differences of quality'* (Quoted in Williams 1965 p.138). At the time of publication of the Taunton Report there were only thirteen secondary schools for girls across the whole country.

The Commissioners recommended the establishment of a national system of secondary education based on existing endowed schools. Three grades of secondary school were envisaged based on social class distinctions of their parents:

1. Upper and upper-middle class boys would remain at school until the age of 18 and would get a '*liberal education*' to prepare them for the universities and the older professions. Their curriculum would comprise the classics, modern languages and natural science.
2. Middle class boys would stay on till 16 to be prepared for the army, the newer professions and departments of the Civil Service. The curriculum would include Latin and modern subjects.
3. Lower middle class boys would be educated up to the age of 14, and would be expected to become '*small tenant farmers, small tradesmen, and superior artisans*'.

Movement up a grade might be possible for a few, and if links could be established between third grade secondary schools and elementary schools, some sons of working class parents might be able to go on to secondary education.

The Endowed Schools Act 1869 created the Endowed Schools Commission to draw up new schemes of distribution for schools which receive funding from government. Previous endowments had been considered to be poorly distributed and badly spent. The Commission's brief was to ensure that such schools had enough money and that it should be spent appropriately.

The National Education League was a political movement founded in 1869, which sought to promote elementary education for all children free from religious control throughout England and Wales. It developed from the Birmingham Education League which had been founded in 1867 (Muirhead 1909). Reports and publications of the National Education League are held in Birmingham Central Library.

The Nation Education League articulated the means to obtain their objectives. Local authorities shall be compelled by law to see that sufficient school accommodation is provided for every child in their district. The cost of founding, and maintaining such schools as may be required shall be

provided out of local rates, supplemented by government grants. All schools aided by local rates shall be under the management of local authorities and subject to government inspection. All schools aided by local rates shall be non-sectarian. To all schools aided by local rates admission shall be free.

With school accommodation being provided, the state or the local authorities shall have the power to compel the attendance of children of suitable age not otherwise receiving education.

In 1869 the National Union of Elementary Teachers was established at a meeting held at King's College in London (Tropp 1957). This union was to represent all school teachers in England and Wales. Its first secretary was William Lawson.

The 1870s

Prior to 1870 there was no compulsion for children to be sent to school by their parents save for special provisions made under the Factory Acts between the period 1833 – 1867 and the Mines Act of 1860. As both the factories and the mines used children as part of the work force, government decided that these child workers should receive some education.

During the 1870s decade a significant number of educational activities took place. A national system of elementary education was becoming a reality. Most importantly 1870 saw the publication of an Education Act and later in the decade a second education act known as the Elementary Education Act, which became law in 1876. Both acts endeavoured to improve the education of the children of the country. Also in this decade the education of females, both at school and higher education levels, became a reality. In addition a number of other educational organisations were involved with education including the Department of Science and Art, The College of Preceptors and the Froebel Society.

After 1870 the lives of most people in England had changed. These changes included the enclosure of the countryside and the invention of mechanical manufacturing processes. As a result of these changes towns grew rapidly around the factories and mills. The owners of the factories and mills wanted cheap labour and soon sought to recruit children in larger and larger numbers. However unemployment of adults grew and became more common as enclosure and industrialisation gained momentum. The unemployed were in receipt of poor law relief.

The reason for educating the work force was critical if Britain was to remain competitive in the world. It was vitally important that Great Britain should continue be at the forefront of manufacturing activities. However there were a large number of people who resisted the mass education of the working class children as they might revolt about their position in life. These people did not appreciate the need of factory owners to have workers who were well educated and had a range of practical skills.

Unfortunately the Franco-German War 1870 - 1871 hindered development of the concept of international education for students of secondary age. As a result the International School in Isleworth did not prosper as was hoped.

With the arrival of W. E. Forster as the Vice-President of the Education Department, free elementary education was to be made available to all children between the ages of five to twelve. The Education Act, known as the Forster Act, was passed in 1870. Although this act did not originate compulsory education, it did make it possible for elementary education to be given to all. At its inception the system was neither national nor was it completely free to parents.

The Education Act created School Boards and they were given powers to provide free tickets to parents who were deemed not be able to pay for their child's education. This act made it compulsory for local education authorities to establish schools in any area where there was inadequacy of school places. Furthermore compulsory attendance at school could be implemented as the school boards were given power to make by-laws operative within their area.

In the decade of the 1870s the Revised Code of Regulations, which had been operating for some years, received some modifications. In 1871 the old Standard 1 was abolished and the remaining standards were renamed and a new Standard VI was added. In addition the grants offered by the Code of Regulations were increased.

The public elementary schools were to be funded by the state and supplemented by local taxes. All teachers in these schools had to be certificated and they would be required to ensure that all children should be able to read and write. Further School Boards with elected members were to be established in order to oversee and complete the network of schools. The School Boards raised the status of teachers and gave them defined salary scales.

The new Education Act created an immediate need for more trained teachers, which at this point in time was a two year course. Several measures were taken in order to deal with the shortage of Certificated Teachers but time was needed. In particular the Queen's Scholarships were revived. Any pupil-teacher gaining sufficiently high examination results would gain admission to a teacher training college. As a result of the revival the number of students in training rose rapidly.

In 1870 Miss Frances Mary Buss became the first female member of the College of Preceptors' Council (Ridley 1895). In 1873 Miss Buss and a

colleague, by name Beata Doreck, persuaded the Council of the College of Preceptors to start a class for the training of teachers for secondary schools. These classes were directed by Joseph Payne (Aldrich 1995).

In 1870 it was acknowledged that religious instruction was a valuable part of the education of young children. However its exact form was questioned. The two main possibilities for providing such religious instruction were either left to parents and churches or given in all schools assisted by the State.

The inclusion of the Cowper-Temple clause in the 1870 Education Act meant that the following statement must apply in all schools:
'no catechism or religious formulary which is distinctive of any particular denomination, shall be taught in the school'.
[Education Act 1870 Section 14 p.48]

The British and Foreign School Society welcomed the Cowper-Temple clause which stated that religious instruction in the new Board schools was to be based solely on the Bible reading. By this clause religious education was to become undenominational.

In addition a conscience clause was included in the act. This clause gave the right of any parent to withdraw their child from religious instruction in public elementary schools, on the grounds of conscience. This clause was to apply to voluntary schools receiving state aid and as well as all public elementary schools.

The Committee of Council realised that action needed to be taken in order to gain a larger supply of teachers in the light of the passing of the 1870 Education Bill. Actions taken involved restoring grants on examination results, permission given to colleges to pass students as qualified after one year of training and empowered HMIs to recommend serving teachers for the Teacher's Certificate without having to incur any examination.

The 1870 Education Act did not give School Boards the power to train teachers. The voluntary societies did what they could to increase the number of teachers in their colleges. The British and Foreign School Society doubled its student places in three years. Borough Road College and Stockwell College were expanded and two new women's teacher training colleges were opened one at Darlington and the other in Swansea. The Church of England

opened teacher training colleges at Chichester and Oxford in 1872 and at Tottenham in 1874. The Roman Catholics opened a teacher training college in Wandsworth in 1874.

In June 1870 the National Union of Elementary Teachers in England and Wales was established at a meeting held at King's College, London. The aim of the union was to represent all school teachers in England and Wales. At this point in time the various existing teacher organisations decided to form a new professional organisation of teachers after some years of disagreement. The various teacher organisations came together in order to act on behalf of the profession to which they were all members. The union was to provide its members with an opportunity to air their own views and support the teachers if they wished to take action.

The first secretary of the National Union of Elementary Teachers was William Lawson, who articulated its aims at its first conference held in September 1870.

'The objects of the union are to unite together, by means of local associations, public elementary teachers throughout the kingdom, in order to provide a machinery by means of which teachers may give expression to their opinions when occasion requires, and may also take united action in any matter affecting their interests. The character of the union will be more fully seen when it is fully established, but the following topics will receive its immediate attention:

- (1) Revision of the Code.*
- (2) Working of the Education Act*
- (3) The establishment of a pension scheme.*
- (4) The throwing open of higher educational offices to elementary teachers.*
- (5) The proposal to raise teaching to a profession by means of a public register of duly qualified teachers for every class of schools'*

[NUET (1870) Minutes of the first conference in October 1870 enclosed in NUET papers for the Schoolmaster no. LXX (new series): document reference MSS179/EXEC1/1/1/1]

In 1870 the number of potential teachers exceeded the number of places available in the teacher training colleges. The following year the total number of trainee teachers was increased. For Borough Road College to accommodate more students there was an urgent need to add additional storey to the building at Borough Road (Bartle 1976 p.32).

Alas the building work to provide an additional storey to the existing Borough Road building was seriously interrupted by a fire in December 1871, which took place on the night before the Teacher's Certificate examination (Bartle 1976 p.32). The fire took hold and many rooms at the rear of the building were severely damaged. In addition to damage to the fabric of the building many people, both staff and students, lost personal possessions. Luckily no person was injured.

At about the same time as the fire the girls' school moved into buildings separate from the college building itself. A large schoolroom in the girls' school was then converted into a new dining hall.

Maria Grey proposed the creation of a national movement which would promote women's education and presented the scheme to the Society of Arts in 1871. The scheme received great support and Maria Grey gave a second paper to the Social Science Association's annual congress in Leeds later the same year.

Maria Grey and her sister Emily set up a provisional committee named the National Union of the Improving the Education of Women of All Classes (later shortened to the Women's Education Union).

This Union was established in 1871 with Princess Louise as its president. Its aims were:

1. To supply a common centre and means of intercommunication to all individuals and associations engaged in promoting the education of women of whatever class.
2. To promote all measures tending to give to women generally the means of better intelligent and moral training.
3. To create a sound and public opinion on the subject of women's education, and thus to remove the great hindrance to its improvement, the indifference of parents and the public concerning it.

The Women's Education Union was a pressure group formed to state a case for women's rights to professional recognition as teachers. In addition Maria Grey endeavoured to establish Education as a field of academic study.

Women's Education Union aimed to establish good and cheap day schools for all classes above the level of elementary education. Both sisters were very active in the Union, and Emily acted as the organising secretary of the Union until 1879.

The Woman's Education Union also led to the formation The Girls' Public Day School Company (GPDSC) in 1872 (Kamm 1971)). The company was to provide high schools for girls of all classes. School fees were charged but kept at a reasonable level. Each school had preparatory, junior and senior departments with one female headmistress and a staff of trained teachers. The schools were subject to regular inspections and examinations.

A group of teachers started a weekly journal entitled 'The *Schoolmaster*' in 1872. The journal provided the main forum for teachers to discuss issues and engage in debates of relevance to them.

The National Society launched a campaign for financial support to build more Church schools. It was felt that the act gave permission to establish such schools where voluntary provision was inadequate. However the British and Foreign School Society took a different view. The Society encouraged its trained teachers to accept teaching positions in Board schools as well as British schools.

In the 1870s several denominational teacher training colleges opened in the London area. In 1872 the Methodists opened Southlands College in Battersea for training women and in 1874 the Roman Catholics opened Digby Stuart College for women in Roehampton. Also in 1872 a Froebel training college started in London. The colleges aimed to address the needs of children. All the colleges aimed to address the needs of children.

In the early 1870s teacher training colleges could enter students for examinations run under the auspices of the Department of Science and Art based in South Kensington. The Department was sponsored by the government as there was a realisation that teachers needed technical and scientific knowledge. The examinations were held twice a year. Furthermore financial rewards were offered to teachers as well as prizes and certificates of merit to successful candidates in a range of subjects.

The examinations of the Department of Science and Art were taken on a regular basis by Borough Road College students from 1870 onwards.

Besides gaining certificates and financial rewards for themselves they also earned considerable financial rewards for the tutors who taught them. A number of different subject areas could be studied including mathematics, geometry, geology, mineralogy mechanics, inorganic chemistry, physiology, zoology and drawing. Success in these examinations earned prizes and certificates for the students and grants for their teachers.

The science certificates allowed their holders to teach in evening classes and Saturday classes for which they received extra payments. Also success in these examinations gave grants to their teachers thereby permitting colleges to increase their income.

Due to the increase in the extra courses being offered Borough Road College needed to increase the number of part-time staff employed. Over time it became the norm to employ several of its most able students to function as assistant part-time tutors on a contract before they took a school appointment.

By the end of 1871 three hundred School Boards had been established. In the same year the Code of 1871 established a course in three primary studies. The course was divided into six stages, which were called '*standards*'. Each standard stated the work to be accomplished in one year of study between the ages of seven and thirteen. It was necessary for the pupil to pass the annual examinations defined by the six standards.

Table 3: The Six Standards of Education as Defined in the Revised Code of Regulations of 1872

STANDARD I	
Reading	One of the narratives next in order after monosyllables in an elementary reading book used in the school.
Writing	Copy in manuscript character a line of print, and write from dictation a few common words.

Arithmetic	Simple addition and subtraction of numbers of not more than four figures, and the multiplication table to multiplication by six.
STANDARD II	
Reading	A short paragraph from an elementary reading book.
Writing	A sentence from the same book, slowly read once, and then dictated in single words.
Arithmetic	The multiplication table and any simple rule as far as short division (inclusive).
STANDARD III	
Reading	A short paragraph from a more advanced reading book.
Writing	A sentence slowly dictated once by a few words at a time, from the same book.
Arithmetic	Long division and compound rules (money).
STANDARD IV	
Reading	A few lines of poetry or prose, at the choice of the inspector.
Writing	A sentence slowly dictated once, by a few words at a time, from a reading book, such as is used in the first class of the school.

Arithmetic	Compound rules (common weights and measures).
STANDARD V	
Reading	A short ordinary paragraph in a newspaper, or other modern narrative.
Writing	Another short ordinary paragraph in a newspaper, or other modern narrative, slowly dictated once by a few words at a time.
Arithmetic	Practice and bills of parcels.
STANDARD VI	
Reading	To read with fluency and expression.
Writing	A short theme or letter, or an easy paraphrase.
Arithmetic	Proportion and fractions (vulgar and decimal).

In order to pass in the sixth or highest standard, the pupil was required to meet three different criteria covering English and Arithmetic. There was a need to read with fluency and expression and to write a short theme, or letter, or undertake some easy paraphrase. In arithmetic there was a need to demonstrate the working of sums in proportion and vulgar or decimal fractions.

The specific subjects were algebra, Euclid, mensuration, Latin, French, German, mechanics, animal physiology, physical geography, botany and domestic economy.

In 1873 Joseph Payne was appointed the first Professor of Science and Art at the College of Preceptors. Also in the same year the College of Preceptors organised courses of lectures for intending teachers. During the 1870s the College of Preceptors helped to establish education as a subject of study at university level (Burstall 1938).

In 1873 Miss Frances Buss and another female member of its Council persuaded the College of Preceptors to start training classes for secondary teachers under the jurisdiction of Joseph Payne (Chapman 1985). In the same year as the training classes begun, the first Professor of Education in the United Kingdom was created.

In 1874 the London Kindergarten Society was established. It was supported by many able women having an interest in the education of young children. In the same year the British and Foreign School Society appointed Miss Heerwart Principal of the Kindergarten College and its practising school at Stockwell College.

Also in 1874 Beata Doreck, Emily Shirreff and Maria Grey were involved in establishing the Froebel Society of the kindergarten system of education. Its aims were to popularise the Froebelian principles and to provide training for teachers in these principles. Beata Doreck was elected President of the Froebel Society. Regrettably Beata Doreck died the following year and was replaced as president by Emily Sherreff.

In 1875 the Code was somewhat altered so that it became more ordered. Class subjects and specific subjects were added to the three Rs. Initially the *class subjects* which included subjects taught throughout the school above Standard 1 were grammar, geography and for the girls needlework was also added. These subjects were examined by classes and grants were made on the basis of the performance of the group as a whole. The *specific subjects* were algebra, Euclid, mensuration, Latin, French, German, mechanics, animal physiology, physical geography, botany and domestic economy.

The Geography Syllabus for Standard II to Standard VI in 1875 is given below:

Standard II: Definitions of points of the compass, form and motion of the Earth and the meaning of a map

Standard III: Outline of geography of England with special knowledge of the county in which the school is situated

Standard IV: Outline of geography of Great Britain, Ireland and the Colonies

Standard V: Outlines of geography of Europe – physical and political

Standard VI: Outlines of the geography of the World
[Minutes of the Committee of Council Geography Syllabus for 1875]

Several more advanced studies were enumerated, any two of which might be offered for the individual examination of pupils in the three highest grades. In the same code military drill was introduced into the schools.

However the passage of the 1970 Education Act also posed some problems. In particular no provision was made for looking after the health of the children in the schools or recruiting and training the vast numbers of new teachers that were required.

The teaching of English, Geography, History and Elementary Science were criticised by the Commissioners. In geography the need for alternative syllabi suited to different teachers was stressed by the Commissioners. Too much Geography teaching was nothing more than a list of names, facts and definitions without any content. It was their view that much aridity of the work would be removed if teachers confined themselves to fewer countries and to the striking distinction between the different areas of the earth, dealt in a more descriptive way. In addition the relationship between geography and elementary science was important to impart to the pupils.

From the middle of the 1870s able students were encouraged to take London University degree examinations as external students. The examinations, which became available to the Borough Road College students as a result of changes in the Certificate regulations, were Matriculation and Intermediate BA and BSc awards.

The syllabus for the class subject Geography was:

1. Definitions, points of compass, form and motion of the earth, the meaning of a map

2. Outlines of Geography and English, with special knowledge of the county in which the school is situated
3. Outlines of Geography of Great Britain, Ireland and the Colonies
4. Outlines of Geography of Europe – physical and political
5. Outlines of Geography of the World

In 1876 English literature was added to the Code.

In 1876 the London Froebel Society started two certificates (a) Lower for assistant teachers and (b) Higher for teachers hoping to become heads of kindergarten schools.

The Elementary Education Act, commonly known as the Sandon Act, was passed in 1876. This act stated that no child under ten years of age could be employed and School Boards were established in order to compel attendance. It made education compulsory throughout England and placed a statutory duty on parents to ensure that their children attended school regularly to gain their 3Rs. However it was some years before the 1876 Elementary Education Act, took action to ensure that all children between the ages of five and twelve years of age attended school.

The 1876 Education Act provided a system of Honours certificates, which gave '*free education*' for three years to pupils who had achieved a pass in Standard IV at ten years of age and had a certificate of regular attendance for five years. No pupil between the ages of ten and fourteen years could leave school until he/she had passed Standard IV examinations in reading, writing and arithmetic. In addition a labour certificate had to be given so that the young person could be legally employed.

Clearly free education for a further three years for able pupils was an incentive for children them to remain in education for a longer period of time. This incentive lasted just five years but it did help the development of *higher grade* work in many elementary schools.

Children had to attend school until they were thirteen, but they could leave at age ten if they could pass the Standard V examination. Alas truancy was commonplace as parents were often unable to cope without the extra finances that children working could contribute to the family household. The school boards found it difficult to police school attendance.

The Teachers Training Registration Society was established in 1876 and opened a training college for secondary teachers in 1878. The college was located in Clergy House, Skinner Street, Bishopgate.

In 1878 The University of London opened its examinations and degrees in each faculty to women and in the following year the London Froebel Society opened a kindergarten school and a teacher training college.

The 1880s

The decade of the 1880s saw continual changes being made to the Code of Regulations as more pupils successfully completed the six standards of the Revised Code and so higher grade work was required. Also there were a continuing number of pupils attending secondary schools. As a result more trained teachers were required for the schools.

By the 1880s the Code of Regulations had divided the curriculum in elementary schools into two distinct parts:

1. Obligatory subjects - the three Rs
2. Optional subjects – these were divided into two types:
 - a. class subjects which could be taken throughout the school above Standard 1 – geography, history, plain needlework. Assessment for grant for these class subjects was made on the work of all the pupils in the class and not individual pupils.
 - b. specific subject – science - only taken above Standard 1V.

In the 1880s the Revised Code continued to influence the training of teachers. The curriculum was narrowed in order to ensure that their pupils passed the required standards. The teaching of science suffered because an element of practical work was needed. Equipment was required but finances were very tight so little apparatus could be purchased.

Throughout the decade the function of the University of London caused problems and was the subject of several Royal Commissions. The Royal Commissions needed to establish the University of London as having both and examining and teaching functions.

The 1880 Education Act, commonly known as the Mundella Act, stated that the school attendance of children was the responsibility of the parents and the school boards. By the passing of this act the school boards and school attendance committees were forced to ensure compulsory attendance. Children between the ages of five and ten years of age had to attend school. Between the ages of ten and thirteen exception could only be secured by a child who had reached the age proficiency fixed by the bye-laws.

Penalties could be imposed when pupils between the ages of ten and thirteen were illegally employed in work. At the age of thirteen a child could secure

exemption on attendance alone irrespective of his proficiency. At the age of fourteen years the child was free from either the requirements of either attendance or proficiency. Unfortunately the bye-laws varied considerably from parish to parish and even the standard of proficiency varied from parish to parish.

In 1880 the Manchester and London Froebel Societies joined forces to form a deputation to the Vice-President of the Committee of Council, Mr Mundella, seeking to urge him to introduce the Kindergarten method into every public elementary school. Mr Mundella was not prepared to go as far as the deputation requested but he was prepared to insert a statement in the Elementary School Code that offered Infant schools the chance to qualify for a new '*Merit Grant*'. Their curriculum had to include '*simple lessons on objects, the phenomena of nature and common life*' in order to qualify for the merit grant.

The merit grant was introduced as an incentive to improving better work from the pupils. The school would receive a merit grant of one shilling, two shillings or three shillings per head, if the school was rated fair, good or excellent. The inspectors considered the nature of the school with respect to:

- (a) the organisation and discipline;
- (b) the intelligence employed in instruction;
- (c) general quality of the work, especially in elementary subjects.

[Education Department of the Committee of Council 1881 – 1882 p.111]

Teachers taught to get their pupils to pass the standard for their age. Hence teaching methods and materials were geared towards passing the examinations.

Maria Grey College established its own school in 1881 in a rented house in Fitzroy Square. When the school moved to Fitzroy Street nearby the school became the major practicing school.

In 1882 the Code of Regulations was modified but '*payment by results*' remained the basis of the code. In addition the Code of Regulations underwent further organisation of the curriculum. Grants were reckoned, not on individual children, but on the average attendance of the school. A new method of assessing the grants was made more complicated.

[Council of Education 1881- 1882 p.111-144]

Also in 1882 a seventh standard was added to the six standards, which had been in force since 1871. The seventh standard was needed since the children were remaining longer in the school system. The studies were divided into three groups:

1. obligatory (elementary) in which needlework was added to the 3Rs;
2. class;
3. specific

The seventh standard called the *higher grade* heralded the advent of the secondary school.

In order to pass the seventh standard in obligatory subjects the pupil had to:

1. *'read a passage from Shakespeare or Milton or some other standard author, or from a History of England;*
2. *write a theme or a letter, composition, spelling and handwriting to be considered;*
3. *sums in averages, percentages, discounts and stocks'*

[Code of Regulations 1882]

The subjects English (literature and grammar, physical geogaphy and the new elementary science were made class subjects whilst agriculture and two branches of physics were added to the list as specific subjects. Agriculture and physics were restricted to pupils taking standard V or higher.

As the number of pupils increased, so more work in assessment was required and substantially more HMIs needed to be recruited. Alas the HMIs were normally Oxford or Cambridge graduates with little or no initial practical knowledge of elementary schools and many of them were opposed to promote elementary school teachers to their ranks. Indeed most HMIs still followed the old strict Revised Code.

In 1883 a Kindergarten division of Maria Grey College was created and it developed into the practicing school. Maria Grey College offered a course leading to the Certificate of the Froebel Society for kindergarten teachers.

In 1884 the London Froebel Society established two Certificates:

1. Lower Certificate for assistant teachers and
2. Upper Certificate for teachers seeking to be heads of kindergarten schools.

Also in 1884 the London School Board took further measures to improve the quality of the pupil-teacher experience. At that time the instruction given to the pupil-teacher before and after the school day and replaced it with a '*half-time*' system. Under this scheme the pupil-teachers spent half the school week teaching and the other half of the week at the pupil-teacher centre. In time these centres began to look more like secondary schools.

The 1884 Royal Commission on Technical Instruction had demanded that more secondary schooling which would provide a basis for industrial training. There was a strong view that England was lacking in well qualified young persons for work in industry.

Later in the decade the establishment of a Code Committee composed mainly of HMIs started to develop a wider curricula for the pupils in elementary schools. It was felt that pupils needed to sample a larger number of subjects.

In 1884 the controversy regarding making the University of London having both examining and teaching functions led to the formation of the Association for Promoting a Teaching University of London (AIM25 UCL 1998). It was founded in order to create a new independent teaching university to be called the Albert University. The proposal was put forward in 1887 in a joint submission from University College London and King's College London. The Association suggested that there should be two universities with the respective functions of teaching and examining. It was suggested that there might be one Chancellor but each university having its own Vice-Chancellor. The proposal was put to a Royal Commission.

The Convocation of the University of London approved a scheme and a draft constitution of a reconstructed University of London was prepared. Alas it was not possible to get general agreement of all parties involved. Indeed it was feared that the university would break-up.

From its foundation in the early nineteenth century the University of London had been an examining body. As an examining body its various examinations were taken by students in a large number of institutions both in

London and other institutions in the provinces. However in 1887 King's College and University College petitioned the Privy Council to award their own degrees. They took that action since they were opposed to a second university within the Metropolis of London which had been raised by a group of people wanting the University of London to become a teaching body.

The petition by King's College and University College to the Crown was for a charter giving them authority to grant degrees in all faculties. Once again this action did not secure agreement of all parties and a third of the Council of University College resigned. The petition sought the formation of a new institution to be known as the Albert University. King's College and University College were to be constituted as colleges of the university with powers to admit other colleges. The Royal Commission rejected the petition.

In particular the Senate of the University of London disliked the idea of the power to confer degrees being in the hands of the teachers of the university. Eventually the government had to intervene in the dispute and it was decided to appoint a Royal Commission to consider the issue in detail.

For some years the University of London just acted as an examining body. It merely provided degree examination papers for students to take. Success in the examinations made them graduates of the University of London. Alas teachers preparing their students for University of London degrees had no part in designing the syllabi or setting the examination papers. Furthermore the teachers were to be found in a range of institutions.

The University of London was to be a non-teaching institution. There were to be no tests and theology was to be kept out of the curriculum. The embryo university was to concentrate on modern studies and science. Its curriculum included languages, mathematics, physics, mental and moral sciences, law and political economy. However the largest curriculum area was medicine.

This university was secular, non-residential and cheap to operate compared with Oxford and Cambridge Universities. However it met the increasing demand for more people to get degrees. Thomas Arnold called it '*the godless institution of Gower Street*'. This statement was considered by University College to be apotryphal (Bloomsbury Project University of London 1994 – 2009).

Originally King's College and University College were satisfied with the compromise but in time defects became apparent. The University of London was merely an organisation for examining candidates and referring degrees. It was not a teaching body. The original charter for the University of London had authority to affiliate other colleges.

A number of attempts were made to settle whether the University of London should have teaching functions continued for some years. Reform of the University of London was required and a draft constitution for the reconstructed University of London was prepared. Alas it was not possible to get the agreement of all parties involved.

The dispute got so heated that the government found it necessary to intervene and to appoint a Royal Commission under the chairmanship of Lord Selborne in 1888. This Commission published its report in 1889 (no. 68 Harrison 1995). The terms of reference of the Royal Commission on the nature of the University were:

'To make inquiry whether and what kind of new university or power is or are required for the advancement of the higher education in London'

The Selborne Commission made a number of recommendations. Firstly the University of London should apply for a charter giving it both examining and teaching powers. It should be reconstructed as a teaching university. The constituent colleges of the university should be institutions within the County of London. Neither college nor the medical organisations ought to have the power to confer degrees. The university alone could take this action. Despite attempts to bring about integration of the colleges, it was not possible for a scheme of union proposed by the university to be prepared. The scheme was not acceptable to the colleges. Interestingly the University of London was also unable to agree to this state of affairs.

Furthermore the Royal Commission did not produce details of its proposal. The report recommended that a reasonable space of time should be allowed so that the Senate and Convocation to consider whether a new charter should be sought to extend the powers of the university. The Commission preferred to see one university in the metropolis rather than two.

University College and King's College decided to leave the existing university with the object of founding a new teaching university to be named

the Gresham University. The House of Commons asked the Queen to delay her consent to the charter until a new Royal Commission had investigated the situation and they had its report.

University College and Kings College objected to the size of the Senate and to what they considered the inadequate representation of the constituent colleges. In addition Convocation of the University also objected in 1891. Convocation strongly opposed a clause in the scheme produced by the University of London, which was contrary to the views of the Selborne Commission.

In the meantime The Committee of the Privy Council was drafting a charter for the new Gresham University. Its aims were:

'to consider and, if necessary, amend, alter or extend the proposed charter for the Gresham University in London.'

(Harrison 1975 Number79)

The new Royal Commission, which was appointed in 1892, was chaired by Earl Cowper. Its terms of reference were:

'To consider and, if necessary, amend, alter or extend the proposed Charter for the Gresham University in London'

The Commissioners were in favour of a single university for London and overall there was agreement with the recommendations made by the Selborne Commission. The Commissioners stressed the need for legislation to authorise the recommended changes.

Criticism of a university which was only an examining body started to grow. In particular criticism was directed at the lack of interaction which the staff teaching students for London University degrees in a variety of colleges. In particular the staff of the colleges had no chance to assist in drawing the syllabi or the setting of examination papers.

Sluggish progress was made but Mr R B Haldane proceeded to draft a bill as a private member's bill but it was defeated. However he then sought a sponsor to forward the bill. Mr Balfour promoted the bill through Parliament successfully.

Several teacher training colleges applied for membership of this select group of institutions known as the University of London including both Borough Road College and Stockwell College. The rationale for seeking membership was that the number of University of London examinations taken and the high qualifications of the staff entitled the colleges to be schools of the university. Six members of the Borough Road College, namely Principal Withers, Mr Barkby, Mr Miller and three junior members of staff all with university degrees, applied for recognition but without success (BFSS Annual Report 1899 p.5).

During the period 1886 – 1888 a governmental committee was appointed to inquire into the working of the Elementary Education Acts in England and Wales (Harrison 1995). The Cross Commission, which was chaired by Sir Richard Assheton Cross, reviewed the working of the 1870 Act and recommended public funding for the secular curriculum in church schools. In particular the Cross Commission investigated the pupil-teacher and the training college system.

The composition of the Cross Committee was comprised eighteen members, each of whom had strong views on the working of the Education Acts. As a result it was not possible to produce a final report on which all members agreed. In fact two reports were published in 1888. The two reports published were a majority report representing the views of thirteen members and a minority report representing five members of the Cross Commission. The content of these two reports represented differences between the members of the general public. The members of the majority report were supportive of the voluntary system whilst the members of the minority report were critical of its shortcomings. The members of the minority report were anxious to complete a unified national system.

Both reports agreed that there was a need of greater facilities for the training of teachers and supported the creation of day training colleges in connection with the universities.

The findings of the report were divided into seven major categories, namely the inspectorate, teachers, training colleges, attendance and compulsion, religion and moral training and finance.

‘Considering the demand that already exists for more ample or more generally available opportunities for training, and the importance of giving

every facility or training to those who now obtain certificates without it; considering further, that such schemes as those submitted to us would, in their nature, be tentative, that they would not involve a large outlay of capital, and would only be adopted when local circumstances seemed to invite the adaptation of some existing educational machinery to this purpose, we think it might be well that some such experiment should be made, subject to the condition, that only a limited number of students should receive Government assistance towards their training'
[Cross Commission Final Report 1888 p.101]

In particular the minority group members disagreed with the training of teachers and objected to the proposal to support voluntary schools from the rates. In addition the view that moral training could be tested by inspection conducted by HMIs was doubted. However the minority members did accept that character for intending teachers was of importance.

Although the Cross Commission advised the retention of the seven standards, it made a number of recommendations designed to improve the quality of the pupil's learning experience. In particular the recommendations endeavoured to release the pupils and teachers from the somewhat rigid administration of the course of teaching.

Teachers were recommended to classify pupils according to ability and attainment not by age or by insisting that each standard should be taken and passed. It was also recommended that drawing should be made a compulsory subject for boys since it was considered that this subject had much to offer the economy of the country.

The question of establishing non-residential colleges evoked considerable discussion. Revd J P Norris, the Archbishop of Bristol, was against the adoption of day training colleges in England. He spoke with long experience of being an HMI and as a diocesan inspector of schools. He stated that:

'a training college ought to be a home; you ought to have the students all through the twenty-four hours in order to form their personal habits'
[Cross Commission 3rd Report 1887 p.163]

On the other side of the argument there were other well-known educationalists. Professor H Jones considered that the day training colleges

were the *'only hope of elevating the schools'* [Cross Commission 3rd Report 1887 p.322]

Mr J G Fitch (later Sir Joshua Fitch), who had been the Principal of Borough Road College and an HMI, thought that non-residential training colleges might be of considerable value. He stated in the Cross Commission report that:

'They will be defective, no doubt, in the discipline and in some of the moral influences which belong now to the [residential] training colleges, and which are very valuable, but I think that they may give in some respects a broader and more liberal training'
[Cross Commission 3rd Report 1887 p.550]

The majority and minority reports of the Cross Committee differed fundamentally about the pupil-teaching methodology.

The majority report stated that:

'.....having regard to moral qualifications, there is no other available, or as we prefer to say, equally trustworthy source from which an adequate supply of teachers is likely to be forthcoming'
[Cross Commission Final Report, 1888, Part III Chapter 5, p.88].

Later the members of the Cross Commission recommended that:

'...with modifications, tending to the improvement of their education, the apprenticeship of pupil-teachers.... ought to be upheld'.
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[Cross Commission, Final Report, 1888 Part III Chapter 5, p.88]

In the final report of the Cross Commission the majority view recommended that as an experiment non-residential colleges should be tried.

Although the Cross Commission advised the retention of the seven standards, it made a number of recommendations designed to improve the quality of the pupil's learning experience. In particular the recommendations endeavoured to release the pupils and teachers from the somewhat rigid administration of the course of teaching.

The Government accepted the recommendation from the Majority Report. It agreed that day training colleges should be established by universities and university colleges but declined to permit School Boards to initiate day training colleges. Some conditions were imposed on the day training colleges including having their curricula approved by the Education Department and their colleges inspected by HMI. For the students they were given the option of taking an undergraduate course instead of Part II of the Department's course. The Education Department required that it saw the syllabuses, examination papers, the student scripts and the marks awarded so that they could ensure standards.

The view of the majority members of the Cross Commission report was that day training colleges should be attached to universities or university colleges. Members of the minority Cross Commission report wanted day training colleges to be aided by local rates and be under the control of local authorities. Further it was felt that a proportion of the students attending day training colleges should be boarders. In addition there was a view that day students should be allowed to attend residential colleges.

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[Cross Commission, Final Report, 1888 Part III Chapter 5, p.88]

The members of the minority report stated that:

'In general we consider that the pupil-teacher system is now the weakest part of our educational machinery, and that great changes are needed in it if it is to be continued'.

[Cross Commission Final Report, 1888, Part III Chapter 5, p.242].

The Cross Commission recommended reforms. There was a view that the pupil-teacher centres were not good enough. However they could not recommend immediate action to ensure that at the current time it was not possible to fulfil the purposes of secondary schools and so give the secondary education which all pupil-teachers should receive. However the Cross Commission looked forward to improvements so that pupil-teacher expectations could be met.

The Cross Commission made comments about the teaching of the four class subjects taught in I elementary schools. These subjects were English, Geography, History and Elementary Science, all of which received criticism.

In the Cross report it was stressed that geography teachers needed alternative syllabi, which met the individual teachers. Often too much of the geography teaching was nothing more than lists of names, facts and definitions without any content. The Commissioners thought that the acidity of much of the work would be removed, if teachers reduced the number of countries studied. In particular emphasis should be directed to the distinctions between the different areas of the earth and attempt to describe them in some detail. In addition it was anticipated that connections between geography and

elementary science. It was hoped that Standard VII would display some specialisation e.g. study of the causes that contribute to the distribution of plant and animal life.

The 1888 Education Reform Act, otherwise known as the Redistribution Act, gave parents the right to choose the school for their children. The act made changes to the distribution of the Member of Parliament dependent upon the size of the town's population.

Principal Barnett was appointed in 1888 following the death of Principal Curtis in office. One of his first tasks was making the arrangements for the transfer of the Borough Road institutions from Stockwell to Isleworth.

The National Union of Elementary Teachers (NUET) had some problems during its early years. In particular relations with the Education Department were strained and liaisons broke down during the period 1884 – 1889. However in 1889 the Union decided to drop the title *Elementary* from its title. Thus the National Union of Teachers was formed. It was hoped that any teacher in either a primary school or a secondary school or a university would join the National Union of Teachers.

For these reasons the report proposed reforms such that the pupil-teacher centres improved. All pupil teachers needed to have an adequate secondary education before undergoing training for teaching. The members of the report thought that the pupil-teacher centres could have a future.

For the year 1887 - 1888 the pupil-teacher schedule was a four year apprenticeship since the pupils could not begin their apprenticeship until they had reached the age of fourteen years.

For the subject of geography reading the relevant text books, listening and participating in oral lessons and seeing a range of visual media including maps, globe and atlases were recognised as suitable means of instructing the pupils.

For the lower classes in the school it was considered helpful that large maps of the county, parish and local neighbourhood could be displayed on the walls of the classroom. The maps could show the locations of some places and likely to be known by the pupils. In addition the exact distances from one point to another could be determined. It would also be useful to draw the

meridian line on the floor of the classroom so that the pupils know them in relation to the school itself and its position on the map.

For the more advanced classes (Standard V and upwards), more in-depth knowledge of geography was required. For example associations between the name of places and pertinent historical, social or industrial facts can make learning easier and more interesting.

In 1887 the Froebel Society created a separate body which was called the National Froebel Union. Its role was to validate examinations and set standards for the Froebel Teacher's Certificate. The National Froebel Union was established in order to deal with the work of examining and certificating teachers using the principles of Freidrich Froebel. It brought together local Froebel Societies in Croydon, Bedford and Manchester.

The Local Government Act of 1888 proposed that county and county borough councils should be allowed to raise a penny rate for the purpose of founding schools and providing scholarships. This '*whiskey money*' became a permanent feature for technical instruction in schools until 1902.

In 1888 London County Council was established by the Local Government Act. It was the policy of the new council to use funds obtained from a levy on rates and also monies got from the '*whiskey money*' grant in order to establish polytechnics in various parts of London. The Borough Road College complex of buildings in Southwark was considered to be a suitable site for a polytechnic to be established south of the River Thames. The London County Council made an offer to purchase the lease of the site in the spring of 1889.

On accepting the offer Borough Road College decided that it wished to buy a suitable freehold property. The college needed an existing building since it would need to move quickly. A suitable building was found in Isleworth. This building had been used as a teaching institution and was known as the International College.

The International College in Isleworth ran into financial difficulties and closed its doors in 1889 and was put up for sale. Its location met all the requirements of the trustees of the British and Foreign School Society, namely a pleasant and healthy location with plenty of room for expansion in the future. The site itself covered eight acres and was located within

reasonable proximity to London by overhead railway and the new underground. Further the main college building had suitable accommodation for 140 students in two upper floor dormitories. In addition the building was surrounded by extensive grounds, which could be used for games and expansion of the college when appropriate.

The sale of the Southwark site to the South London Polytechnic (now part of South Bank University) yielded twenty thousand pounds. The purchase of the Isleworth site cost twenty-nine thousand pounds. Hence nine thousand pounds needed to be raised by donations and subscriptions.

However a further eleven thousand pounds was required for necessary renovations to the existing buildings. A new east wing for the original building to house the Principal of the college was required. This extension was to become known as the Principal's Lodge as the Principal was to live on the site. In addition three more class rooms, a lecture theatre and a Chemistry laboratory were required. For these new building works a further eleven thousand pounds were required.

Borough Road College inherited a large detached hall which had been used as a gymnasium by the pupils of the International School This hall was converted into a '*Speech Room*' for assemblies, concerts and examinations. The playing fields were warmly welcomed and every afternoon was given to games whilst the mornings and evenings were devoted to academic/educational classes.

The government replied by appointing a Royal Commission to consider this request from the two London colleges. In 1889 the Royal Commission recommended that the University of London should apply for a charter giving it both examining and teaching powers. However the Royal Commission did not produce details of its proposal.

Eventually a scheme was produced, which became incorporated in the 1899 University of London Act. External degrees continued to be offered but the new constitution also allowed for *internal students*. Such students attended courses in colleges which became constituent schools of the teaching university.

The final decade of the nineteenth century demonstrated a significant advance in the education of all children of the country. At the start of the

decade day training colleges were established. These colleges were to be attached to university colleges. Members of the minority report of the Cross Commission wanted day training colleges to be aided by local rates and be under the control of local authorities as well as being connected to university colleges. Further it was felt that a proportion of the students attending day training colleges should be boarders. The view of the majority was that day training colleges should be attached to universities and university colleges. In addition there was a view that day students should be allowed to attend residential colleges.

The 1890s

During the period 1898 – 1900 there was a Royal Commission called the University of London Act. Its remit was to establish and implement the Act for the reconstitution of the University of London. This Gresham Commission confirmed the reconstitution for the University of London.

The decade of the 1890s saw a number of developments taking place in the schools. More subjects were available in the schools including cookery, wood and metal craft, physical education and drill. Many of these developments were the result of a change of emphasis in the annual Codes of Regulation. Progress towards free education was also under consideration and in 1891 the Free Education Act was passed.

In the 1890s criticism of a university, which was only an examining body, started to grow. In particular criticism was directed at the lack of interaction which the staff teaching students for London University degrees in a variety of colleges. In particular the staff of the colleges had no chance to assist in drawing up the syllabi or the setting of examination papers.

Comments by teachers and educational officers about the pupil-teacher system gained momentum during the 1890s. Many of them agreed with the comments made by the members of the minority report of the Cross Commission that the pupil-teacher system had become outmoded. However action regarding the pupil-teacher was not resolved early in the decade.

In 1890 the King's College Day Training College was founded. Six years later the day training college was divided into two sectors, which concentrated in training teachers for elementary schools and secondary schools.

In 1890 Sir G W Kekewich was appointed the new Secretary to the Education Department. At that time Sir W Hart Dyke was its Vice-President. Both of these men were supportive of the teachers' views on education and together they worked to make more flexible the codes of regulations starting in 1890. Indeed the Code of 1890 immediately reflected the influence of the Cross Commission and the Education Department. Also in this year the Code of Regulations announced a new category of teacher.

The aim of the 1890 Code of Regulations was stated by Sir George Kekewich to be:

'to substitute for the bald teaching of facts, and the cramming which was the necessary in order that the children might pass the annual examination and earn the grant, the development of interest and intelligence, and the acquirement of real substantial knowledge'.

Further Sir George Kekewich made a statement that the 1890 Code was to adhere to two main principles:

'The code was based, as far as the actual teaching of the children was concerned, on two main principles, The first was to substitute for the bald teaching of facts, and the cramming which was then necessary in order that the children might pass the annual examination and earn the grant, the development of interest and intelligence and the acquirement of real substantial knowledge The second main principle of the Code was the recognition for the first time of the duty of the State to care for the physical welfare of the children, and to make physical culture an integral part of their school life. Physical education, sports and games, out-of-door teaching in fresh air, were therefore encouraged'.

Kekewich 1920 p.53]

Firstly the teaching of lots of facts and the consequent cramming of them so that the pupils could pass the annual examination and thereby earn the grant was changed. Thus the Code aimed to develop the interests of the pupils. Secondly the Code emphasised the role the duty of the State to care for the physical welfare of the students, and to make physical exercises an integral part of their school experience.

Sir G W Kekewich sought to promote *'greater happiness in their work for both teachers and pupils'* thereby causing *'a revolution in education'* (Kekewich 1920 p.54).

The 1890 Code of Regulations recognised for the first time the higher elementary schools. Such schools were to provide a four year course of instruction. Prior to entering this four year course the pupils had to have attended an elementary school for a minimum of two years. In addition the pupil had to be certified by an inspector as being worthy of the profiting from the instruction to be given.

Initially a number of significant changes were made to the grants for the schools. George Kekevich abolished the grants for the 3Rs and in its place provided a fixed '*capitation grant*', which was based on the average attendance at the school. Grants for class and specific subjects were continued and included the new subjects of shorthand, horticulture and hygiene as being made '*specific subjects*'. Other grants were also offered for laundry work, dairy work and housewifery. The merit grant for discipline and organisation was reduced.

The rationale for the changes to the grants was the prime view of the Secretary to the Education Department, who stated that the children came first, before everything and everybody. In his autobiography the reasons for changing the Code of Regulations were given in detail (Kekewich 1920).

At the start of the decade Borough Road College was moving from its original site in Borough Road, Southwark to a road with the same name in Isleworth. A suitable site having a building, which had been used as a school, had become available for sale. The site had a lot of land around it, which would prove very useful for sports activities and expansion at a later date.

In order to purchase the Spring Grove International School in Isleworth Borough Road College had to acquire more money. The Society decided to sell the Southwark Building to the South London Polytechnic for twenty thousand pounds and purchase the buildings and grounds of the Spring Grove International School for twenty-nine thousand pounds. The completion of these two transactions meant that nine thousand pounds needed to be raised by donations and subscriptions. Renovations and construction of the new east wing required a total of eleven thousand pounds. This money was used to build the new wing, which was to house the Principal's Lodge, three additional class rooms, a lecture theatre and a Chemistry laboratory (Bartle 1976 p.47).

Borough Road Training College bought the International School in Isleworth in 1890. The original school, which was built in 1866, had received little updating before its sale to the British and Foreign School Society. A few additions were made to the back of the main building in order to provide better facilities for the students e.g. Art Room.

The final term at Southwark ended in March 1890. At the same time the boys' practice school in Borough Road was closed. Further the offices of the British and Foreign School Society moved to Temple Chambers in Central London and housed the headquarters for the Secretary and Assistant Secretary of the Society. Further the Principal's house, known as The Lodge, was ready for occupation in 1890.

The decade of the 1890s presented Borough Road College with a number of opportunities as a result of its move to Isleworth. The college, which was sited in Isleworth, had extensive fields and orchards surrounding its main building. The land around the main college building provided playing fields for a range of sports including football, rugby, cricket and a range of field sports. With the River Thames within walking distance the college provided the opportunity for the students to go rowing provided that they could swim.

Games took place every week with academic studies taking place in the mornings and the evenings. Principal Barnett was a firm believer in the character training value of active participation in sport for every student. In addition all younger members of staff were expected to engage in one or more sports.

In 1890 the Government passed legislation reducing the number of public houses. To compensate the redundant publicans, an additional duty was placed on wines and spirits but the compensation scheme was opposed by many members of Parliament. The act was passed and the Government found that there was a large surplus and no idea how to utilise it. Acland suggested that the money should be given to the county councils either for assisting technical education or for reducing the rates. The majority of county councils used the money to finance technical education without needing to levy the rate authorised by the act.

In 1890 the Local Taxation (Custom and Excise) Act provided a sum of money for the provision of secondary and technical education, which was to be allocated via the County and County Borough Councils. This financial annual windfall was commonly known as '*whiskey money*'. Elementary schools were not able to access these grants.

In 1890 the Education Department accepted the principle of day teacher training colleges attached to universities or university colleges. Furthermore day students were permitted to attend residential colleges albeit that the

number was strictly limited in the first instance. In addition a third year would be allowed for selected students. In a short time some of these third year students were to be allowed to undertake studies towards a university degree. The Education Department accepted that the university examination was equivalent to its own examination in academic subjects. However the Education Department retained control for the professional elements of the teacher training course, which included the principles and practice of teaching.

In 1890 the Education Department took a new direction by introducing a one year '*Supplementary*' course. This new course was designed to enable teachers to complete their training to gain a degree or obtain a specialist qualification. At first such courses could be taken by recently qualified certificate teachers but they were also available for serving teachers. Alas grants were poor and few of these teachers could afford to survive for a whole year on what was offered.

The Cross Commission had urged HMIs to encourage manual training in colleges and schools. In 1890 '*woodwork*' was recognised as a legitimate subject in elementary schools and would receive a Science and Art Department grant. Two year later, the City and Guilds Institute offered a special certificate for students who attended a part-time course in woodwork and passed the requisite examination.

The first term at Spring Grove in Isleworth started in April 1890 but the official opening did not take place until June 1890. The college was formally opened by Lord Granville. At the official opening there was an unveiling of a brass tablet in the foyer of the main building to celebrate the opening. After a formal lunch the annual meeting of the British and Foreign School Society took place and a cricket match was held against a scratch team.

The day's activities were attended by Mr A J Mundella, who was President of the British and Foreign School Society. He had been Vice-President of the Privy Council with responsibilities for Education. Other people present at the official opening included Mr Lyulph Stanley (Chairman of the London School Board and member of the recent Cross Commission), Dr Joshua Fitch (previous Principal of Borough Road College and was an HMI, Mr T Buxton Morrish, who was the chairman of the General Council of the British and Foreign School Society (The Schoolmaster June 1890). The College was formally opened by Lord Granville.

At the official ceremony The Hon. Lyulph Stanley made a speech in which he made the following statement:

'he would not rest content till the students were admitted so well grounded as to be prepared to enter upon something in the nature of a university education'.

[The Schoolmaster June 1890]

The Hon. Lyulph Stanley also made the comment that the college required a practising school for its students:

'The Committee had decided to build a practising school, though there were serious difficulties in the way. The population was comparatively small, and had already sufficient elementary schools.... The best that could be done in the circumstances was to open a higher grade school, which, by drawing from a wide area, would not seriously affect any individual school'.

[The Educational Record Vol. XIII (170) July 1890]

In 1890 the day teacher training college became a reality. There was general agreement that day training colleges should be established for the specific purpose of training teachers for public elementary schools, although there had been some differences between the members of the majority and minority reports of the Cross Commission. Six day training colleges were established in 1890 including the King's College Day Training College in London. More day training colleges were added on a yearly basis.

In 1890 the day teacher training college became a reality. There was general agreement that day training colleges should be established for the specific purpose of training teachers for public elementary schools, although there had been some differences between the members of the majority and minority reports of the Cross Commission. Six day training colleges were established in 1890 including the King's College Day Training College in London. More day training colleges were added on a yearly basis.

The 1891 Elementary Education Act stated that elementary education was to be provided free. Ten shillings each year was given as a '*free grant*' by Parliament for every child over three years of age until he/she reached the age of fifteen years attending a public elementary school. Schools were not allowed to charge additional fees except in certain circumstances.

In 1892 the Froebel Institute was opened in London. Its aim was to subject each student to the creative and interactive process which would develop the whole person in all aspects of their lives e.g. social, moral, aesthetic, linguistic, spiritual and scientific (Weston 1998).

Freundlich Froebel advanced the radical reform of educational methods. He taught that education should be a creative and interactive process which ought to be fun at all times. He instituted the concept of '*kindergarden*'. The National Froebel Society was founded to promote progressive education.

In the first half of the decade new initiatives within education were advanced with the intention of improving the school experience for the children and their teachers. In 1892 class sizes were regulated and the following year the School Attendance Act was passed. This act made attendance at school compulsory for all children to the age of eleven years; at this age the pupils normally left school.

In 1893 a Half-Time Act was passed, which attempted to bridge the gap between the needs of a family for income from their offspring as soon as possible and the law which required every child to receive education to the age of eleven years. In this act children aged ten and eleven years were allowed to attend school for half the week and the other half of the week they could go to paid employment.

In 1892 a second Royal Commission was commissioned to decide whether the University of London should become a teaching university. This second commission became known as the Gresham Commission. Its terms of reference were:

To consider and, if necessary to alter, amend and extend the proposed Charter so as to form a scheme for establishing a teaching university for London.

The Commission reported in 1893 and agreed with the recommendation of the first Commission that there should be just one university for London. It also agreed that the university should be both a teaching and an examining body. The Commissioners were given power to make statutes and regulations for the University in general accordance with the scheme

proposed by the Gresham Commission (Harrison 1975 no.79). However an act of parliament was needed to confirm the recommendations. Several more years passed before the University of London Act was confirmed.

Further a third year should be allowed for selected students. Some of these third year students were to be allowed to undertake studies towards a university degree. The Education Department accepted that the university examination was equivalent to its own examination in academic subjects. However the professional elements of the teacher training course remained under their control.

Early in his tenure Principal Barrett changed the workings of the college. In particular the time-table was relaxed so every student was given opportunity for private study. Further every second year student had to submit an essay once a fortnight to his tutors on an educational theme.

There were developments in the academic courses. Principal Barrett was determined to raise the rigour of the work undertaken by each student. In this regard on-going changes to the regulations laid down by the Board of Education assisted the Principal in this regard. In particular the Education Department allowed students in residential teacher training colleges to take university examinations such as matriculation and Intermediate BA and BSc General Degrees in place of the Education Department examinations in academic subjects. The Teacher's Certificate was divided into two parts with Part 1 consisting of the theory and practice of education as well as the usual subjects of the elementary school timetable. Part II consisted of optional and advanced academic courses taken only by students not taking university examinations.

During the period 1892 – 1894 a Royal Commission was requested to prepare a draft charter for the Gresham University of London. Its remit was:

'to consider and, if necessary, amend, alter or extend the proposed charter for the Gresham University of London'.

The Commission, which reported in 1894, recommended that the University should apply for a new charter to enable it to become a teaching University and that if such an application was received by Her Majesty they would then make a further report. This raised a dilemma for the Home Office which had to decide whether or not the Commission could prolong its existence in this

way, but after some deliberation it was decided that with the production of a report and its presentation to the Queen, a Commission was deemed to have ceased (Harrison 1975 no. 79).

The Royal Commission recommended that there should be only one university in London not two. A university consisting of a Senate as the supreme body, an Academic Council, elected by Faculties was proposed. The Faculties were to consist of teachers appointed or recognised by the University, Boards of Study and Convocation.

In 1894 the Royal Commission reported in favour of not creating a second independent university. Instead combining the teaching university proposal by the Albert Charter with the existing body called the University of London was proposed.

The construction of a workshop in Isleworth was delayed through lack of finances. However a generous donation given to the college by a former student an equipped workshop with carpenters' benches was installed in 1895. Students entered the City and Guilds examination under the tutorship of a part-time teacher of carpentry.

In the 1895 the College of Preceptors opened a school for male secondary school teachers but the venture only lasted for two years. The College of Preceptors commented that:

'secondary training for male teachers has not yet been accepted as a matter of course or necessity'.

[College of Preceptors 1896 p. 38]

The Royal Commission on Secondary Education was established by Lord Rosebury in 1894 and was chaired by James Bryce. The Royal Commission published its report in 1895. The report reviewed the progress that had been made since the report of the Taunton Commission. Its report resulted in the establishment of the Board of Education and, after the Cockerton Judgement (which made it illegal for school boards to offer financial support to higher grade schools), it led to the 1902 Act which abolished school boards and set up Local Education Authorities to *'supply or aid the supply of education other than elementary'*.

The Bryce Report's terms of reference were:

'To consider what are the best methods of establishing a well-organised system of secondary education in England, taking into account existing deficiencies and having regard to such local sources of revenue for endowment or otherwise as are available for this purpose and to make recommendations accordingly'.

[Bryce Commission 1895 p. xxvi]

A number of recommendations were made including the establishment of a Central Authority headed by a Minister of Education. The Minister would take over the education work of bodies including the Education Department, the Science and Art Department and the Charity Commission. The Central Authority would be a government department with its own permanent secretary and would be responsible for elementary education. An Education Council would be appointed to assist the Minister and would comprise representatives appointed by the Crown, universities and teachers. Further the Education Council would also act as a body for the registration of teachers. Local authorities would have powers to train secondary teachers, provide appropriate schools and help to maintain them. The Bryce Report also recommended the formation of The Teacher Registration Council.

The School Grants Act was passed in 1895 and in that year encouragement was given to schools to take the pupils on visits to museums and art galleries. Grants could be given for such educational visits to a maximum of twenty visits each year. The following year visits to national and historical buildings were also included.

In 1897 payments by results ended. However the Code lasted for many more years before it finally disappeared in 1944. A conference of all secondary school teacher associations was held in 1897 at which the training of teachers was discussed. At this conference it was agreed that a prospective secondary school teacher should undertake three years of study for a degree which would be followed by one year of professional training. This method of training was termed the consecutive method. In the same year a new Education Act was passed by Parliament. Also in 1897 grants for specific subjects were discontinued as were payments by results were abolished.

In 1897 the Isleworth Upper School for boys was built as an offshoot of the Blue School. The building, which was partly at the expense of the British

and Foreign School Society, was located in St John's Road, Isleworth. The school was to have a staff comprising a Warden, a Director and an appropriate body of masters. The Warden was the Principal of Borough Road College and the Director was to be the College's Master of Method (Hamilton 1958 p.8). Later the school became known the Isleworth County School for Boys and much later became as Isleworth Grammar School.

There was considerable opposition from various organisations University College and King's College decided to leave the existing university with the object of founding a new teaching university to be named the Gresham University. The House of Commons asked the Queen to delay her consent to the charter until a new Royal Commission had investigated the situation and had its report.

Finally the government passed the London University Commission Act of 1898 and the new statutes were sealed in 1900.

Further a third year should be allowed for selected students. Some of these third year students were to be allowed to undertake studies towards a university degree. The Education Department accepted that the university examination was equivalent to its own examination in academic subjects. However the professional elements of the teacher training course remained under their control.

In the 1898 act of parliament various institutions became constituent colleges of the University of London. These institutions included teaching hospitals, several theological colleges as well as the known King's College and University College. Students attending these institutions took their degrees as internal students of the university.

Comments by teachers and educational officers about the pupil-teacher system gained momentum during the 1890s. Many of them agreed with the comments made by the members of the Cross Commission minority report.

In 1896 the Committee of Council established a committee *'to inquire into the workings of the pupil-teacher system'*. The chairman of this Departmental Committee was Revd T W Sharpe, who was the Senior Chief Inspector. The committee sat during the period 1896– 1898. Their report was published in 1898 and it was clear that the members of the committee

appreciated the weaknesses of the system. At the start of their report the following statement was made:

'...our conviction that the too frequent practice of committing the whole of the training and teaching of classes to immature and uneducated young persons is economically wasteful and educationally unsatisfactory, and even dangerous, to the teachers and taught in equal measure'.

[Report of the Departmental Committee on the Pupil-Teacher System 1898, p.4]

However the members did not propose abolishing the pupil-teacher system. They were of the view that *some sort of pupillage or apprenticeship is undoubtedly of the highest value'.*

The members made the following comment having examined the evidence:

'for the present,, even if system is established so firmly in the economy of the national education that it would be , even if desirable, to sweep it away, or to make any violent and revolutionary changes'.

[Report of the Departmental Committee on the Pupil-Teacher System 1898 p.4]

The Committee did not wish to abolish pupil-teacher system. However it was agreed that a type of apprenticeship was very beneficial.

The Committee did advocate some reforms. Pupil-teacher centres were not good enough because they were unable to fulfil the requirements of secondary schools. The pupil-teachers were not being given the necessary secondary education. However the Committee did see a future for a number of the better Centres.

'We look forward to the ultimate conversion of those Centres which are well staffed and properly equipped into real secondary schools, where, although perhaps intending teachers may be in the majority, they will have ampler time for their studies, and will be instructed side by side with pupils who have other careers in view'.

[Report of the Departmental Committee on the Pupil-Teacher System 1898 p.8]

The report concluded that the pupil-teacher system was outmoded as it was wasteful in terms of finance and economy and also unsatisfactory educationally. The pupil-teacher centres were also slated for they provided very limited academic programmes as well as very narrow syllabi. The committee sought the pupil-teacher centres to gear their work towards the secondary school requirements. Also the committee felt that more students for teacher training should be recruited from secondary schools and that the age of entry to the training college should be raised to fifteen years in the first instance but a hope that it would be sixteen years in the foreseeable future. At the end of the 1890s decade the period of apprenticeship had been confirmed as three years.

University graduates were given the opportunity of attaining qualified teaching status after a period of one year's teaching training. At this time this teacher training opportunity could be pursued during their degree course at the same time as their academic work. Alternatively it could be completed during a course of one year's duration after graduation.

In 1898 the school leaving age became twelve years and the following year it was raised to thirteen years. This decision meant that more teachers would need to be trained. In the same year the Committee of Education changed to the Board of Education.

The year 1899 saw a number of changes to pupils and students in teacher training college. From 1899 onwards the Board of Education often made changes to the curriculum in elementary school and the school leaving age was raised to fourteen years. These decisions meant that more teachers would need to be trained. In the same year the Committee of Education changed to the Board of Education.

In 1899 Mr. Scott Coward of the Board of Education made the following statement:

'The student, ardent and ambitious of the distinction of a degree, is unhappily often ill-prepared to undertake with any facility the university course; and after a severe ordeal of study, much of which is devoid of any power to stimulate the intellecthe leaves with a degree.....but with very little of what a degree is supposed to betoken. Nor does it leave a better teacher'.

[Report of the Committee of Council 1902 p.322]

In 1899 the University of London declined to offer internal degree status to the training colleges within its hinterland despite the fact that some of the training colleges including Borough Road College were linked with the university.

In particular the day training colleges were to be attached to university colleges. Members of the minority report wanted day training colleges to be aided by local rates and be under the control of local authorities as well as day training colleges connected to university colleges. Further it was felt that a proportion of the students attending day training colleges should be boarders. The view of the majority was that day training colleges should be attached to universities and university colleges. In addition there was a view that day students should be allowed to attend residential college.

1899 onwards the Board of Education often made changes to the curriculum in elementary schools.

In addition to changes to the curriculum in elementary schools there was an increase in the number of infant departments in elementary schools. In some boards groups of older pupils were grouped into Higher Grade Schools and the pupil curriculum was extended beyond Standard 7.

In 1899 the Board of Education Act brought together various educational bodies under a single central authority including the Department including the Department of Science and Art. The Board of Education was an independent body of Ministers of the Crown with their own President. It was to be independent of the Board of Education. The Board of Education Act of 1899 made provision for the establishment of a register of teachers, which was to be established to be in 1902.

The Department of Science and Art ceased to pay grants on the results of examinations in elementary subjects in 1897.

Further the Education Department published Circular 322, which was entitled *The Training and Teaching of Infants*. The inspectors wanted kindergarten methods to be used widely. This circular was revised in successive years.

The committee suggested some reforms in order to improve the existing pupil-teacher centres. It was felt that at the present time the pupil-teacher centres could not *'under present conditions, adequately fulfil the purposes of secondary schools'*. However the committee members felt that the pupil-teacher centres had a future with some modifications, which were outlined in their report, namely:

'We look forward to the ultimate conversion of those centres which are well staffed and properly equipped into real secondary schools, where, although perhaps intending teachers may be in the majority, they will have ample time for their studies, and will be instructed side by side with pupils who have other careers in view'.

[Report of the Departmental Committee on the Pupil-Teacher System 1898 p.8]

The membership of the Cross Committee was large in the number of members each of whom had strong views on the working of the Education Acts. As a result it was not possible to produce a final report on which all members agreed. Instead two reports were published. These reports were known as the majority report since more members were happy to agree the wording of the report. The minority report was written and supported by eight of the twenty-three members of the Cross Commission. In particular the minority group members disagreed with the training of teachers and objected to the proposal to support voluntary schools from the rates. In addition the view that moral training could be tested by inspection conducted by HMIs was doubted. However the minority members did accept that formation of character for intending teachers was important.

Although the Cross Commission advised the retention of the seven standards, it made a number of recommendations designed to improve the quality of the pupil's learning experience. In particular the recommendations endeavoured to release the pupils and teachers from the somewhat rigid administration of the course of teaching.

Teachers were recommended to classify pupils according to ability and attainment not by age or by insisting that each standard should be taken and passed. It was also recommended that drawing should be made a compulsory subject for boys since it was considered that this subject had much to offer the economy of the country.

There was general agreement that day training colleges should be established, although there were some differences between the members of the majority and minority reports of the Cross Commission. Six colleges were established in 1890 and more were added on a yearly basis.

In particular the day training colleges were to be attached to university colleges. Members of the minority report wanted day training colleges to be aided by local rates and be under the control of local authorities as well as day training colleges connected to university colleges. Further it was felt that a proportion of the students attending day training colleges should be boarders. The view of the majority was that day training colleges should be attached to universities and university colleges. In addition there was a view that day students should be allowed to attend residential colleges.

The question of establishing non-residential colleges evoked considerable discussion. Revd J P Norris, the Archbishop of Bristol, was against the adoption of day training colleges in England. He spoke with long experience of being an HMI and as a diocesan inspector of schools. He stated that:

'a training college ought to be a home; you ought to have the students all through the twenty-four hours in order to form their personal habits'
[Cross Commission 3rd Report 1887 p.163]

On the other side of the argument there were other well known educationalists. Professor H Jones considered that the day training colleges were the *'only hope of elevating the schools'* [Cross Commission 3rd Report 1887 p.322]

In the final report of the Cross Commission the majority view was recommended an experiment be tried.

The Government accepted the recommendation from the Majority Report. It agreed that day training colleges should be established by universities and university colleges but declined to permit School Boards to initiate day training colleges. Some conditions were imposed on the day training colleges including having their curricula approved by the Education Department and their colleges inspected by HMI. For the students they were given the option of taking an undergraduate course instead of Part II of the Department's course. The Education Department required that it saw the

syllabuses, examination papers, the student scripts and the marks awarded so that they could ensure standards.

From 1892 the standards system was in decline. The Board of Education abandoned the system around the end of the century.

Thus teacher training students were permitted to study concurrently for a degree and the Teacher's Certificate. For Borough Road College this option was available and taken by a number of each cohort. Of course this option meant very hard work for the students as the syllabi of the two courses were different. One issue needed to be tackled, namely the degree course lasted three years but the certificate course was of two year's duration. Hence the Education Department asked the universities to state:

'the extent to which two years' attendance and the certificate of a student in training will count as part of a qualification for a university degree'.

[Education Department Circular Letter No. 287 dated 27 May 1890 Section XIV (g)]

However in 1893 a new Permanent Secretary at the Education Department was appointed who sought to provide a new outlook between the Education Department and the Union. Sir George Kekewich was keen to consult the officers of the Union and hold open discussions with them.

Alas this effort failed. Hence in 1891 the Education Department included a clause in its regulations permitting students to spend a third year in college. (Code of Regulations for Public Elementary Schools 1891 Article 120)

The introduction of day training colleges increased the supply of trained teachers for Public Elementary Schools and raised their status. Further the study of education achieved academic status alongside the various subjects. In particular it eased the control exerted by the various denominations. Above all it encouraged the residential teacher training colleges to improve their accommodation and facilities and appoint better qualified tutors with good school teaching experience.

In 1892 the government appointed a second Royal Commission to investigate the powers of the University of London. This second Royal Commission reached the same decision as the first Royal Commission. The decision stated that there should be just one university in London and it

should be a teaching university. Its status should be established by an act of Parliament. Despite prolonged protests by Viscount Haldene, the act of Parliament was finally passed in 1900.

Thus by the end of the nineteenth century the University of London was established as both an examining and teaching body. The university monitored course content and academic quality in its constituent colleges through centrally located faculties and Boards of Study. University statutes distinguished between '*external*' and '*internal*' students.

The Day School Code 1899

Supplement to Schedule II Alternative Courses [Class subjects (Article 10 (e) (viii).]

Geography, Geography and History, Geography and Elementary Science and History and English Combined

Table 4: Geography Syllabus in Elementary School Code 1899

Standard	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Course A Geography	Plan of school & playground. Meaning and use of a map. The cardinal points	Size and shape of the world. Geographical terms simply explained. Physical geography of hills and rivers, illustrating by reference to the map of England	Physical, political, and industrial geography of England, with special knowledge of the district in which the school is situated	Physical and political geography of Scotland and Ireland, and of the United States of America. Day and night. The air, mists, fogs, clouds, rain, frost, wind and the special circumstances which determine climate and rainfall in the British Isles.	Physical and political geography of Europe. Industries and productions of its several countries. Latitude and longitude. The Seasons.	Physical and political geography of Australia, New Zealand, Canada, India and Ceylon. Climate as affected by latitude, altitude, rainfall, forests, nearness to the sea, ocean currents, and prevailing winds.	The general arrangement of the planetary system. The sun. The moon and its phases. The tides. Eclipses.
Course B Geography	Plan of school & playground. Meaning and use of a map. The cardinal points	Home geography, e.g. roads, rivers, and chief buildings of the district, illustrated by	General geography of England and Wales, and means of communication by land and water. Chief	General geography of Scotland Ireland, Canada, and the United States, with special	General geography of Europe with special reference to the commercial relations	General geography of Australia and British India with special reference to the industries of those	

		a map, and by the map of England	industries and production of the district to which the school is situated	reference to the interchange of productions between those countries and England.	between the countries of the Continent and Great Britain.	countries, and to their commercial relations with Great Britain. Colonisation.	
Course C Geography & History Combined	Plan of school & playground. Meaning and use of a map. The cardinal points	The size and shape of the world. Geographical terms simply explained and illustrated by reference to the map of England. Physical geography of hills and rivers.	Physical and political geography of England, with special knowledge of the district in which the school is situated	Geography of Europe generally, and of either Canada or Australia	Geography of the British Isles, with some knowledge of India and one or more of the Colonies		
Group D Elementary Science and Geography Combined	Annual courses of about thirty object lessons, of which elementary geography should form a part, beginning with the simplest phenomena which the children can observe: land, water, the form of the earth, the sea, the hills, valleys, rivers, proceeding the notions of locality and distance, and the means of representing all of these by modeling in sand or other material, and by a map, with special reference to the map of England. The other object lessons should include some of the various subjects suggested in the Schedule under the head of Elementary Science.						

A Consultative Committee Report entitled Registration of Teachers was published in 1896. In this year it became mandatory for every teacher to be registered.

A conference of all secondary school teacher associations was held in 1897 at which the training of teachers was discussed. At this conference it was agreed that a prospective secondary school teacher should undertake three years of study for a degree which would be followed by one year of professional training. This method of training was termed the consecutive method.

It had become apparent that the development of secondary education need to be more focussed and administration was required for better coordination.

The terms of reference of the Bryce Commission were:

'To consider what are the best methods of establishing a well-organised system of secondary education in England, taking into account existing deficiencies and having regard to such local sources of revenue for endowment or otherwise as are available for this purpose and to make recommendations accordingly'

The Bryce Commission recommended that for every 1,000 of the population secondary education should be made available to just ten children, of whom eight would be in the third grade. This meant that, out of 4,000,000 children, 64,000 would be educated in the first and second grade schools and 256,000 in the third grade. *'It is obvious'*, the Commission commented, *'that these distinctions correspond roughly, but by no means exactly, to the gradations of society'* (Quoted in Williams 1965 p.139).

A number of recommendations were made in the Royal Commission's report. First and foremost a Central Authority for secondary education was to take over the educational function of a number of separate bodies including the Education Department, the Science and Art Department and the educational work of the Charity Commission. The central authority would be a fully fledged governmental department with a permanent secretary. The Central Authority, which was to be headed by a Minister of Education, would be responsible for elementary education. An Education Council would be appointed to assist the Minister and would comprise

representatives appointed by the Crown, universities and teachers. The Education Council would also act as a body for the registration of teachers. Local authorities for secondary education would have powers to '*supply, maintain and aid schools*'. Finally it was recommended that secondary school teachers needed to be trained to teach in schools.

When the Royal Commission was established the Education Department had no formal part to play in the development of secondary education.

The creation of a unified Central Authority was made a reality by the passing of a relevant act in 1899. In this act the Board of Education was established. In the following year 1900 a Consultative Committee was created as suggested by the Bryce Commission some years earlier. The committee comprised eighteen members who were elected for a period of six years but one-third of its members were to retire in every second year. The members of the committee had to be qualified so that they could represent the views of the universities and other bodies with an interest in educational matters.

During the period 1898 – 1900 there was a Royal Commission called the University of London Act. Its remit was to establish and implement the Act for the reconstitution of the University of London. This Gresham Commission confirmed the reconstitution for the University of London.

In 1899 the University of London declined to offer internal degree status to the training colleges within its hinterland despite the fact that some of the training colleges including Borough Road College were linked with the university.

In 1899 a Consultative Committee was suggested by the Bryce Commission and was created in the Education Act passed in the same year.

In 1899 the School Attendance Act raised the school leaving age to twelve years. However in agricultural districts children might, under specified conditions, still claim half-time exception at eleven though they would have to attend school until the age of thirteen years. This decision meant that more teachers would need to be trained. In the same year the Committee of Education changed to the Board of Education.

The start of the twentieth century heralded many of changes in education starting with the implementation of the 1899 Board of Education Act which became operative on 1st April 1900. The Board of Education Act was established as a government department responsible for education in place of the Department of Science and Art. The Board of Education Act brought various educational bodies under a single central authority. The Board of Education was an independent body of Ministers of the Crown with their own President who was to be a member of government and be responsible to Parliament. The inspectorate was to provide a link between the Board of Education and the schools at its inauguration the minimum age for the children to leave school was fourteen years of age. However the school leaving age was raised to fifteen years on 1st July 1900.

The Board of Education Act provided for the inspection of secondary schools and the establishment of a Consultative Committee to frame regulations for a register of teachers and to advise the Board on educational matters.

The Board of Education was to coordinate the work of higher grade elementary schools, county technical schools and endowed grammar schools, taking over these responsibilities from the Privy Council. In addition it intended to establish a register for teachers.

One of the Board of Education's first tasks was to replace the old code by issuing a series of handbooks giving advice and suggestions on how to teach in different types of schools. The first handbook issued in 1905 was commonly known as the 'Blue Book'. This handbook contained suggestions for the consideration of teachers and other people involved in the activities of public elementary schools. Also new subjects were introduced like handwork and crafts. In addition new teaching methods were to be tried like learning through activity.

In March 1894 a Royal Commission was appointed under the chairmanship of Mr. James Bryce. Its remit was:

'To consider what are the best methods of establishing a well-organised system of secondary education in England, taking into account existing deficiencies and having regard to such local sources of revenue for endowments and otherwise as are available or may be made available for this purpose and it make recommendations accordingly.'

The Bryce Report made two recommendations. The first recommendation was the establishment of a single central authority for secondary education which would be head by a Minister of Education. This authority would unite the Education Department, the Science and Art Department, and the educational functions of the Charity Commission. The second recommendation sought to establish local authorities for all types of secondary education, including higher grade and organised science schools. It was expected that the majority of the members of these authorities should be chosen by the country councils and the authorities should be given wide powers *'to supply, maintain and aid schools'* out the rates.

The Bryce Commission had to attempt to clear up administrative muddles, which caused the education system to be inefficient by simplifying current practices. In particular it sought to clarify the situation regarding higher grade schools. The nomenclature of such higher grade schools was confusing and so there was an attempt to classify these schools into three main types. The first type was the school which taught pupils from the fifth standard upward and also gave an education after seventh grade for at least two years. Hence a pupil in this type of school would have reached the age of fifteen years. The second type of school ranged from Standard 1 to Standard VII plus a course of two to four years which would also have at least a leaving age of fifteen years. The third type of school was referred to in the report as the pseudo *'higher grade school'*. This type of school charged fees but unfortunately the curriculum was almost elementary.

The Bryce Report concluded:

'Thus it is merely in the interest of material prosperity and intellectual activity of the nation, but no less in that of its happiness and moral strength, that the extension and reorganization of secondary education seemed entitled to a place among the first subjects with which social legislation ought to deal'.

[Quoted in Maclure 1968 p.148]

The Board of Education wished to see each teacher in an elementary school think for him/herself so that he/she could adapt their teaching method to the particular needs and conditions in their school. The teacher's work in the elementary school was to help his/her pupils prepared for their future life in all sorts of ways e.g. imparting knowledge, moral behaviour and discipline.

From its foundation in the early nineteenth century the University of London had been an examining body. As an examining body its various examinations were taken by students in a large number of institutions both in London and other institutions in the provinces. However in 1887 King's College and University College petitioned the Privy Council to award their own degrees. They took that action since they were opposed to a second university within the metropolis of London which had been raised by a group of people wanting the University of London to become a teaching body.

The government replied by appointing a Royal Commission to consider this request from the two London colleges. In 1889 the Royal Commission recommended that the University of London should apply for a charter giving it both examining and teaching powers. Interestingly the University of London was unable to agree to this state of affairs.

Thus by the end of the nineteenth century the University of London was established as both an examining and teaching body. The university monitored course content and academic quality in its constituent colleges through centrally located faculties and Boards of Study. University statutes distinguished between 'external' and 'internal' students.

Various institutions concerned with the education of their students at a high level such as theological colleges and hospitals training doctors applied to become constituent colleges of the university. As such the students of these organisations would take 'internal' degrees of the university. In addition a number of teacher training colleges also applied to become constituent colleges of the University of London.

The British and Foreign School Society applied on behalf of Borough Road College and Stockwell College to become constituent colleges of the University of London and so offer internal degrees. The rationale for making this application was the high qualifications of their staff and the number of students taking University of London examinations as external students. At the same time of this application, several members of staff, namely Principal Withers, Mr Edwin Barkby and Mr Miller of Borough Road College, applied to become teachers of the university.

Further a third year should be allowed for selected students. Some of these third year students were to be allowed to undertake studies towards a

university degree. The Education Department accepted that the university examination was equivalent to its own examination in academic subjects. However the professional elements of the teacher training course remained under their control.

The Superannuation Act of 1898 provided a fund to which elementary school teachers and the state contributed.

In 1889 a Royal Commission had proposed a scheme whereby London University should become a teaching institution. Several years later a second Royal Commission on the same scheme was undertaken. In 1898 an act of parliament was passed, which led to a number of educational institutions becoming constituent colleges of the university. These students of these institutions then took internal degrees of London University. Several colleges of education applied to join the university as internal members. The British and Foreign School Society applied on behalf of Borough Road College and Stockwell College on the grounds that the students of these colleges already took London University examinations and the academic standing of their members of staff was high.

Alas the commissioners were not impressed by these arguments for recognition and they decided to exclude all training colleges. Their rationale was based on the view that the prime function of the training colleges was to train people for teaching in elementary schools. In addition the commissioners took the view that since the training colleges reported to a government department they were not fit to be given university status.

Various institutions concerned with the education of their students at a high level such as theological colleges and hospitals training doctors applied to become constituent colleges of the university. As such the students of these organisations would take '*internal*' degrees of the university. In addition a number of teacher training colleges also applied to become constituent colleges of the University of London.

The British and Foreign School Society applied on behalf of Borough Road College and Stockwell College to become constituent colleges of the University of London and so offer internal degrees. The rationale for making this application was the high qualifications of their staff and the number of students taking University of London examinations as external students. At the same time of this application, several members of staff, namely Principal

Withers, Mr Barkby and Mr Miller of Borough Road College, applied to become teachers of the university.

In 1899 the Board of Education Act brought together various educational bodies under a single central authority including the Department of Science and Art. The Board of Education Act of 1899 made provision for the establishment of a register of teachers, which was to be established to be in 1902. It was to be independent of the Board of Education.

In addition the Board of Education Act provided for the inspection of secondary schools as well as the formation of a Consultative Committee. This Consultative Committee was directed to frame regulation for a register of teachers.

The Commissioners were empowered to make statutes and regulations for the University in general accordance with the scheme proposed by the Gresham Commission (No.79) and subject to the Act, and was to continue until the end of 1899.

Towards the end of the nineteenth century it was apparent to many people that more of the population needed to be better educated. Mass education in many other countries including the United States of America was well ahead of British education. As a result the competitiveness of Great Britain was poor.

The 1900s

In 1900 Arthur Burrell was appointed as Principal of Borough Road College. Principal Burrell detested the current Board of Education regulations during his term of office. Over that period of time he had a number of disagreements with the Board of Education. He was critical of the Board of Education's own entrance examination, which was taken by ex-pupil-teachers. Further he was against the Board of Education's view that students who failed their degree examinations (inter BA, or BSc or even their final year degree) did not even receive a Teacher's Certificate despite having passed the professional part of the examination.

By the end of the nineteenth century the University of London was established as both an examining and teaching body. The university monitored course content and academic quality in its constituent colleges through centrally located Faculties and Boards of Study. University statutes distinguished between '*external*' and '*internal*' students.

The population of Great Britain was divided about the education of the masses. For a significant number of people there was an urgent need for the youth of the country to be educated to a higher level than hitherto attempted. On the other hand the government feared that the wealthy landowners and industrialists would be against mass education as they were the major tax earners.

Although increasing numbers of children were attending school for several years, there was continuing governmental concern about the education of the teachers themselves. In the last decade of that century the school leaving age had risen and the provision of new types of post-primary schools had been started on an experimental basis. These new type schools anticipated that more pupil places would be required in the near future.

The first half of the 20th century was a period of great activity in educational thinking and research. In the period 1900-1909 there were three major Consultative Committee reports, three Royal Commissions, a number of education circulars and Codes of Regulations as well as the 1902 Education Act.

In the first decade of the twentieth century secondary education assumed importance as many more pupils were completing elementary education. A

limited number of elementary school children progressed to secondary school pupils on scholarships of which most were provided by local government authorities. Expansion of secondary education required more schools and trained teachers for them.

The Board of Education was to replace the Education Department, the Department of Science and Art and the Charity Commission (only those aspects involving education). The Board of Education Act, which was passed in 1900, was an independent body of Ministers of the Crown with their own President. The head of the Board of Education was to be the President, who was appointed by the Crown and he would have a Parliamentary Secretary. This new body was established on 1st April 1900 when the minimum age for the children to leave school was fourteen years of age. The Board of Education had a remit to produce a register of teachers.

This act of parliament authorised the establishment of a Consultative Committee composed of eighteen members elected for a period of six years. One-third of its members had to retire every second year. The constitution of the Consultative Committee required a minimum of two-thirds of the people to be qualified to be representative of the views of universities and other organisations with an interest in educational matters. Its function was to consider matters relating to education in England and Wales.

The new Board of Education Act divided education activities into three distinct branches, namely elementary, secondary and tertiary, each of which was to be headed by a President (Gordon and Lawton 2003).

Initially the Board of Education needed to clarify the boundaries between primary and secondary education. Further it was also necessary to avoid duplication of local authorities. It was felt that this reorganisation was urgently required.

In 1900 the Elementary School Code gave recognition to higher elementary schools. These schools were to provide a four year course of instruction. Further the schools were only allowed to admit pupils, who had attended an elementary school for at least two years and were certified by an inspector to be qualified to profit from the course.

The staffing in the higher elementary school was determined to be as follows:

1 st /2 nd year of course	40 pupils
3 rd /4 th year of course	30 pupils

Grants were paid according to attendance of pupils. In addition money was allocated for practical work.

[Report of the Board of Education 1899 – 1900 Vol.3 p.791 – 793]

In 1900 the Gresham Commissioners declined to recognise Borough Road College as a school of the University of London even though eighty out of one hundred and twenty-nine students were working towards University of London degree examinations (Binns 1908 p.245). Indeed the Commissioners decided to exclude all training colleges on the grounds that their function:

‘necessarily gives a greater prominence in their work to elementary matter and to training for elementary teaching than is consistent with their holding the position of schools of the University’.

[BFSS Annual Report 1900 p.16]

In addition the Commissioners took the view that the subordination of the training colleges to a government department (known as the Board of Education from 1899) made them unfit for university status (BFSS Annual Report 1900 p.16). However the students attending Borough Road College continued to take University of London degrees as external students for many years after this decision.

Robert Morant aimed to improve the quality of the teachers in public elementary schools. In order to achieve this aim it was essential to improve the training of the pupil-teachers. To this end it was necessary to give the pupil-teachers a better general education because the emerging secondary schools needed better qualified teachers. In addition the Code of Regulations of 1900 extended further changes to the grant payments to school.

However Robert Morant was looking to devise a modern curriculum for the secondary schools. On the other hand the endowed and grammar schools had more classical and linguistic studies. Robert Morant decided that the new schools should have classics and linguistics in their curriculum.

In 1901 Circular 454 entitled *School Code of Regulations 1901* was published. It incorporated details of the course given the title ‘*A Two Years*

Continuous Course of Study'. The course was written by a committee chaired by Mr Henry Hobhouse MP on behalf of the Board of Education. The course was incorporated in the Day School Code of Regulations as Article 55.

The Committee of the Board of Education that had devised the two year continuous course expressed the following view point:

'exceedingly difficult and often impossible to find time or anything beyond the necessary professional training and instruction in general subjects which is essential to the proper equipment of all teachers'.

[Report of the Board of Education 1900 -1901 p.539]

The London Day Training College was founded in 1902 (Aldrich 2002). Its remit was established to provide elementary pupil teachers for the London area. The London County Council had responsibility for the college. The Principal, Sir John Adams, was also a professor of education at the University of London.

In 1902 the Teachers Registration Council was formed and independent of the Board of Education. Unfortunately the registration was voluntary so many teachers did not participate. In the same year the Teacher Registration Council issued its list of registered teachers in alphabetical order. The registered teachers were entitled to use the letters MRST (Member of the Royal Society of Teachers).

Initially members of the Teacher Registration Council represented the Board of Education, and the chief associations of both primary and secondary schools. It was envisaged that the Register was to consist of two columns registration form A and B, registering elementary and secondary school teachers respectively. Teachers of music, drawing, physical training, manual instruction, cookery and needlework were to have supplementary registers. Column A was not to be printed and registration was not compulsory.

From 1902 the Board of Education discontinued its Part 1 examination, which consisted of professional subjects at the end of the student's first year in college. Instead a two year continuous course, with periodical inspections, but no examination before the end of the course was instituted (Board of Education 1901). This situation provided students the option of taking a university course in place of Part 2 to concentrate from the start on degree

studies, expecting to make a hasty scramble towards the end of their second year to get them through Part 1.

It was not until 1902 that the government realised that there was an urgent need to change the system of pupil-teacher training. At this point in time university education was expanding so more secondary schools were required to provide the supply of students for higher education. Before the pupil-teacher could progress to teacher training college it was necessary to establish a system of secondary education.

The 1902 Education Act gave public education a new administrative and financial structure for England and Wales. Robert Morant was appointed Permanent Secretary of the new Board of Education and in that role was given the task of building the structure into a system.

In the introduction to the 1902 Education Act Mr. Balfour made a number of general comments on the current educational system in England. He was very concerned with the existing position concerning the training of teachers. He stressed the lack of trained teachers for secondary schools. In order to remedy this deficiency Balfour advocated the establishment of county secondary schools. Some of these secondary schools arose by the conversion of higher grade elementary schools and pupil-teacher centres. He commented that only 36% of the pupil teachers passed the certificate examinations and roughly 55% of the existing teaching force had ever attended any training college. Balfour felt that the monies spent each year on elementary education was not good value.

The rationale for the 1902 Education Act was threefold. First and foremost there was insufficient provision for the education of the teachers for the schools. There was a lack of coordination between the primary and secondary sectors of education. Lastly it was time to make the voluntary schools part of a national scheme of education since they were currently rather isolated.

The Education Act of 1902 was very comprehensive and covered the administration of education from infant to higher education under the jurisdiction of the local education authorities. This Education Act, which became commonly known as the Balfour Act, provided for two types of state-aided secondary school (a) the endowed grammar school and (b) the municipal or county secondary school. The Education Act of 1902 placed

the *Model Schools* under the control of the local education authorities instead of the training colleges.

These changes took place at a time when competition for male students by the teacher training colleges increasingly difficult. The introduction of Day Training colleges had provided more places for potential teachers.

In 1902 there were over twenty local education authority training colleges with no affiliation to a particular religious denomination. Also at the same time many men were not encouraged to train as teacher salaries were poor. Able prospective male students could get paid jobs outside education. Even Borough Road College began to see a decline in the number of students applying for teacher training.

The local education authorities were asked to develop the existing system of elementary education and they were also given powers to employ the teachers, allocate school places and organise funding for the schools. Furthermore grants were made available for school maintenance. The local education authorities were also given authority to determine the secular curriculum of voluntary schools, many of which were administered by religious denominations.

Part II of the 1902 Education Act, which was entitled Higher Education, the LEAs were required to:

'consider the educational needs of their area' and 'supply or aid the supply of education other than elementary, and to promote the general co-ordination of all forms of education' and smaller councils were empowered to support *'education other than elementary'*.

[Education Act 1902 Part II paragraph 2-(1) p.126]

Part III of the act was devoted to Elementary Education. The LEAs were given the power and duties of the former School Boards and attendance committees.

All public elementary schools provided by the LEA were to have a body of managers including up to 4 LEA representatives. The LEAs were required to *'maintain and keep efficient'* all public elementary schools in their areas. The Board of Education was empowered to hold an inquiry where an LEA did not fulfill its obligations in relation to elementary schools.

Religious instruction given in a public elementary school not provided by the local education authority was to be in accordance with the provisions (if any) of the trust deed relating thereto, and was to be under the control of the school managers.

It was apparent that higher technical instruction was becoming increasingly important to the country. Furthermore such instruction needed to be based on a good general secondary education before the more technical education was delivered. Alas *whiskey money*, which provided extra money for technical instruction in schools, was stopped in 1902.

In late 1902 the Board of Education decided to strengthen its commitment to dealing with likely problems to occur if a student failed part of their course.

In 1903 many of the former higher-grade schools and pupil-teacher centres were put under the administration of the new local education authorities. When under the auspices of the Board of Education grants from the Science and Art Department were obtained with the result that the curriculum was science orientated.

Alas in 1903 there were insufficient secondary schools and those which did exist were unevenly distributed. Robert Morant decided that there was a need to increase a national network of secondary schools and also expand and improve the pupil-teacher centres (Morton 1997 p.113).

In 1903 Robert Morant made his intention to end the pupil-teacher system as soon as practicable. The end of the pupil-teacher system could not be implemented in 1903 as there were insufficient secondary schools. The implementation of the closure of the pupil-teacher system would have to take place in stages. Robert Morant started his campaign in 1903 by issuing Regulations by the Board of Education in July of that year. *The Regulations for the Instruction and Training of Pupil-Teachers and Students in Training Colleges* stated that:

- (1) from 1st August 1904 no pupils under 16 years old would be accepted as pupil-teachers, except in rural areas, where they could be accepted, if HMI agreed, at 15;
- (2) from 1st August 1906 no pupil-teachers would be allowed to serve in an elementary school for '*more than half the time the school is open*'

(i.e., not more than half the school week was to be devoted to teaching;

- (3) unless '*long distances or defective travelling arrangements*' made it impossible, pupil-teachers must spend the other half of the school week in a recognised Pupil-Teacher Centre.

[Board of Education Regulations for the Instruction and Training of Pupil-Teachers and Students in Training Colleges 1903 Command Paper 1666]

In 1903 the Board of Education adopted a new policy for the training of pupil teachers. The *Regulations for the Instruction and Training of Pupil Teachers* provided that from August 1905 intending pupil teachers should, as a rule, receive instruction in a secondary school up to the age of 16. The LEAs were faced with the urgent need for more generous provision of scholarships and bursaries so that able pupils from public elementary schools could go on to secondary schools (Hadow 1931 p.16).

The 1904 Board of Education Regulations for secondary schools provided a minimum amount of time to be given to English language and English literature, geography and history; to languages – ancient and modern; and to mathematics and science. Other subjects should include drawing, signing, manual training and physical exercises.

The syllabus consisted of:

- (a) Classics
- (b) Modern languages and history
- (c) Science and mathematics
- (d) Latin and history
- (e) Geography with either a language or a science

Further it specified that a third of the pupil's time MUST be spent on subjects outside the main course.

[Board of Education 1904 Regulations for Secondary Schools p.53]

In 1904 the Board of Education decided to abolish the classification list detailing the results of the Teacher Certificate examinations. The teacher training colleges were concerned that the incentive for hard working students to do better than their colleagues would be removed. The Equal Pay League was founded in 1904 as part of the National Union of Teachers.

The Board of Education announced that from 1904 onwards:

'Students in residential colleges who substitute a university examination for part of their Certificate examination and fail in this examination will only be able to become Certificated teachers by passing the Acting Teacher's examination'.

[Board of Education 1902 Circular 469]

The result of failing any examination meant that the student would leave the college as an uncertificated teacher. Both the National Union of Teachers and the Association of Training College Principals and Lecturers protested about this edit from the Board of Education. Reasons were given for the protest since the edit only applied to students attending a residential college. Hence it discriminated against the day college students. In particular it was felt that residential students were being deterred from taking the degree course. However the Board of Education did not retract its edit. In fact the Board of Education was determined to ensure that this edit was implemented.

In 1904 a new wing to the rear of the main building of Borough Road College was constructed, which produced two additional classrooms, a small gymnasium and a drying room (Bartle 1976 p.69).

In 1904 a Departmental Committee of the Board of Education proposed that Imperial College should be incorporated in the University of London. In addition it was also suggested that a Royal Commission should be established with the following terms of reference:

'To consider whether the amalgamation of the new institution with the University is desirable and feasible, and, if so, on what lines it can best be carried out'

In 1904 the Code for Public Elementary Schools was published with Robert Morant providing its introduction. The introduction was lengthy but the opening paragraph provided a new idea of the term '*elementary education*':

The purpose of the public elementary school is to form and strengthen the character and to develop the intelligence of the children entrusted to it. And to make the best use of the school years available, in assisting both boys and

girls, according to their different needs, to fit themselves, practically as well as intellectually, for the work of life.

[Code for Public Elementary Schools 1902 paragraph 1]

Robert Morant described his ideal elementary teacher and articulated the influence that such a teacher should have on his/her pupils.

'The influence of a body of thoroughly competent, zealous, and conscientious teachers in our Public Elementary Schools may plainly be an immensely important factor in our national life, and, apart from their professional work, the teachers as a body of well-educated men and women may render services, out of all proportion to their number in the population, in the performance of the common duties of citizenship'.

[Quoted in Curtis 1968 p.324]

Robert Morant subsequently published new regulations for teacher training colleges and for evening colleges and technical institutes.

In 1904 Robert Morant made a prefatory memorandum to the Regulations for the Training of Teachers stating:

'The purpose for which a Training College is recognised and aided by the Board of Education is the training of teachers for service in Public Elementary Schools'.

[Prefatory Memorandum to the Regulations for the Training of Teachers 1904 p.1]

This quotation was a strong statement of policy. Robert Morant was determined that students should not be able to study for a degree whilst taking a teacher certificate course. He believed that college students tended to concentrate on their degree studies to the detriment of their certificate studies.

'It is only gradually that the true function of Training Colleges can be differentiated from the multiplicity of educational duties which circumstances have hitherto cast upon them; nor is it desirable that they should ever cease to be places of study. But if the students are to get the benefit of the professional training which is the first reason for their being there at all, it is essential that their chief energies should not be given to

some branch of special study not justified either by their strength or their ability'.

[Report of the Board of Education 1904 – 5 p.40]

Local Education Authorities were empowered to provide scholarships for pupils in public elementary schools education to the age of sixteen years. The system of scholarships, which had been in place since 1902, was greatly advanced by the 1907 Education (Administrative Provisions) Act and the Free Place Regulations which followed. These made it easier for elementary school pupils to attend the new fee-charging secondary schools.

The 1907 Education (Administrative Provisions) Act established the scholarship and free place system for secondary education (which already existed in some places), designed to give promising children from elementary schools the opportunity to go to secondary schools. Enhanced grants were offered to secondary schools in which '*free placers*' having sat a competitive qualifying examination formed at least a quarter of the pupils. All grant-aided secondary schools had to admit free place scholars (not less than 25 per cent of the previous year's total intake) who had spent at least two years at public elementary school. The schools were paid £5 for each free place pupil.

In 1907 new secondary school regulations were published. In these regulations all secondary schools receiving grants from the Board of Education should provide free places for 25% of its annual intake. In the same year the Schools Medical Service began.

The President of the Board of Education, Mr McKenna, decided in 1907 to advise the grant of a Royal Charter to the Imperial College as an independent institution. However he also suggested the appointment of a Royal Commission '*to consider whether the amalgamation of the new institution with the University of London was desirable and feasible*'. If the view was that it should be feasible then the precise details of how it could be achieved should be given.

For some time there had been concern that there were insufficient numbers of teachers for secondary education. In addition there was a need for more technical instruction to be given to pupil teachers after they had received a good quality general education. The act abolished all the school boards and gave their duties to local boroughs or county councils. The newly created

local education authorities based on county councils and county borough councils were given powers to establish new secondary and technical schools. In addition the local education authorities were to support the teacher training colleges.

The higher education schools should be staffed by good elementary school teachers with an interest in science and technology. Training colleges should offer appropriate courses for them as necessary.

The Committee envisaged a comparatively small number of such schools and recognised that it was impossible to lay down general rules as to their distribution: different places would require different provision. It was essential that employers should be encouraged to take an interest in them. Pupils should not be allowed to sit external examinations, because this would unduly influence the character of the curriculum and result in their transformation into pseudo-secondary schools.

As a result of these arrangements for the education of pupil teachers and for the examination of candidates for free places, teachers began to devote more attention to the instruction of children under the age of 11. So, while primarily designed to further secondary education, the regulations indirectly fostered the improvement of education in the elementary schools, and strengthened the case for a break in education at the age of 11 or 12 (Hadow 1931 p.17).

The new Teachers' Registration Council was formed in 1907. The new register contained the names of teachers in alphabetical order representing teachers in all kinds of schools, including universities. Registration was voluntary and those teachers whose names appeared on the register were entitled to add the letters M.R.S.T. (Member of the Royal Society of Teachers) to their names. However a significant number of teachers did not register, mainly because neither the central or local authorities made any use of it when applicants were seeking educational appointments.

The Board of Education's Elementary Code of 1907 sought to clarify the aims and improve the quality of elementary education. Also in 1907 *Regulations for Secondary Schools: Geography* was published as Circular 561. In this document the syllabus for Geography was outlined.

Before admission to the course pupils ought to have an elementary knowledge of the great land masses of the world, the disproportion of

highlands and lowlands, the chief river valleys, and, the names and positions of great countries and of a few of the chief towns in each of them. In addition a more detailed knowledge of the geography of the British Isles should have been obtained. Throughout the preliminary course great emphasis should have been laid on the inter-relation of cause and effect.

Pupils should possess also some knowledge of physiography, including the earth's shape, simple map-making, the compass; day, night, and the seasons; formation of mountains and rivers; climate; minerals; plant and animal life.

The Board of Education required in each school a course of general instruction, including geography which extended over four years. In order to facilitate the adoption by secondary schools of systematic courses in geography, the Board thought it desirable to indicate in outline the points to which the attention of their inspectors would be directed:

1. granting approval of the course;
2. taking the course into consideration in estimating the efficiency of the school.

Each school desiring the approval of the Board of Education for its course in geography had to submit:

1. an outline scheme dealing with the great land and water areas in such a way that on completing the course, the scholars shall have gone through a Geography of the World;
2. a suitably graduated series of exercises connected with the subject matter of the course.

Such training was to be restricted to graduates and persons having graduate equivalent qualifications. The training had to last for one academic year and its sole purpose was to provide professional training. During this year the trainee teacher would have to include a special study of at least one subject in the secondary school curriculum and at least 60 days of school practice, of which two-thirds or more had to be in a secondary school approved for the purpose by the Board of Education.

Although the Board of Education did not expect a rapid uptake progress was slow. Male applicants were reluctant to undertake the one year of professional training as it was not compulsory. Furthermore men were able

to gain employment elsewhere as the salary of a teacher, albeit qualified, did not compare favourably with other professions and occupations. For women there were far less career opportunities and teaching was more acceptable to the women.

For Borough Road College the 1908 regulations did not pose so many problems as their staff was well qualified academically and had relevant teaching experience. The college had offered BA and BSc degrees since 1890 with the students taking the degree examination as external students of London University.

Both university training departments and teacher training colleges often experienced difficulty in finding sufficient secondary schools which met the criteria specified in the regulations. Furthermore some of the training colleges also experienced some difficulty concerning the special study of secondary school subjects. Often the teacher training college was not adequately staffed for this purpose and so it was forced to employ additional staff. The number of trainee teachers was likely to be small and so the expense for the college was not acceptable. Some colleges tried to lessen their problems by delegating the teaching practice element of the course to the schools. Unfortunately many schools were not capable of taking on this extra commitment. Hence over a period six years the number of secondary school teachers trained averaged fewer than two hundred a year, with the majority of them being women.

In 1909 a Royal Commission was appointed to consider university education in London. This Royal Commission was to be chaired by Lord Haldane.

Its terms of reference were:

'To inquire into the organisation of the University of London other facilities for advanced education in London for persons of either sex and above secondary school age; to consider the provision for university teaching and research; and to make recommendations as to the relation between the University of London, its associated colleges and schools and the various public bodies and institutional concerns, and other desirable changes'.

The period of the pupil-teacher apprenticeship was reduced from five to two years. At the centre the pupil-teacher would receive instruction in a range of subjects. The centre might be attached to a higher grade elementary school

or a secondary school. The school employing the pupil teachers had to be approved as suitable as a training institution for these trainee teachers. A maximum of four pupil-teachers could be accommodated in any one such approved school at a time. Further the minimum age for pupil teachers to start training was raised to sixteen years in urban areas but was fifteen years for trainee teachers in rural areas.

Robert Morant was very concerned to improve the status of elementary school teachers. He was convinced that an improvement in the qualifications held by the teachers would help to raise the status of the teacher. In order to achieve this increase in status Robert Morant thought that the prospective teacher needs a longer period of training in secondary school prior to embarking on a teacher training course.

Reactions to this statement were mixed. Dr Macnamara thought that the reactions were *'the most admirable educational monograph he had ever read'* (Education 16th July 1903 p.87). Some local education authorities considered that the raising of entry into the pupil-teacher apprenticeship would reduce the number of pupil-teachers.

Their reasoning was the loss of family income due to the child remaining in school for longer. Likewise the appeal for scholarships to be awarded was not accepted by all the local education authorities. Some of the local education authorities considered that the regulations imposed a heavy burden on the local rates. At that time many elementary schools would have to close.

Being aware of the risks to students, the Committee of the Board of Education recommended the provision of more three year courses. A longer course would give the student teacher more time to pass the academic and professional parts of the course.

'In order to counteract the undue extension of this practise, we have endeavoured, in drawing up our courses to accentuate the necessity for every student to keep in view the professional, as distinguished from the academic side of his studies'.

[Report of the Board of Education 1900 -1901 p.538]

Robert Morant wrote the following comment in the Prefatory Memorandum to these regulations:

‘...to secure for the Pupil-Teacher a more complete and continuous education, and to make the period of service in an Elementary School a time of probation and training rather than of too early practice in teaching’.

The regulations were based on two main principles, namely deferral of employment as a teacher in an elementary school to allow more time for general education and further education of the individual during the period of the apprenticeship.

‘No college should aim at obtaining academical distinctions for its students if that involves either the overstraining of the powers of the student, or the neglect of his professional training’.

[Regulations for the Training of Teachers and for the Examination of Students in Training Colleges 1904 p.vii]

Robert Morant recognised that the pupil-teachers needed their parents to support them financially whilst continuing their education. Hence it was essential that financial support should be available. He urged the local education authorities to arrange:

‘by means of an adequate scholarship system or otherwise, that all the cleverest candidates for Pupil-Teacherships ... whether boys or girls, should receive a sound general education in a secondary school for three or four years, with schoolfellows intended for other careers, before they commence service in any capacity in an Elementary School’.

[Prefatory Memorandum p.9]

In 1904 the Board of Education abolished the scholarship lists giving the order of merit of successful candidates in the Teacher Certificate examinations. The rationale for this action was an attempt to bring the teacher training colleges more into line with the university organised examinations taken at secondary schools. These regulations were unpopular with the colleges as the selection of students was made a much more difficult process as personal interviewing of applicants was forbidden by the Board of Education. The Board of Education considered that religious prejudice might affect the interviewing process.

In 1904 the Board of Education published the first of its annual Regulations for Secondary Schools, defining a four year subject-based course leading to

a certificate in English language and literature, geography, history, a foreign language, mathematics, science, drawing, manual work, physical training, and, for girls, housewifery. The Regulations reinforced the tendency of the new secondary schools to adopt the academic bias of the established ones. Hence it was agreed that new secondary schools needed to be established by the newly created local education authorities.

The object of these rules was *'to ensure a certain measure of breadth and richness in the curriculum of Secondary Schools, and to provide against Schools recognised under that name offering only an education which is stunted, illiberal, unpractical or over-specialised'* (Hadow 1923 p.39).

The Board explained that with the growth of educated public opinion it might be possible - and it was certainly highly desirable - *'to relax these requirements in schools of tested efficiency, and to leave them a larger freedom in devising and executing schemes of education of their own'* (Board of Education Report for 1905-6 Command Paper 3270 p.46 quoted in Hadow 1923 p.39).

In these regulations the term *'secondary school'* was to include any day or Boarding School which gives every pupil up to and beyond sixteen years of age a comprehensive education. The education would provide a graded course of instruction suitable for pupils having graduated from an elementary school. In addition attention would be paid to the physical, mental and moral attitude of the pupils.

[Board of Education 1904]

Further the Board of Education emphasised four essential points to the course of instruction to be delivered in their teaching:

1. the instruction must be general i.e. each pupil should receive exposure to all the major subjects outlined in the Board of Education's regulations;
2. the course of instruction must be complete i.e. each subject should be given to a specified standard;
3. specialisation in any subject area should only begin when the general education has been successfully completed.
4. Minimum number of hours in each week

[Board of Education 1904 p.158]

The Board began to produce some surprisingly modern ideas. *'The high function of the teacher is to prepare the child for the life of a good citizen, to create or foster the aptitude for work and for the intelligent use of leisure. The only uniformity of practice the Board wishes to see is that all teachers should think for themselves and adapt the curriculum to the needs of the children in their charge'*.

In 1905 the Board of Education asked the Consultative Committee to consider the curriculum of the higher elementary schools. The Report of the Consultative Committee, which was chaired by Lord Dyke, was entitled *Questions affecting higher elementary schools* and was published in May 1906. It argued that a higher elementary school should continue the general education which a child had already received in the ordinary elementary school.

The first need was *'to secure for each child as much humanity, as much accurate knowledge of general elementary fact and as much mental power and manual aptitude, as could be expected during a short course of instruction extending over three years at a comparatively early age.'*

Secondly the course was to consist of three strands: humanistic, scientific and manual, and, in the case of girls, domestic studies.

The curriculum should have a practical bias with subjects illustrated by practical examples familiar to children. The course should be designed with the school's context mind, especially in rural areas. Large towns had a need to have higher elementary schools.

The 1905 Regulations met opposition from a number of sources. In an open letter to the Principal of King's College, London, Robert Morant stated that many training college students were, on entry into the college, unfit to undertake university studies, and would be much better advised to content themselves with a less ambitious programme.

It was expected that sufficient time would remain for one or more subjects to have extra teaching time devoted to it. In addition the timetable would provide sufficient time for physical exercise, drawing, singing and manual training. Individual schools could have other subjects in their timetable if it was considered appropriate for their pupils.

All secondary schools, which received grants from the Board of Education, would have to meet these conditions. A certain minimum number of hours in each week must be given, to various groups of subjects in the specified curricula of the secondary school.

Group 1 comprised English Language and English Literature, Geography and History;

Group 2 comprised Languages (ancient or modern) excluding the native language of the pupil;

Group 3 was Mathematics;

Group 4 was Science.

Further the Board of Education *emphasised* three essential points to the course of instruction to be delivered in their teaching. All secondary schools, which receive grants from the Board of Education, would have to meet these conditions. A certain minimum number of hours in each week must be given to various groups of subjects in the specified curricula of the secondary school.

The growth in the number of pupils taking secondary education increased rapidly in the early years of the century. Hence it was necessary for the Board of Education to prepare teachers for work in secondary schools.

The 1905 Code of Regulations specified the compulsory subjects to be taken by the trainee teachers. The subjects were:

English language, literature and composition;
Reading and Recitation, including voice production;
A language other than English;
History, Geography, Music where possible;
Elementary Mathematics, including Arithmetic;
Elementary Science, including practical work;
Drawing, Physical exercises, Manual work (boys), Needlework (girls)
[1905 Board of Education Code of Regulations]

In 1905 Her Majesty's Stationary Office produced one of the first formal documents to guide teachers in their choice of method of teaching. These suggestions came in the form of a book entitled *The Handbook of*

Suggestions for the Consideration of Teachers and Others Engaged in the Work of the Elementary School. This handbook was issued alongside the curricula for the schools. It was commonly known as the Blue Book since it had a blue cover. The handbook suggested that each teacher should think for himself/herself and work within the requirements and condition of the school. The handbook stated:

'the essential condition of good education is to be found in the right attitude of the teacher to his work'.

[Quoted in Maclure 1973 p.160]

'The only conformity of practice that the Board of Education desire to see in the teaching of Public Elementary Schools is that each teacher should think for himself and work out for himself such methods of teaching as may use his powers to the best advantage, and be best suited to the particular needs and conditions of the school'.

[Board of Education 1905]

Further the Board of Education specified that a third of the pupil's time MUST be spent on subjects outside the main course.

In 1905 the Board of Education published Circular 530. In this Circular any student wishing to take a degree course whilst attending a teacher training college had to have:

either:

passed the Preliminary Examination for the Certificate with distinction in English, History and Geography; and in four optional subjects, including two languages;

or:

passed some other examination which the Board may feel able to accept as an equivalent thereto.

[Report of the Board of Education, 1904-1905, p.38]

If a student could produce evidence that they had received adequate and appropriate instruction in any of the following subjects English, History, Geography, Elementary Mathematics and Science before coming to the

college then the student would not have to take the college course(s) in the named subject(s).

These precise conditions attempted to ensure that the student had a good general knowledge and was capable of taking and gaining the degree and was also considered to be in good physical health.

[Report of the Board of Education 1904-1905 p 40]

In July 1905 the following statement in the Schoolmaster was reported:

'during the last fifteen years there has been an abuse of University work. Attracted by the bait of a degree, numbers of students of greater ambition than intellectual power have worked and strained and suffered, in a vain, or only partly successful, attempt to gain the magic letters'.

[The Schoolmaster 1st July 1905 p.19]

The 1905 Code of Regulations gave the subject syllabus for each subject taught in secondary schools. The syllabus for Geography was:

Suggested Four Year Course

First year (12 - 13 years) Europe

Term 1

- (a) The great-partings of the world
- (b) The British Isles (revision) comparison and contrast with Europe in general

Term 2 Europe in general

- (a) Coasts with special reference to good harbours and sea route
- (b) Surface with special reference
- (c) Climatic considerations, especially as affecting characteristic products

Term 3 Europe in detail

Second Year (13 - 14 years) America and Africa

Term 1 The great oceans of the world, showing briefly their relation to the great water-partings, the winds, tides, and currents, finding position at sea

Term 2 The Americas in general (i.e. coast, surface, climate, characteristic products) and in detail

Term 3 Africa in general (i.e. coast, surface, climate, characteristic products and in detail

Third Year (14 - 15 years) Asia and Australasia

Term 1

(a) Revision and general

(b) The general climatic zones distribution of flora and fauna with special reference to environment and uses; climatic zones

Term 2 Asia and Australasia in general i.e. coast, surface, climate
Characteristic products

Term 3 Asia and Australasia in detail

Fourth Year (15 – 16 years) Regional Contrasts as illustrated

The growth in the number of pupils taking secondary education increased rapidly in the early years of the century. Hence it was necessary for the Board of Education to prepare teachers for work in secondary schools.

In 1906 the Board of Education gave notice that after 1908 it might '*consider the qualifications of the teaching staff*' in grant-aided secondary schools, and:

'require that a certain proportion of new appointments shall consist of persons who have gone through a course of training recognized by the Board for this purpose'.

[Report of the Board of Education 1906 – 1907 p.70]

Further the Board of Education emphasised three essential points to the course of instruction to be delivered in their teaching:

1. the instruction must be general i.e. each pupil should receive exposure to all the major subjects outlined in the Board of Education;
2. the course of instruction must be complete i.e. each subject should be given to a specified standard;

3. specialisation in any subject area should only begin when the general education has been successfully completed.

All secondary schools, which receive grants from the Board of Education, would have to meet these conditions. A certain minimum number of hours in each week must be given, to various groups of subjects in the specified curricula of the secondary school.

Group 1 comprised English Language and English Literature, Geography and History;

Group 2 comprised Languages (ancient or modern) excluding the native language of the pupil;

Group 3 was mathematics;

Group 4 was science.

In the following year the curricula was amended. It was expected that sufficient time would remain for one or more subjects to have extra teaching time devoted to it. In addition the timetable would provide sufficient time for physical exercise, drawing, singing and manual training. Individual schools could have other subjects in their timetable if it was considered appropriate for their pupils

In 1906 the Equal Pay League was renamed as the National Federation of Women Teachers. In the same year the School Meals Act was passed. This act gave free dinners for poor children.

The British and Foreign School Society was incorporated by Royal Charter in 1906 and the details of the Royal Charter were reported in the BFSS Annual Reports from 1907 onwards (Appendix?).

In 1907 The Schoolmaster journal published an article entitled '*Exit the Pupil-Teacher*'. In the article the statement '*The old-style pupil-teacher will soon be as extinct as a dodo*' (The Schoolmaster 1907 p.828)

Preliminary Examination for the Elementary School Teacher's Certificate

This certificate comprised two parts:

Part 1 in December 1906

Part 2 in April 1907

Part II Teachers' Certificate held on Tuesday, 9th April 1907 10.15 – 11.45

Geography

Answer 2 questions in Section A and 3 questions in Section B

1. What explanation can you give of the fact that one bank of a river occasionally is sloping while the opposite one is steep-sided. Of which portion of a river valley is this feature most characteristic, and for what reasons.
2. Poles of equal length, are fixed in a vertical position in the following places: Calcutta, London, Melbourne, New York, Singapore and Zanzibar. The shadows of the poles are observed at noon on 21st June and again at noon on 21st December. Arrange the places mentioned in two columns according to the lengths of the shadows observed (a) in June and (b) in December.
3. On a sketch map of North America indicate:
 - (a) the various independent countries
 - (b) the main physical features
 - (c) where the frontiers follow *natural* and *political* lines
 - (d) the climatic conditions (use any method you like to show these)
4. 'Settlements of man are less dependent on physical conditions than in former times'. From your knowledge of the British Isles show how you can justify this statement. Deal fully with one instance.
5. In the British Isles winds from the W. and S.W., as a rule, are warm and generally rain-bearing, and winds from the E. and N. E. are cold and generally dry. Account for these differences. Compare the characteristics of the prevailing winds of the British Isles with those of United States of America and India.
6. A gentle sloping region terminates upwards in a broken ridge the peaks of which rise to heights of over 2000 feet above sea-level. The region is drained by the upland tributaries of a big river. By means of contour-lines represent such a region.
7. Show on a map the distribution of rainfall in Wales and account for the peculiarities you may note in connection with it.

Section B

8. Make lists showing which European countries *import* and which *export* in large quantities five of the following articles: coal, dyes, fish, paper, sugar, timber, tin, wheat and wool. Explain how or why the trade has risen in each case.
9. Four main lines of railways connect London to Manchester. Mention the chief points a stranger would note on travelling by express along two of these routes. Which routes would you prefer and for what reasons?
10. By means of sketch maps indicate the chief features of one of the following:
 - (a) the basin of the Rhine
 - (b) countries which are separated by
 - (c) Italy
11. Show in detail how the countries are sub-divided for purposes of Government: Austria-Hungary, Germany and Switzerland
12. Locate as accurately as possible nine of the following places: Bilbao, Chemnitz, Cologne, Marseilles, Moscow, Queenstown, Turin and Wick. Take in turn each of the places which you select and show to what it owes its commercial importance.
13. Compare the coastal portion of North and South Wales as regards distribution of population and character of industries. Give reasons for any differences you indicate.

Morant, himself, felt that many students entering teacher training colleges were not of sufficient academic standing to undertake degree studies. Rather they should take the certificate course. However many schools and teacher training colleges felt that this statement was unfair. Statistics from Borough Road College and some other colleges demonstrated that a significant number of its students gained good external London University degrees whilst concurrently undertaking their certificate courses.

In 1907 new secondary school regulations were issued by the Board of Education. The regulations stated that all secondary schools obtaining grants from the Board of Education should provide *free* places for 25% of the annual intake. This edit was the first formal recognition of scholarships for pupils. As the number of pupils seeking secondary school education increased, the question arose on how the scholarships should be given.

Also in 1907 Circular 561 was published by the Board of Education. In this circular the *Regulations for Secondary Schools: Geography* was articulated in detail.

'Before admission to the course pupils ought to have an elementary knowledge of the great land masses of the world, the disproportion of highlands and lowlands, the chief river valleys, and, the names and positions of great countries and of a few of the chief towns in each of them. In addition a more detailed knowledge of the geography of the British Isles should have been obtained. Throughout the preliminary course great emphasis should have been laid on the inter-relation of cause and effect.

Pupils should possess also some knowledge of physiography, including the earth's shape, simple map-making, the compass; day, night, and the seasons; formation of mountains and rivers; climate; minerals; plant and animal life

The Board of Education required in each school a course of general instruction, including geography which extended over four years. In order to facilitate the adoption by secondary schools of systematic courses in geography, the Board thought it desirable to indicate in outline the points to which the attention of their inspectors would be directed:

- 1. granting approval of the course;*
- 2. taking the course into consideration in estimating the efficiency of the school.*

Each school desiring the approval of the Board of Education for its course in geography had to submit:

- 1. an outline scheme exercises connected with the subject matter of the dealing with the great land and water areas in such a way that on completing the course, the scholars shall have gone through a Geography of the World;*
- 2. a suitably graduated series of course*

[Board of Education 1907 Circular 561]

In 1908 the Board of Education reconsidered the terms '*British*' and '*National*' in order to avoid confusion between schools in a local area. The title '*National*' was replaced by Church of England.

Also in 1908 a report entitled '*School attendance of children below the age of five*' (Acland Report) made a number of recommendations regarding the provision and content of nursery school education.

In 1908 the Board of Education issued its first *Regulations for the Training of Teachers for Secondary Schools*. In the regulations the forms of teacher training to be recognised were university training department (UTD), a training college and a teacher training department of a secondary school. In the regulations the forms of teacher training to be recognised included:

- (a) university training department (UTD);
- (b) a training college;
- (c) a teacher training department of a secondary school.

Such training was to be restricted to graduates and persons having graduate equivalent qualifications. The training had to last for one academic year and its sole purpose was to provide professional training. During this year the trainee teacher would have to include:

- (a) a special study of at least one subject in the secondary school curriculum;
- (b) at least 60 days of school practice, of which two-thirds or more had to be in a secondary school approved for the purpose by the Board of Education.

Although the Board of Education did not expect a rapid uptake progress was slow. Male applicants were reluctant to undertake the one year of professional training as it was not compulsory. Men were able to gain employment elsewhere as the salary of a teacher, albeit qualified, did not compare favourably with other professions and occupations. For women there were far less career opportunities and teaching was more acceptable to the women.

Both university training departments and training colleges often experienced difficulty in finding sufficient secondary schools which met the criteria specified in the regulations. Furthermore some of the training colleges also experienced some difficulty concerning the special study of secondary school subjects. Often the training college was not adequately staffed for this purpose and so it was forced to employ additional staff. The number of trainee teachers was likely to be small and so the expense for the college was not acceptable. Some colleges tried to lessen their problems by delegating

the teaching practice element of the course to the schools. Unfortunately many schools were not capable of taking on this extra commitment. Hence over a period six years the number of secondary school teachers trained averaged fewer than two hundred a year, with the majority of them being women (Dent 1977 p.73).

For Borough Road College the 1908 regulations did not pose so many problems as the members of staff were well qualified academically and had relevant teaching experience. The college had offered BA and BSc degrees since 1890 with the students taking the degree examination as external students of London University.

Geography as a subject was developing as more relevant information became available to be studied. It became clear that geography needed to be studied in some depth as an optional subject so an in-depth study of a special area should be selected.

One of the six continents should be chosen, but it was open to the Authorities of a Training College to propose for the approval of the Board either a wider or more limited area. In all cases the region chosen should be studied from the points of view set out below.

Examination Paper for Geography in 1908

Optional Subject: GEOGRAPHY

The Geography of a special area should be studied in detail. One of the six continents should be chosen, but it is open to the Authorities of a Training College to propose for the approval of the Board either a wider or more limited area. In all cases the region chosen should be studied from the points of view set out below.

I Physical Condition

- (a) Structure: The influence of rock structure on topography and scenery.
- (b) Topography: Distribution of land-forms over region studied; flood plains, lowlands, escarpments, plateaux and mountains.

- (c) The river systems in relation to the topography and structure. The main and secondary water partings and their connection or otherwise with physical features.
- (d) Different stages of the rivers; torrent stage, valley stage, flood plain stage and the characterisation of each, Estuaries. The inter-relation of river systems.
- (e) Climate, Temperature, and Rainfall, and the other factors determining their distribution. Distribution of temperature and Rainfall at different seasons. Isothermal lines. Rainfall maps. Different climatic types, maritime, extreme, Mediterranean etc. Minerals. Quantity, quality and distribution.
- (f) Distribution of plants and animals. Races of Man.

II Historical Geography, including present political sub-divisions.

III Economic Geography

- (a) Distribution of agricultural activities, cereal areas, pasture areas, fruit areas etc.
- (b) Distribution of industries, particularly textile industries, iron centres, shipbuilding centres.
- (c) Means of communication, both natural and artificial.
- (d) Analysis of position and importance of towns. Density and distribution of population. Principal human factors affecting the utilisation of natural resources.

Historical and Economic Geography should always be treated in connection with Physical Geography. Map construction and map reading should also be included in the course.

As the professional training part of the teacher's course gained greater emphasis, the amount of time given to teaching practice increased. Originally the Board of Education specified that students taking a two year course were not required to spend more than three weeks per year in class teaching. However in 1908 the Regulations stated that a student must spend three weeks (Regulations for the Training of Teachers and for the Examination of Students in Training Colleges 1906 Article 34). Students taking the three year course were to have undertaken a total of eight weeks of class teaching.

In 1909 the Board of Education issued a regulation requiring every training college to have a '*demonstration*' school for the purpose of illustrating the most approved and successful methods of school organisation, discipline, and instruction.

Unfortunately the scheme was not always successful. In some districts the LEA cooperated with the college and allowed its authorities considerable power to choose the staff and plan the curriculum of the demonstration school.

In 1909 the London Day Training College became a school of the University of London and was renamed a school of the university. In the same year a bursary system for teacher training was introduced.

In 1909 the Acland Report by the Consultative Committee, which was entitled *Attendance, Compulsory or Otherwise, at Continuation Schools*, was published. This report gave increased attention should be given to the continuation school and the public elementary school in order that there may be less discontinuity of attendance.

In 1909 Robert Morant stated that from 1st August 1910 no examination certificate would qualify a student for entry to a degree course unless it showed that passes in English Language and Literature, English History, Geography, a language selected from Latin Greek, French and German, Mathematics and *either* a second language *or* an approved science.

In addition the student must have obtained a higher standard than a mere pass in English Language and Literature and English History ((Report of the Board of Education 1909 – 1910 p 107).

In the same report Robert Morant made the suggestion that:

'the time was coming when all pupils wishing to take a degree course and who had satisfied the Board of Education about his/her physical fitness for the course, should be allowed to undertake a three year period of training. Then the student could begin to teach'.

The 1910s

The decade opened with several important educational initiatives. The careers service in the United Kingdom came about as a result of the The 1910 Education (Choice of Employment) Act originated the careers service. The act gave the opportunity to advise young people on getting into work. Each local education authority had an officer, who was assigned to this specific role.

Prior to the start of the First World War the British and Foreign School Society conducted a survey of the material condition of their teacher training buildings. When compared with other teacher training colleges Borough Road College in Isleworth was noted to be in very bad condition partly because the main building was much older than any other teacher training college and as a voluntary college Borough Road College had been largely reliant on governmental grants and subscriptions from benefactors.

During the years before the First World War woodwork gained popularity at Borough Road College as an additional grant earning qualification. Alas only a few improvements were possible due to a lack of finances. In particular it was considered that facilities for private study, recreation and personal comfort were not acceptable for the 1900s. In particular conditions for personal washing and bathroom facilities were very rudimentary.

By about 1910 selective '*central*' schools had been established in London, Manchester and elsewhere. All these schools recruited pupils from the elementary schools at around the age of 11.

In 1910 King's College was incorporated with the University of London. Borough Road College came close to establishing a relationship with King's College and the organisation of degree work at the teacher training college. As the number of degree students at Borough Road College increased, it became apparent that the college had some difficulty in timetabling intermediate and degree courses as well as the various components of the Teacher's Certificate.

Just prior to the start of the First World War a scheme was devised for the degree students to spend the mornings on degree work at King's College in the Strand. The students returned in the afternoon for games and had tutorials in the evenings. Reluctantly King's College modified its timetable

so that Borough Road College students would need to attend King's College for both morning and afternoon sessions. The scheme was abandoned at the outset of the war but was revived in 1919. The scheme pursued intermittently for five years after the end of the war as the commitment was not helpful to the Borough Road students so the scheme was finally abandoned.

The early years of the decade was traumatic for all in the country, as the First World War became imminent. With the advent of declaration of war the day to day lives of very many people were severely disrupted. In the early days of the war a large number of men were killed on the battlefield and it became essential to replace the dead men. Government had no alternative but to conscript healthy men for the war effort.

The universities were not happy with this suggestion but Robert Morant was determined that the view of the Board of Education should prevail. Hence in In July 1911 the Board of Education declared that it would recognise training departments attached to universities or university colleges as institutions providing four year courses. The first three years would be devoted to study for a degree and the final fourth year would concentrate on professional training for work in public elementary schools. The Board of Education would make grants to cover the tuition fees and maintenance throughout the four years in return for a commitment to teach in maintained schools for a specified number of years (Regulations for the Training of Teachers for Elementary Schools Prefatory Memorandum 1911). The student had to sign an undertaking to this arrangement, which became known as *The Pledge*.

In 1911 the four year degree course was established, in which a student took three years for a degree award and then took a further year of professional training. In that year the Board of Education declared that it would recognise training departments attached to universities or university colleges as institutions providing four year courses. The first three years of the course would be devoted to academic subjects for the degree and the fourth year to professional training for teaching in public elementary schools.

In 1911 the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education published its report entitled Report on Examinations in Secondary Schools. This report considered the effects of examinations on both the pupil and the teacher. Members of this committee appreciated that there were dangers involved in

having examinations. However the members were convinced that external examinations were not only desirable but necessary desirable in the secondary school. In order to minimise the dangers involved measures needed to be taken to regulate the number of examinations, their general nature and the age at which the examinations were taken. A recommendation was made that an Examinations Council should be established and should comprise representatives of the LEA's and of the universities. The following year an advisory council was established and a new scheme of secondary school examinations was devised and was known the Secondary School Certificate.

Two modifications were added to the new duration for the teacher's certificate course. Firstly young persons above eighteen years of age, who had not served as pupil-teachers, were allowed to sit for the Queen's scholarship examination (Report of the Board of Education 1912 – 1913 p.19-20). Secondly *'the pledge'* was introduced. In 1911 a four year course was agreed.

Government was determined to ensure that the nation's young persons should receive a good education. Towards the end of the decade government passed an Education Act, which attempted to promote education for young persons and adults. It became apparent that many more teachers would be required in order to execute the proposals in the education act. Mr Fisher realised that the teachers needed to be better paid.

In 1912 the Board of Education introduced changes to the syllabus for the Teacher's Certificate. The aim was to raise the standard of the certificate. The new regulations covered compulsory professional subjects, practical teaching and two groups of academic subjects of which each subject could be studied at advanced and ordinary levels. This was the first attempt of the Board of Education to distinguish between students going to teach in elementary schools and students who wished to teach at post-primary school levels.

There were two groups: Group A included English, mathematics, history, geography and elementary science at ordinary level. At advanced level chemistry, physics and biology took the place of elementary science and French was added as a new subject. Group B included music, drawing and handwork. Students preparing to teach in elementary schools were required to offer English and one other subject from group A, two from group B and

a fifth subject from either group. Students intending to teach in post-primary (secondary) schools had to choose two subjects from group A, one subject from group B and a fourth from either group. The advanced level examination was graded so that it was possible to gain a distinction, credit or pass.

In 1913 the Consultative Commission produced a report entitled '*Practical Work in Secondary Schools*'. This report made use of the phrase '*Learning by Doing*', which was applicable to a whole range of subjects taught in secondary schools including woodwork, needlework and gardening.

A Royal Commission was suggested in order to ascertain the status of the University of London. The report was chaired by Lord Haldane and published in 1913. The terms of reference of the Royal Commission were:

'To consider whether the amalgamation of the new institution with the University is desirable and feasible, and, if so, on what lines it can best be carried out'

The report recommended a faculty organisation for London University.

The Haldane report drew attention to the need for providing a permanent building for the university as the Imperial Institute in South Kensington was no longer adequate for purpose as the number of colleges affiliated to the university was growing. The university needed a large hall, accommodation for social interests of the members of the university, lecture rooms and a central library. The location of a suitable site for the university created a lot of controversy for some years.

At the start of the First World War in 1914, the British Army was composed of volunteers and people who had chosen to make a career in the armed forces. The war did not go well and many men died in the trenches on active service during the early days of the war.

In 1914 the Board of Education published new Regulations for Secondary Schools in England excluding Wales and Monmouthshire. The regulations were comprehensive and examined the curriculum in detail as well as the teaching staff. Secondary schools had to follow the regulations.

In Section 6 the curriculum of the whole school had to be approved by the Board of Education and had to provide for due continuity of instruction in each of the subjects taken, and for an adequate amount of time being given to each of these subjects. The Board may require modification in the curriculum or the timetable if a subject is taught which is not of educational value, or if the time spent on particular subjects interferes with proper instruction in other subjects or if the time given to a subject is insufficient to allow of effective progress being made to it, or for other similar reasons.

In Section 7 the curriculum had to provide instruction in the English Language and Literature, at least one Language other than English, Geography, History, Mathematics, Science, and Drawing. A curriculum including two Languages other than English, but making no provision for instruction in Latin, would only be approved where the Board are satisfied that the omission of Latin is for the educational advantage of the School. The instruction in Science must include practical work of the pupils.

In Section 8 the curriculum had to make such provision as the Board, having regard to the circumstances of the school, can accept as adequate for organised games, physical exercises, manual instruction and singing.

In Section 12 the teaching staff must be sufficient in number and qualification for providing adequate instruction in each subject of the approved curriculum in the early days of the war.

[Board of Education Regulations 1914, HMSO]

In November 1914 the Board of Education published Circular 878 in which a number of statements concerning students in training for teaching were made, namely:

'1. For students whose training would ordinarily have been completed in July 1915, but who wished to join the Forces earlier, a special examination would be held at Easter. Successful candidates would be immediately awarded the Teacher's Certificate.

2. Students in their second (or later) year of training who had already joined the Forces would have a choice of two alternatives:

(a) they could return to college after the war and complete their training;

OR

(b) provided that (i) they had served in the Forces for at least one year, and (ii) were recommended by their College, they could be granted temporary recognition as Certificated Teachers without further training or examination. This recognition would hold good for the first two years of service; then, provided satisfactory reports were received from HMI and the LEA, it would be made permanent'.

In November 1915 the Board of Education issued Circular 928 in which it stated that all physically fit men should enlist. The following year conscription was introduced which severely depleted the number of men training to teach. At first only single men were conscripted but as the number of deaths continued to increase it was necessary to conscript married men up to the age of fifty years assuming that they were physically fit.

In 1915 the government established a Departmental Committee under the chairmanship of Herbert Lewis MP, who was Parliamentary Secretary to the Board of Education. The aims of the Lewis Committee were to examine the concerns of the public regarding the consequences of the First World War on the health, education and employment of young persons of the country.

The government's Consultative Committee produced its report on *Scholarships for higher education* in 1916, after which it was suspended until 1920.

In 1916 the Prime Minister, David Lloyd George, asked Mr H. A. L. Fisher to become the President of the Board of Education. At the time Mr Fisher was an educationalist, who was Vice-Chancellor of Sheffield University. Mr Lloyd George felt that the time was right for an educationalist rather than a politician to instigate educational reforms. Mr Fisher sought assurances that monies would be made available to undertake educational reforms. The necessary assurances were given so Mr Fisher agreed to take on the role of President of the Board of Education.

At first only single men were conscripted but as the number of deaths continued to increase it was necessary to conscript married men up to the age of fifty years assuming that they were physically fit. As a result the schools were short of teachers. So the Board of Education undertook to give temporary recognition as Certificated Teachers to students who were unable to complete their first year of training with one proviso. Each student had to return to college after the ending of the war in order to undertake a six

month course. This course was to concentrate on academic studies. After two years of satisfactory service as a teacher permanent recognition of their status as a qualified teacher would be confirmed (Report of the Board of Education 1916-1917 p. 66).

Conscription was established by the passing of the Military Service Act in 1916. Hitherto recruitment to the forces had been voluntary but the heavy loss of life in the war required urgent action to be taken. Initially all single men between the ages of 18 and 41 years were conscripted from March 1916. The only exceptions were widowers with children, ministers of religion and unfit men. In May of the same year married men up to the age of 51 years were also conscripted as the war was not going well.

Well before the ending of the First World War the government had given a lot of consideration to the work of post-war reconstruction. In 1916 the Ministry of Reconstruction was established in order to prepare schemes for the transfer from war to peace. Government realised that education should occupy a prominent place in the deliberations of the new Ministry. The government had revealed many inadequacies in the national system.

Further it became apparent that the ending of the war would necessitate a substantial increase the number of teachers for primary and secondary schools. In addition it was envisaged that greater numbers of students would wish to enter higher education specifically in the university sector.

The Board of Education stated that:

‘after the war it will not suffice merely to repair the losses which education has suffered....improvements and development of our existing system are essential to the national welfare’.

Further the Board of Education confirmed that:

‘it was alive to the necessity of taking all possible steps to prepare for any opportunity which may arise of giving practical effect to it by suitable legislation or administrative action’.

[Report of the Board of Education 1915-1916 p. 2-3].

Hence in 1916 the Board of Education undertook to give temporary recognition as Certificated Teachers to students who were unable to

complete their first year of training with one proviso. Each student had to return to college after the ending of the war in order to undertake a six month course. This course was to concentrate on academic studies. After two years of satisfactory service as a teacher permanent recognition of their status as a qualified teacher would be confirmed (Report of the Board of Education 1916-1917 p. 66).

In 1916 the committee started making preparations for the getting the country's educational provision back on track after the end of the First World War.

Its terms of reference were:

To consider what steps should be taken to make provision for the education and instruction of children and young persons after the war for those who have been abnormally employed during the war; who cannot immediately find advantageous employment, and who require special training for employment'

[Report of the Departmental Committee on Juvenile Education in Relation to Employment after the War]

An interim report was published in 1916 and the final report in 1917. Both reports examined the consequences of the First World War on young persons with reference to their education, health and employment. The interim report recommended the strengthening of the juvenile employment bureaus and the local employment committees.

The final report of the Lewis Departmental Committee, published in 1917, offered a number of important recommendations:

1. That it be an obligation on the local authority in each area to provide suitable continuation classes for young persons between the ages of fourteen and eighteen.
2. That it be an obligation upon all young persons between the ages of fourteen and eighteen to attend such day continuation classes
3. The raising of the school leaving age to fourteen years with no exceptions, followed by attendance for at least 8 hours a week or 320 hours per annum at Day Continuation Classes up to the age of 18 years.

Whilst the First World War was on-going the majority of able-bodied men were on active military service unless excused on account of severe ill-health or disability or working in a reserved occupation. In addition many women were undertaking ammunition work in place of the men at war. As a result there was a relaxation of parental control with an accompanied increase in hooliganism and juvenile delinquency.

The government encouraged education authorities and voluntary associations to establish play centres for children in order to keep them off the streets and out of mischief. In addition it would provide the children with opportunities for organised play and other healthy activities.

During the First World War encouragement was given to schools to establish gardens and allotments where possible. The aim was to produce valuable food when supplies from outside the British Isles were restricted. Teachers and their pupils collected wild edible plants, mainly fruit, for making into jams. Horse-chestnuts were also collected as they were used in the manufacture of anti-gas masks.

Food shortages increased as the war continued and during the later parts of the war the Board of Education permitted children of school age to be excused attendance for a limited period in order to help in agricultural and other work.

In 1917 the Secondary Schools Examination Council was established to administer the new School Certificate and Higher School Certificate examinations, which started functioning that year.

Towards the end of the war the Board of Education was aware that the salary of teachers was insufficient to meet the cost of living under post-war conditions. The Board of Education issued a minimum scale of salaries in 1917 and gave a supplementary grant to elementary schools, which was to be utilised to improve the salary of their teachers.

World War spluttered to a halt during 1918 as the various combatants made peace deals. . In 1918 Lloyd George stated that Britain must become a land *'fit for heroes'*. The armistice with Germany was signed on 11th November, though a state of war officially existed between the two sides until the signing of the Treaty of Versailles on 28 June 1919.

In 1918 government passed two acts relevant to education, namely an Education Act and a Teachers' Superannuation Act. Both of these acts included substantial reforms in order to improve the status of the teaching profession. Alas the aims of the 1918 Education Act, commonly known as the Fisher Act, were soon diminished as a period of stringent economies at national level needed to be implemented.

In 1918 it was clearly understood that many more teachers needed to be recruited at all levels of education. At the time there was great enthusiasm for extending and improving public education.

In 1918, the recommendations of a Departmental Committee on the construction of scales of salary (Command 8939), paved the way for the first Burnham report of 1919, which established a provisional minimum scale for elementary school teachers payable from January 1920.

Mr Lloyd George sought to produce about an ambitious programme of post-war social reform in order to assist the general public face the many problems caused by the First World War. The national insurance scheme was extended to cover almost all workers, old age pensions were doubled and local authority house building projects were subsidised.

The 1918 Education Act was very comprehensive and dealt with the provision of a *National System of Public Education*. Sections 1-7 stated that every county and county borough was required to provide for *'the progressive development and comprehensive organisation of education in respect of their area'* (Section 1).

Local education authorities were required to ensure:

- (a) that public elementary schools included *'practical instruction'* in the curriculum and offered advanced instruction 'for the older or more intelligent children';
- (b) that they attended to the health and physical condition of the children; and
- (c) that they co-operated with other LEAs to prepare children for further education *'in schools other than elementary'*, and to provide for the supply and training of teachers;
- (d) LEAs were to establish and maintain *'a sufficient supply of continuation schools'*, co-operate with universities in the provision of

lectures and classes, and appoint LEA representatives to the managing bodies of such schools if practicable.

In preparing schemes for submission to the Board of Education, LEAs were to consult with other authorities and parents within their area, take into account non-LEA provision, and ensure that *'children and young persons shall not be debarred from receiving the benefits of any form of education by which they are capable of profiting through inability to pay fees'*. Suitable schemes would be approved, inadequate ones discussed with the LEA concerned and, if agreement could not be reached, the Board of Education would hold a public inquiry.

After the end of the war the Secretary of the British and Foreign School Society wrote to the Board of Education stating that:

'the conditions under which the students have to live and work are far from satisfactory and the Council have long been anxious to give each student a certain amount of privacy whilst resident in college and seclusion for reading and study in place of the accommodation now provided in the common rooms and classrooms'.

[Hewlett 1931 p.334]

The Secretary of the British and Foreign School Society also commented that the college needed additional financial from the State in order to execute the improvements.

The 1917 Lewis Report proposed that the school leaving age should be fourteen years of age with no exemptions. Full-time education should be followed by attendance for at least 8 hours a week or 320 hours a year at *'day continuation classes'* until the age of eighteen years. As a result this gave all young workers right of access to day release education.

With the substantial depletion of men teachers due to war service government needed to solve the problem of the shortfall by taking emergency measures to ensure that children received an education. Paper qualifications were waived and great efforts were made to recruit any men or women who might prove to be competent at teaching children.

In 1917, before the First World War ended, Fisher appointed a Departmental Committee to investigate the principles on which the salaries of teachers should be based. He had become very concerned that the salary of the

teacher was inadequate for the rapidly increasing cost of living. Hence he was keen to do something to make the situation better.

The First World War had considerable effects on the country, its landscape and its people. Across the countries involved it was estimated that about eight million soldiers died and more than twenty million were seriously injured. In Great Britain 750,000 soldiers were killed and 1.7 million were wounded. Many of the casualties were young unmarried men. Also many children lost their fathers. In the aftermath of the war diseases including typhus, malaria and flu spread rapidly causing chaos. The political map of Europe was changed irrevocably, and the continent emerged from the turmoil facing social and economic devastation.

At the end of the First World War the British and Foreign School Society had serious financial problems. There was a deficit in the Society's accounts of over six thousand pounds. Two grants were given to the Society, which did much to reduce the financial deficit. The Board of Education gave a special grant of £2622 and the War Office gave £3410 to rehabilitate the Isleworth Building.

The British and Foreign School Society was aware of the inadequate facilities and the secretary of the Society wrote to the Board of Education after the end of the war pointing out that *'the conditions under which the students have to live and work are far from satisfactory and the Council have long been anxious to give each student a certain amount of privacy and seclusion for reading and study in place of the accommodation now provided in the common room and classrooms'*.

[Hewlett 1932 p.334]

It was further stated that the British and Foreign School Society was not able to make the improvements unless the State could offer financial assistance.

The British and Foreign School Society was also aware that there was a need to bring the salaries of the tutors in the college in line with the recent Burnham structure for teachers in maintained schools. It was important that the Society could gain well qualified tutors for the college, who were academically able to teach to degree level.

Further it became apparent that the ending of the war would necessitate a substantial increase the number of teachers for primary and secondary

schools. In addition it was envisaged that greater numbers of students would wish to enter higher education specifically in the university sector.

In the Compulsory Service Act the Board of Education urged male teacher training colleges to pool the students left in the colleges. Some colleges closed whilst others were taken over by the various parts of the forces for war work. The buildings of Borough Road College were taken over by the Motor Transport Department of the Army Service Corps of Hounslow District Depot (Bartle 1976 p. 66).

During the war many of the Borough Road College students left for active service. The few remaining students were transferred to the Wesleyan Theological College at Richmond as their students had moved elsewhere. The Borough Road College students joined students from Westminster Training College after Easter 1916. At that point in time the buildings and grounds of the college in Isleworth were taken over by the Motor Transport Department of the Army Service Corps of Hounslow District Depot.

Table 6: Borough Road College Students in Residence at Richmond

Period at Richmond	Number of Male Studnets in residence	
	BRC	WC
September 1916	38	not known
Summer 1917	27	22
Autumn 1917	10	13
November 1918	8	not known
October 1919	143	not known

BRC – Borough Road College WC – Westminster College

** Back at Borough Road College

Westminster College combined with Borough Road College and all the Westminster College students were moved to the Wesleyan Theological College based in Richmond, as their students had moved elsewhere.

Each year the total number of students billeted in the Richmond College continued to fall on a year by year basis. As a result the finances of the college got into severe problems and it was muted that the college might need to temporarily be closed. Reprieve occurred when the Armistice with

Germany took place in November 1918. However it was not possible to return the students to Isleworth immediately as the army did not evacuate the site until October 1919. Considerable work was needed to return the buildings to a fit state for teaching. The students finally returned to Isleworth in October 1919. At the beginning of the new academic year 143 students assembled of which 40 were former students and the remaining 85 students were other ex-service men.

Fortunately the closure of the Borough Road College was averted by the Armistice which took place in November 1918. Many students returning from the war wished to complete their teacher training. So in Easter 1918 the students were ready to resume their studies. Due to the lack of accommodation at Richmond a short emergency refresher course was arranged for them at Chester College. Student numbers for the academic session starting in autumn 1919 increased substantially. Alas the Borough Road College site required substantial renovation of the buildings before normal use could be resumed in October 1919.

During these war years Borough Road College suffered severe financial problems for a number of reasons and temporary closure of the college was considered. The cost of food had risen rapidly and the college's income from grants and fees dropped heavily. In addition subscriptions to the society were reduced as money was tight for most people. The Board of Education tried to help relieve the financial burden by giving supplementary grants to the colleges.

In 1917 the President of the Board of Education made several specific proposals, of which the establishment of part-time day continuation schools was one such proposal. Every young person in the country was compelled to attend such a day continuation school unless he/she was undergoing some suitable form of alternative instruction (Maclure 1968 p.174).

The following year the Education Act, commonly known as the Fisher Act, was passed and implemented the recommendations of the Lewis Report. This education act was a wide-ranging act, which extended educational school provision. The school leaving age was to be raised to fourteen years of age and all young workers were to be given right of access to day release education. Alas the school leaving age was not immediately implemented.

Government appointed a known academic person, by name Mr H. A. L. Fisher, to examine the current organisation of the national education system and make recommendations for updating it. With a number of known educationalists the educational system was overhauled. The 1918 Education Act was the result of the work of Mr Fisher and his colleagues. In this act the onus of reconstruction was placed on the local authorities and to rely on their public spirit to ensure that the proposals were implemented.

The 1918 Education Act was very comprehensive and dealt with the provision of a national system of public education. Educational provision was extended, increased powers and duties of the Board of Education, raised the school leaving age from 12 – 14 and gave all young workers the right of access to the day release education. However the leaving age was not implemented until 1921.

The 1918 Education Act was comprehensive in its deliberations. Sections 1-7 dealt with the provision of a *National System of Public Education*.

Every county and county borough was required to provide for 'the progressive development and comprehensive organisation of education in respect of their area.

Local education authorities were required to ensure:

- a. that public elementary schools included 'practical *instruction*' in the curriculum and offered advanced instruction 'for the older or more intelligent children';
- b. that they attended to 'the health and physical condition of the children';
- c. that they co-operated with other LEAs to prepare children for further education 'in schools other than elementary', and to provide for the supply and training of teachers.
- d. LEAs were to establish and *maintain 'a sufficient supply of continuation schools', co-operate with universities in the provision of lectures and classes, and appoint LEA representatives to the managing bodies of such schools if practicable'*.

In preparing schemes for submission to the Board of Education, LEAs were to consult with other authorities and parents within their area, take into account non-LEA provision, and ensure that '*children and young persons shall not be debarred from receiving the benefits of any form of education by*

which they are capable of profiting through inability to pay fees'. Suitable schemes would be approved, inadequate ones discussed with the LEA concerned and, if agreement could not be reached, the Board of Education would hold a public inquiry.

In 1918 Fisher turned his attention to pensions for teachers. In that year a Superannuation Act was passed into law. The act gave to all teachers working in maintained and grant-aided schools and colleges a non-contributory pension scheme.

In 1918 the recommendations of a Departmental Committee on the construction of scales of salary (Board of Education Comnd 8939), paved the way for the first Burnham report of 1919, which established a provisional minimum scale for elementary school teachers payable from January 1920.

In 1919 the Borough Road Committee had particular problems with recruiting efficient junior members of staff in certain subjects, namely geography and music. Hence advanced courses in these two subjects needed to be temporarily abandoned. There were three major reasons for this difficulty. Firstly appropriately qualified and experienced teachers from schools for the positions of tutors in teacher training colleges were in short supply. Secondly the salaries needed to be raised in order to meet the new Burnham structure for teachers in maintained schools. It was apparent that more finances needed to be available in order to meet the new salary scales. It was imperative that these new salary scales must encourage teachers in schools to feel that changing to training teachers was an incentive for their future career prospects.

Lastly the character of the students entering the teacher training college posed many challenges to the new college tutor as the student intake was very variable. At this period of time men were returning from war service, some of whom had sustained live long injuries and had stopped their course mid-way and were returning to complete their training. Other men were recruited to teaching lacking relevant academic work experience in schools but might have considerable experience of life. At Borough Road College the range of courses to be taught ranged from certificate to degree levels. Such a range of courses would be a big challenge to most young tutors.

In 1919, the Standing Joint Committee on Scales of Salary for Teachers in Public Elementary Schools was established at the request of the President of the Board of Education *'to secure the orderly and progressive solution of the salary question in Public Elementary Schools on a national basis and its correlation with a solution of the salary problem in Secondary Schools'*. Similar committees were subsequently established concerned with the salaries of teachers in secondary schools and those teaching in technical schools. The committees became known as the Burnham Committees after the chairman Lord Burnham.

The ending of the First World War made the general public very keen to improve the educational opportunities for their children. Hence they supported the idea that school teachers should receive an improved salary and also more teachers should be recruited in order to reduce the size of classes. Unfortunately the nation's finances were in a very poor state as government expenditure and taxation had increased greatly. Hence it was necessary to implement strict control of governmental expenditure, which included the monies spent on public education. Even so government sought to foster the recruitment and training of teachers.

When the military authorities handed back the Isleworth site a considerable amount of work was required to get the buildings fit to receive the students. The re-opening of the college at Isleworth for the session 1919 – 1920 had to be delayed until October 1919 when a total of 143 students came into residence at the college. These students included 40 former students and 85 other ex-service men.

The aims of the 1918 Education Act soon diminished since national expenditure was escalating and urgent action needed to be taken to curb expenditure. Taxation was a means of increasing finances. For instance tax per head per annum in 1919 was £18 and rising each year.

In 1919 the Committee of Principals in Training Colleges recommended a three year teacher training course for students attending a teacher training college. However this recommendation was not implemented.

In the year 1919 there was no national scale for the payment of the salaries of teachers. The salary of each teacher working in an elementary school was poor. Strike action was taken in some areas of the country where the salaries of teachers were much lower than in other areas. In the same year Mr. Fisher

established three separate committees to investigate the pay of teachers, each of which was chaired by Lord Burnham. The committees, which comprised representatives for local education authorities and teacher associations, investigated elementary, secondary and technical school sectors. The purpose of the committees was to recommend payments for school teachers.

H A L Fisher was President of the Board of Education when he prepared the details of the new education act. This act, which was commonly known as the Fisher Act, was published in 1918. It was felt that children should receive more years of education in order to produce adults who could make a positive contribution to the world of work. Hence the Fisher Act enforced the compulsory schooling of children up to the age of fourteen years. In particular it was intended to reorganise education for all pupils below the age of eleven years. In order to achieve this aim all fees in elementary schools were abolished.

Further the local education authorities were required to *'practical instruction suitable to all ages, abilities and requirements of children'*. Further the local education authorities were empowered to provide nursery schools for children over two and under five years.

Recommendations of the 1918 Education Act included:

1. improve the administrative organisation of education;
2. compulsory schooling to the age of 14 years;
3. establish part-time day continuation schools which were compulsory unless the young person was receiving suitable instruction elsewhere;
4. proposals for the development of higher forms of elementary education;
5. consolidation of grants for elementary schools;
6. conduct a survey of the total educational provision in the country including private educational establishments;
7. total reorganisation of primary education - pupils under the age of 11 years;
8. all fees abolished for public elementary school pupils;
9. LEAs were instructed:
 - (a) to provide *'practical instruction suitable for the requirements of the children'*
 - (b) empowered to supply nursery schools for the 2 – 5 years

- (c) assist in providing or assisting the maintenance of centres for physical training, equipment, playing fields, swimming baths and other facilities for social and physical training
- (d) provision of medical inspection, nursery schools and centres for pupils with special needs
- (e) establish national salary scales – Burnham scales
- (f) expansion of tertiary education
- (g) provide practical instruction suitable for the requirements of children of different ages and abilities;
- (h) empowered to supply nursery schools for children between the ages of two and five years;
- (i) establish national salary scales. These became known as the Burnham scales;
- (j) provide continuation schools for young people who did not have to attend the public elementary school any longer. The time allocated to attendance at such schools was 320 hours per year or the equivalent of eight hours a week for forty weeks of the year.

This act led to very important changes in the structure of primary education. In the first instance five to seven year old pupils were called infants and during the years seven to eleven the pupils were known as juniors. In addition rote learning was recommended to be replaced by child-centred approaches.

At secondary level the future workers of the nation were going to be better educated and better prepared for the world of work. Formal part-time schooling became formalised for the first time.

The committees, which comprised representatives for local education authorities and teacher associations, investigated elementary, secondary and technical school sectors. The purpose of these committees was to recommend payments for school teachers and the committees agreed that a minimum scale for elementary school teachers would be payable from 1920.

Three standard scales were authorised for different areas, and later a fourth scale for London and a number of metropolitan authorities. The provincial scales were higher because of the additional cost of travel and living in such densely populated areas. Similar scales were agreed for secondary and technical schools. The committees agreed that the new scales would operate from 1921 and the four standard scales were allocated for a period of four

years. At this time the male teachers received more pay than female teachers. Extra increments to the basic salary scale were given for additional years of training and for possession of a first degree. Alas no extra increments were made for teachers holding a higher degree or further specialist qualifications.

Further the local education authorities were empowered to provide nursery schools for children over two and under five years.

Recommendations of the act were:

1. improve the administrative organisation of education;
2. compulsory schooling to the age of 14 years;
3. establish part-time day continuation schools which were compulsory unless the young person was receiving suitable instruction elsewhere;
4. proposals for the development of higher forms of elementary education;
5. consolidation of grants for elementary schools;
6. conduct a survey of the total educational provision in the country including private educational establishments;
7. total reorganisation of primary education - pupils under the age of 11 years;
8. all fees abolished for public elementary school pupils;
9. LEAs were instructed
 - a) to provide *'practical instruction suitable for the requirements of the children'*;
 - b) empowered to supply nursery schools for the 2 – 5 years;
 - c) assist in providing or assisting the maintenance of centres for physical training, equipment, playing fields, swimming baths and other facilities for social and physical training;
 - d) provision of medical inspection, nursery schools and centres for pupils with special needs;
10. establish national salary scales – Burnham scales;
11. provide practical instruction suitable for the requirements of children of different ages and abilities;
12.
 - a) supply nursery schools for children between the ages of two and five years in providing or assisting the maintenance of centres for physical training, equipment, playing fields, swimming baths and other facilities for social and physical training;
 - b) of medical inspections and centres for children with special needs;

- c) attend the public elementary school any longer. The time allocated to attendance at such schools was 320 hours per year or the equivalent of eight hours a week for forty weeks of the year.

At secondary level the future workers of the nation were going to be better educated and better prepared for the world of work. Formal part-time schooling became formalised for the first time.

At the close of the First World War there was widespread enthusiasm for improving and expanding public education. The government sought to foster the recruitment and training of teachers. Unfortunately the nation's finances were in a very poor state as government expenditure and taxation had increased greatly. Hence it was necessary to implement strict control of governmental expenditure, which included the monies spent on public education.

After the end of the First World War there was a short period of boom but then the country suffered a slump in trade and an increase in unemployment, which resulted in financial difficulties.

At the end of the First World War there was an enthusiasm to improve the state of education in the country. For the teacher training colleges there were a number of issues that they needed to address. These issues included the finances of their colleges as well as the academic and the professional standards of their courses. For Borough Road College its finances were in a sorry state. Alas the enthusiasm to improve educational opportunities did not last long as national expenditure was getting out of control.

As a result of the First World War a large number staff and students associated with Borough Road College lost their lives. A brass tablet bearing witness to their sacrifice was mounted in the main entrance hall to the Lancaster House building (Bartle 1976 p. 11).

The First World War took its toll on the people (past and present students and staff members). A number of these people received military honours including 5 Distinguished Service Orders, 19 Military crosses and 7 military medals. These honours were given in recognition of their outstanding contribution to the war effort. Some of these people returned to the college in order to resume their roles as members of staff or complete their teacher training. Altogether more than one hundred members of the forces died and

a much larger number sustained long term injuries, which were to remain with them for their whole life.

In 1919 a report of a Departmental Committee and of negotiations with the teachers' organisations constituted the Burnham Committee. The Committee was chaired by Lord Burnham and it was composed of people representing the education authorities and the National Union of Teachers. Three standard scales were authorised for different areas. A fourth scale for London and a number of metropolitan authorities were added later. Similar scales were constructed for teachers in secondary and technical schools.

The Burnham Committee was formed in 1919. It consisted of representatives for local education authorities and teacher associations. Its purpose was to recommend payments for school teachers.

In 1919 a three year Teacher's Certificate was recommended by the Committee of Principals in Training Colleges. However the time was not right for keeping students in training an extra year in college.

In 1919, the Standing Joint Committee on Scales of Salary for Teachers in Public Elementary Schools was established at the request of the President of the Board of Education *'to secure the orderly and progressive solution of the salary question in Public Elementary Schools on a national basis and its correlation with a solution of the salary problem in Secondary Schools'*. Similar committees were subsequently established concerned with the salaries of teachers in secondary schools and those teaching in technical schools. The committees became known as the Burnham Committees after the chairman Lord Burnham.

The 1920s

Although the First World War had ended the 1920s started with the country experiencing major effects that needed to be addressed. The war had been very costly in monetary terms. Family life had been seriously disrupted by the loss of many husbands, sons and other relatives due to the war. As a result many children had no father figure in their lives. Even the landscape of the country had been altered for ever. Due to this variety of problems depression (financial and physical) started very early in the decade. Government had to initiate actions.

In 1920 the government offered a site behind the British Museum in Bloomsbury for the site of London University. The large acreage of land was bought from the Duke of Bedford's estate. It was hoped that King's College would move to the Bloomsbury site but the college refused to move from its location in the Strand.

At the time there was a large of opposition from eminent people objecting to the move to Bloomsbury. The University of London had based its administrative functions in the Imperial Institute in South Kensington. Alas the accommodation was no longer adequate for the growing university. Clearly another location was required.

In 1920 the Board of Education reduced the number of compulsory academic subjects in teacher training certificate examinations from 6 or 7 to 4 or 5.

It was clear that the government had to cutback national expenditure in all areas. In December 1920 a Select Committee was formed to consider how national expenditure could be reduced. Its terms of reference were:

'To make recommendations to the Chancellor of the Exchequer for effecting forthwith all possible reductions in the National Expenditure on Supply Services', having regard especially to the present and prospective position of the Revenue. Insofar as questions of policy are involved in the expenditure under discussion, these will remain for the exclusive consideration of the Cabinet; but it will be open to the Committee to review the expenditure and to indicate the economies which might be effected if particular policies were either adopted, abandoned or modified'.

[Select Committee on National Expenditure 1920]

This committee criticised the amount of money spent on public education and it was stated that there was inadequate control of monies spent on educational activities. The chair of the Select Committee was Sir Eric Geddes. Depression started in 1920 and the Select Committee set work immediately to consider cuts in public spending.

In the Geddes Report the Treasury insisted that Mr Fisher as President of the Board of Education should issue Circular 1190, which was done in January 1921. In this circular the local education authorities were instructed to curb expenditure by not incurring or committing themselves to any new expenditure.

In May 1921 the Treasury sent a circular to all government departments stating that in the period 1921/1922 the cost of supply services would be £603 million and it was essential to reduce the amount to £490. In reality the plan was to reduce the expenditure by £75million.

On 14th May 1921 the war memorial, which was located at the top of College Road, was unveiled by the widow of a former student E M Ore. He had studied at Borough Road College during the years 1900 -1902. The ceremony was attended by many O.B.s and three principals of the college, namely Burrell, Hendry and Miller. On the same occasion a brass plaque containing the names of all one hundred and eleven men who had lost their lives in the war. The plaque was placed in the college vestibule.

In August 1921 the government appointed the Geddes Committee to consider '*reductions in the national expenditure on supply services*'. This committee, which presented its report the following year, proposed some very drastic reductions in education. Expenditure in education was to be cut by a third. The education reductions included stopping nursery education, changing the age of entry to schools from five to six years, increasing the size of classes, closing continuation schools and reducing teacher salaries by 5% and increasing teacher-pupil ratios. In 1922 25% of elementary classes still had more than sixty pupils. Further it was stated that the expenditure on secondary and higher education was excessive and needed to be substantially reduced in the present economic situation.

In 1921 the college tutors received a 5% cut in salary. In addition their teacher's superannuation scheme was altered to a contributory scheme from

a non-contributory one as promised at the end of the First World War. As a result the teacher's salary was reduced by a further 5%.

The Geddes Committee published interim reports on national expenditure as command papers in 1922.

Table 5:

Interim Reports of Committee on National Expenditure	
Report	Command Number
1 st	1581
2 nd	1582
3 rd	1589

Alas these reductions meant that some newly qualified teachers were unable to find suitable appointments. Besides the financial difficulties the teaching profession faced other problems. Both academic and professional training posed numerous questions. The Geddes Committee felt that the non-contributory element of the teacher pension provision was unacceptable in the present financial constraints. Besides the financial difficulties the teaching profession faced other problems. Both academic and professional training posed numerous questions, which needed to be addressed.

After the war the Board of Education had supported the poor financial situation of voluntary colleges including Borough Road College by giving an annual supplementary grant. However the decision of the Geddes Committee meant that this financial support could no longer continue.

The British and Foreign School Society reported in its Annual Report for 1921 that the organisation faced the most serious crisis in its history.

'the Society is faced with what is perhaps the most serious crisis in its long and honourable history Its future depends upon the solution of the problem of the training colleges. If the four colleges were to continue to be maintained with no change in the present conditions, the whole capital of the Society would be absorbed within a few years and its work would close through lack of funds'

[BFSS Annual Report 1921 p.21]

The London teacher training colleges were attached to constituent colleges of London for the planning of courses and examinations of students with Borough Road included in the University College group. Two senior members of University College namely Professors H E Butler and G B Jeffery were selected to represent the University on the Borough Road College Committee.

The first four years of the 1920s were very difficult as there were severe financial implications for the teacher training students and the colleges themselves. Already the British and Foreign School Society had made the decision to close four of its colleges. It was considered a possibility that Borough Road College might have to close if its expenditure did not meet its income. Entrance fees for students were to rise from £45 to £50 in 1921 and £50 in 1922.

Within the 1920s decade Borough Road College needed to develop three main areas of work in the aftermath of the First World War and the recession. During this period finances were somewhat of a problem. The developments to be tackled included improvement of the college buildings and student facilities, extension of university work by establishing a three year degree course and the formation of university training college delegacies.

The Delegacy scheme was evolved as a result of discussions between university and teacher training college authorities and the Board of Education after the termination of the First World War. It was proposed that the universities should assume responsibility for the organisation of the Teacher's Certificate examination. Unfortunately the teacher training colleges rejected this proposal as it was strongly felt that the examination of intending teachers should be conducted by the people who inspected the elementary schools, namely the HMIs.

The proposal was revived by the Burnham Committee on the Training of Teachers. The recommendation was the handing responsibility for the Teacher's Certificate examination to Joint Boards or '*Delegacies*', which would represent the Board of Education, the teacher training colleges and the teachers under the aegis of the universities. Borough Road College was associated with the Training College Delegacy of the University of London and this arrangement continued for some years. The Board of Education's

inspectors were to continue to assess practical teaching and some specialist subjects such as music and physical education.

The Burnham Committees, which comprised representatives for local education authorities and teacher associations, investigated elementary, secondary and technical school sectors. The purpose of the committees was to recommend payments for school teachers and the committees agreed that a minimum scale for elementary school teachers would be payable from 1920.

This initial stage was followed in 1921 by four standard scales of salary allocated by areas, which were to operate for four years. A negotiation for scales of salary to operate following the four year settlement ended in disagreement and was finally decided by arbitration, Lord Burnham acting as arbiter. Four new scales were formulated as well as some re-allocation scales for individual authorities.

In 1925 the Burnham Committee met again in order to make further awards. The salaries of men were higher than those for women and teachers in elementary schools got lower salaries than teachers in secondary schools.

After 1925 the financial position of the British and Foreign School Society improved. In 1925 the Society made the following statement '*by careful administration and vigilant economy*' (Annual Report 1925 p.526). Money became available for the modernisation of college facilities.

A Departmental Committee was established in 1925 in order to review the arrangements for the training of teachers who were to work in public elementary schools. This committee was chaired by Vincent Burnham. It recommended that students trained in the universities should take a period of four years to complete their course. On the other hand the teacher training colleges should complete their course in two years. Further the committee strongly recommended a closer relationship between the universities and the colleges. The committee suggested that a special examination for the total number of training college students under the auspices of the universities should be established. To that date the examination had been under the control of the Board of Education. Another recommendation of this Committee was the suggestion that the age of school entry should become six years of age.

The British and Foreign School Society reached the view that in order to have a future it was vital to solve the problems of its teacher training colleges. Unfortunately the situation was made much worse due to the fact that three of the four colleges belonging to the British and Foreign School Society (Darlington, Saffron Walden and Borough Road) had been in military occupation during the First World War and all of them were in considerable need of repair and modernisation (Bartle 1976 p.69).

The First World War had taken its toll on the people (past and present students and staff members). A number of these people received military honours including 5 Distinguished Service Orders, 19 Military Crosses and 7 Military Medals. These honours were given in recognition of their outstanding contribution to the war effort. Altogether more than one hundred members of the forces died and a much larger number sustained long term injuries, which were to remain with them for their whole life.

During the early years of the 1920s stringent financial economies needed to be put in place by the college authorities. Entrance fees were increased, college maintenance was kept to minimum and proposed plans to improve the living conditions of the students and residential staff members were put on hold. Further the Board of Education reduced the number of students that the college could be accepted for training.

Alas in 1923 the Board of Education announced that in 1924 the teacher training college had to reduce by 5% its annual intake of students as there was very likely to be a surplus of trained teachers in the schools. In addition the *pledge* was lifted so that teachers could find alternative employment.

Sir Henry Hadow had a very strong influence on education in England during the 1920s and 1930s. In the early part of the 1920s the Hadow Committee was constituted and in a series of reports spreading across the years 1923 – 1933. During that period the committee produced six reports on behalf of government. The committee considered the structure of the school system from nursery to school leaving age and the curriculum. The committee made many recommendations for the future direction of school education.

In 1923 the first of six Hadow's reports was published. Its title was *Differentiation of the Curriculum for Boys and Girls*.

Its terms of reference were:

'To investigate whether greater differentiation is desirable in the curriculum for boys and girls respectively in secondary schools'.

This report, which was very thorough and detailed, covered all stages of education from nursery to school leaving age. The report examined the differences between boys and girls in terms of *'anatomy, physiology, social environment and social function'* (Hadow 1923 Chapter 3). It started with a history of the education of boys and girls before examining the curricula in all schools and detailed differences between boys and girls. The evidence accumulated was then discussed before making conclusions and twenty-four recommendations given. At the end of the report there were six appendices.

The Hadow Commissioners argued that no curriculum could be complete without natural science. They recommended that a start should be made with the outlines of physical geography *'which requires no apparatus but good maps'* (Hadow 1923 p.35).

The report concluded that the curriculum was too academic, too heavy and too rigid in order to satisfy the requirements set by the Board of Education. As a result of all the evidence collected the committee stated that there should be greater freedom in the curricula for the boys and girls. In addition there should be flexibility in advanced courses and a relaxation of some university matriculation requirements.

In 1923 the Great West Road was under construction. At the time the college took advantage of the situation to purchase six extra acres of former orchard land adjacent to the existing college lands (Bartle 1976 p.74).

Luckily in 1924 there was an improvement in the general economic situation of the country. In addition there was a more sympathetic government with a real interest in improving education. In 1924 the Society's financial situation started to improve. At last Borough Road College could plan for the future.

The second Hadow report entitled *The Psychological Tests of Educable Capacity* was published in 1924. The report covered all major aspects of psychological testing. In particular the report considered the possible applications of psychological tests to the public education system. It was stated that teachers and other professionals within the school system

required training in using the psychological tests. At the end of the report the committee strongly advised the Board of Education to establish an advisory committee to work with university departments of psychology and other organisations to monitor the use of psychological testing in the field of education.

The third of the Hadow reports was *'The Education of the Adolescent'* which was published in 1926. Its terms of reference were:

'(i) To consider and report upon the organization, objective and curriculum of courses of study suitable for children who will remain in full-time attendance at schools, other than secondary schools, up to the age of fifteen, regard being had on the one hand to the requirements of a good general education and the desirability of providing a reasonable variety of curriculum, as far as is practicable, for children of varying tastes and abilities, and on the other hand the probable occupations of the pupils in commerce, industry and agriculture.

(ii) Incidentally thereto, to advise as to the arrangement to be made:

(a) for testing the attainments of the pupils at the end of their course;

(b) for facilitating in suitable cases the transfer of individual pupils to Secondary Schools at an age above the normal age of admission'.

This report made a detailed study of primary education. Its focus was a radical change in the way pupils were taught. Instead of learning by rote, teachers were encouraged to use child-centered approaches including relevant activities and experiences to illustrate particular subject points.

In 1926 the University of London Act was passed. The act implemented the recommendations of the Haldane Commission, which favoured a faculty structure for the university. The act provided a new constitution for the increasing number of teaching bodies, which had developed in the last few years of the nineteenth century. Whilst each institution had its own governing body the University of London was responsible for the organisation of curricula and degree examination conditions. This act made reference for a permanent building for the university.

In 1926 the Duke of Bedford bought back his land. However the arrival of a new Vice-Chancellor, William Beveridge, supported the move to

Bloomsbury. He sought a large donation of four hundred thousand pounds from the Rockefeller Foundation to the University of London. This donation was given and the following year the land was re-acquired from the Duke of Bedford.

The Burnham structure of teachers' salaries in maintained schools had established increases in teacher's pay. It was apparent that the salaries of lecturing staff in the teacher training colleges would need to be increased in order to encourage applicants to apply to the colleges. In addition the calibre of the lecturing staff needed to be improved in order to attract better qualified persons capable of teaching to university standards.

The Burnham Committee agreed that a minimum scale for elementary school teachers would be payable from 1920. In 1921 four standard scales of salary for elementary school teachers were allocated by areas and were to operate for four years. Negotiations for scales of salary to operate following the four year settlement ended in disagreement and were finally decided by arbitration with Lord Burnham acting as arbiter. Four new scales were formulated as well as some re-allocation scales for individual authorities.

Similar committees chaired by Lord Burnham were subsequently established concerned with the salaries of teachers in secondary schools and those teaching in technical schools. The committees became known as the Burnham Committees after its chairman.

From the middle of the decade plans could be made for improving the building and the facilities for the students. From 1926 Borough Road College facilities needed to be updated in order to ensure that the standard of its degree courses were comparable with other institution offering degree courses. A request was made to the British and Foreign School Society for a specific grant of four thousand and five hundred pounds. The money was to be spent on the re-equipment of the Chemistry and Physics laboratories and the installation of electric light and improved heating facilities (BFSS Annual Report 1926 p.9). In addition the students living quarters were made more comfortable by constructing group studies, each of which could hold around twenty students. The common room was refurnished and redecorated (BFSS Annual Report 1926 p.9).

Further improvements undertaken in the 1920s included the tutors' quarters, the redecoration of the college dining hall and its gallery extended in order

to accommodate the college orchestra and a small canteen was installed. The Speech Room was adapted as a gymnasium with wall bars, ropes and other equipment (B's Hum 1931 p.6).

The Board of Education was unenthusiastic about degree work at Borough Road College and made the recommendation that residential teacher training colleges should not offer degree work. However Borough Road College took the decision to continue to and expand its degree work.

The view of Principal Hendry was stated:

'The best students will aim for degree courses and the best teachers be the best educated men' (Educational Record 1913 p.60)

Fortunately many members of the Council of the British and Foreign School Society agreed that good candidates would be attracted to those residential colleges, which offered degree courses. In addition it was thought *'that the college needed to broaden its outlook both academically and otherwise'*, if it was to keep its place in the world of higher education.

Implementation of the degree decision was the main responsibility of Principal Attenborough. The first step was to extend the college teacher training course to three year's duration. At this point in time the government had directed the college to reduce its initial intake by 5%. Hence it was possible to accommodate more third year students. Altogether fifty residential vacancies were created.

Alas the Geddes Committee felt that the non-contributory element of the pension provision for teachers was unacceptable in the present financial constraints. Hence in 1922 the superannuation scheme became contributory whereby every teacher had to contribute 5% of their salary to its fund.

1922 the Board of Education announced a 5% cut in the numbers of students entering the teacher training college in 1923. The reason for this reduction in intake numbers was intended to avoid a surplus in future years.

In 1925 the Burnham Committee met again in order to make further awards. The salaries of men were higher than those for women and teachers in elementary schools got lower salaries than teachers in secondary schools (Musgrave, 1960 p.99).

In 1925 students possessing just a Higher School Certificate were granted permission to take a one year course which consisted of professional studies and practice.

A Departmental Committee was established in 1925 in order to review the arrangements for the training of teachers who were to work in public elementary schools. This committee was chaired by Vincent Burnham.

Its terms of reference were:

'To review the arrangements for the training of teachers for Public Elementary Schools, and to consider what changes, if any, in the organisation or finance of the existing system are desirable in order that a supply of well qualified teachers adjustable to the demands of the schools may be secured, regard being had to:

(a) the economy of public funds

(b) the attractions offered to young persons by the teaching profession as compared with other professions and occupations

(c) the facilities afforded by Secondary Schools and Universities for acquiring academic qualifications'.

Alas the Committee's terms of reference did not include the training of teachers for secondary schools. The President of the Board of Education had promised a comprehensive review of education of all aspects of teacher education but training provision for secondary school teachers was omitted. The Committee was only concerned with the difference between elementary and secondary schools in terms of their administrative procedures.

The Burnham Report was published in 1926. The Committee, which was composed of eighteen members, displayed differences of opinion between its members, which were articulated in the final report, made a great many recommendations. Some of the most important were:

1. Financial support from public funds should continue to be made to young people intending to become school teachers.
2. Training College student's maintenance allowances should rank for grant.
3. The minimum academic qualifications for entry into Training College should be a School certificate and evidence of at least one year's study in school after obtaining it.

4. So far as is practicable, intending teachers should receive their secondary education in a Secondary School.
5. As the essential function of the Training College is to train students to become effective teachers, its courses of training should be organised primarily with that end in view.
6. The Teacher Training course should extend over not less than two years, and the opportunities for offered by a third year be more used.
7. Courses extending over two or three years which comprised a degree course and professional training should cease to be recognised as qualifying for the Teacher's Certificate.
8. Pupil-Teacherships and Student Teacherships should be discouraged.
9. Evidence of the successful completion of an approved course of training should be required as a condition of recognition as a teacher in a Public elementary School.
10. The Board of Education should only be responsible for the recognition of certificated teachers.
11. The Board of Education's Regulations should cease to distinguish between Elementary and Secondary courses of training.
12. The establishment should be encouraged of examination boards, representative of Universities and governing bodies of training Colleges, to examine the students of a College or a group of Colleges, for the purpose of the recognition of the student by the Board of education as Certificated Teachers.
13. Exchequer grants to LEA colleges should be paid on the same basis as those to voluntary colleges. The additional expenditure incurred by the Exchequer should be recovered by equitable apportionment among the LEAs for higher education which do not provide Training Colleges.

One of the principal recommendations agreed by the majority of the committee was *'that evidence of the successful completion of an approved course of training should be required as a condition of recognition as a teacher'*.

[Report of the Departmental Committee on the Training of Teachers for Public Elementary Schools 1926]

Most importantly the report stated that the training needs of potential teachers in elementary and secondary schools were different. There was a

view that teacher training colleges should concentrate on professional training exclusively and only have the students for two years. Further the report recommended that students who trained in the universities to become school teachers should take a period of four years to complete their course. i.e. three years for degree course plus one year of professional educational studies.

The Committee suggested that a special examination for the total number of training college students under the auspices of the universities should be established. On the other hand the students in teacher training colleges should complete their course in two years. To that date the examination had been under the control of the Board of Education. Further the Burnham Committee strongly recommended a closer relationship between the universities and the teacher training colleges.

The abolition of the Acting Teacher's Certificate was recommended by the Burnham Committee and implemented by the Board of Education in 1927. In the following year the Preliminary Examination for the Certificate was also abolished by the Board of Education.

The fourth Hadow report, which was published in 1928, was entitled '*Books in Public Elementary Schools*'. Its terms of reference were:

'To inquire as to the selection and provision of books for public elementary schools and to make recommendations for the improvement of their quality and supply'

[Hadow 1928 p.iv]

The report stated that every school should have a library with adequate accommodation (Hadow 1928 p.109). It was stressed that it was very important for there to be cooperation between the school and the appropriate urban or county council.

The report made several recommendations relating to the training of teachers and the provision of advice for them in the matter of book selection, and recommended that '*the Board of Education should convene from time to time a Central Advisory Conference ... to deal with general questions relating to the supply, quality and content of books for Public Elementary Schools*' (Hadow 1928 p.119).

A Central Advisory Committee for the Certification of Teachers, which had representatives from university institutions, teacher training colleges, local education authorities and teacher professional associations was established. The membership of this Central Advisory Committee would ensure that the standards in the Joint Examination groups were comparable. Officers of the Board of Education would give assistance to the boards for some years. The first five joint examination boards held their first examinations in 1929. The Joint Examination Boards made few changes to the existing syllabi as a result of the conferences.

A pass at these examinations should give the student qualified teacher status. The departmental committee felt that contact with the universities would help to improve academic standards within the teacher training colleges and also give these colleges some measure of autonomy. By this means the teacher training colleges would gain greater freedom to develop their curricula and examinations which hitherto had been strictly controlled by the Board of Education.

The Burnham Committee proposed that joint examining boards should be established for groups of colleges in association with universities. The Board of Education agreed to this proposal and nine regional joint boards and one central advisory board were formed. The function of the Central Advisory Board was to supervise the standards adopted by the regional boards. It was envisaged that students would be examined by panels of examiners from the colleges who acted as internal examiners and members of the universities acting as external examiners. This recommendation was accepted by the Board of Education and by 1929 the Joint Boards had been established.

In the report it was suggested that a university might co-operate with a two year training college by holding a special examination for the whole of the training college students. Special syllabi of work could be arranged between the college and the university provided that the Board agreed. The examination of these syllabi could be accepted in place of the final examinations for the certificate course. It was felt that such an arrangement could help to give the colleges some measure of autonomy for their courses.

However the Burnham Committee stated that the Board of Education would cease to examine teacher training college students for the Teacher's Certificate. The Board of Education would continue to examine the teaching

practice element of the course. Instead the colleges would act in concert with the universities.

Unfortunately the teacher profession was not completely happy with this situation. The teacher training colleges felt that the committee's proposal had not given them sufficient autonomy. Links with the universities were somewhat remote since they were only involved in moderating the work of the students.

The Burnham Committee considered that there should be a core of academic studies for all trainees aiming to teach in rural schools. This core of subjects was to include English, Geography, History, Mathematics and Science. It was also recommended that attention should be paid to a number of practical subjects including drawing, gardening, handicrafts and music (Dent 1975 p. 102).

Reactions to the Burnham Report were mixed. The Schoolmaster Journal representing the views of the National Union of Teachers stated that the report was a '*disappointing document*' (The Schoolmaster 12th May 1925 p.918). The National Union of Teachers stated that the Burnham Committee has failed to make substantial reforms with respect to the training of teachers. Of particular concern for the union was the retention of the function of the training college as a place of both academic education and professional training. Instead a compromise between these aspects of teacher training was outlined.

Furthermore The Schoolmaster Journal wished that the plan outlined in the '*Memorandum of Dissent*' to the report was accepted. In particular the union wanted a one year or two year course of professional training should only be available to graduates or non-graduates holding a Higher School Certificate. Further the union wanted the government to meet part of the cost of training a teacher in a college course should be met from public funds.

In 1925 The Schoolmaster journal renamed itself to The Schoolmaster and *Women Teachers Chronicle*' in order to reflect the growing number of women teachers in the country.

At the same time the relatively new Teacher's Superannuation scheme was transferred to a contributory basis, although the original idea had been to make it non-contributory. This action was made necessary as the

government needed to make economies which affected education badly. Other proposals were rejected by government as too drastic. In particular the Committee considered raising the entry for children for starting school from five to six years of age. In 1922 25% of elementary classes had more than sixty pupils (Quoted in Martin 1979 p.87).

Circular 1350, published in 1925, stated that the age of eleven years was increasingly being recognised as the most suitable dividing line between what may be called 'Junior' and 'Secondary' education.

The report entitled *The Education of the Adolescent*, which was published in 1926, considered primary education. Its terms of reference were:

(i) To consider and report upon the organization, objective and curriculum of courses of study suitable for children who will remain in full-time attendance at schools, other than secondary schools, up to the age of fifteen, regard being had on the one hand to the requirements of a good general education and the desirability of providing a reasonable variety of curriculum, as far as is practicable, for children of varying tastes and abilities, and on the other hand the probable occupations of the pupils in commerce, industry and agriculture.

(ii) Incidentally thereto, to advise as to the arrangement which should be made (a) for testing the attainments of the pupils at the end of their course; (b) for facilitating in suitable cases the transfer of individual pupils to Secondary Schools at an age above the normal age of admission'.

The report concentrated on activity and experience for teaching children rather than using rote learning. The committee recommended limiting the class sizes to a maximum of thirty children.

'We desire to abolish the word 'elementary' and to alter and extend the sense of the word 'secondary'. The word 'elementary' has become misleading... We propose to substitute the term 'primary', but to restrict the use of that term to the period of education which ends at the age of eleven or twelve. To the period of education which follows upon it we would give the name secondary; and we would make this name embrace all forms of post-primary education... '.

[Board of Education 1926 p.xxi]

In 1926 the Hadow Report entitled “*The Education of the Adolescent*” was published. In Section 99 the following statement is made:

‘It is desirable that education up to 11+ should be known by the general name of Primary Education, and education after 11 by the general name of Secondary Education.....’

[Board of Education 1927 p. 95]

The report made a number of suggestions for post-primary education. It strongly advised that there should be a re-grading of education to provide a clear classification of the successive stages of education before and after the age of eleven years. It recommended the terms ‘*Primary*’ and ‘*Secondary*’.

The report stressed the importance of planning the curriculum as a whole. In so doing various curriculum subjects should be taught in relation to each other. Further two other ideas for the curriculum were considered by the Hadow Committee. Firstly the local environment should be included in the curriculum of a number of subjects such as geography. Secondly the committee wished to stress the educational significance of giving pupils in the last years of their school career relevant information concerning the likely pupils’ occupation in society. In particular it was strongly suggested that the school leaving age should be raised to fifteen years, if possible by 1932.

In 1925 the Burnham Committee met again in order to make further awards. The salaries of men were higher than those for women and teachers in elementary schools got lower salaries than teachers in secondary schools (Musgrave, 1960 p.99).

In 1925 Borough Road College was subject to an HMI Inspection. At the time the college was the only male residential teacher training college in the country and it was non-denominational. The inspection had been delayed for some years after the end of the First World War so that the college had sufficient time to recover from the ravages of the war.

The HMI inspection was deferred for several reasons as it was appreciated that the college had undergone many difficulties during the war and afterwards. Time was needed for the college to recover from the effects of the First World War for the buildings had suffered considerable damage during the war. A resettlement time was needed to get the college back to

normality. In addition the college had other issues which required some time to implement. Both the Principal and Master of Method had served the college for over forty years and were due to retire. It was necessary to give the college time to establish a new routine within the college. In any case the inspection's activities were somewhat restrained.

The emphasis of the inspection was to concentrate on the premises, the general quality of the staff and the work of the students. Most of the current premises were built around 1860. Although used as an International School, the original premises were not ideally suited for a teacher training college. Little improvements had been made to the buildings save for some additions at the back of the main building, namely a gymnasium, a changing room, an Art room and a lecture room.

In the HMI Inspection Report the inspectors deplored the physical state of the building, which later became known as Lancaster House. The fabric of the main building was in somewhat poor condition, the walls of the rooms needed painting and their floors lacked floor coverings. There was little provision for implements in the kitchen to save work.

In the inspection report the domestic organisation of the college's fabric and the students' sleeping accommodation caused some concern. Overall the cleaning of all parts of the college could have been improved. The kitchen was said to be poorly equipped which prevented the kitchen staff from working efficiently. The dormitories also attracted considerable attention. Bed sheets and blankets were badly worn and there was no place for a student to store his clothes. The report concluded that it was important for the sleeping accommodation to be improved. Across the college the lighting and heating was in need of urgent improvement (Board of Education, 1925 p.1-10)

The inspection of the premises included the fabric of the building, the use of the existing rooms and the sleeping accommodation facilities for 140 young men. The inspector felt that overall accommodation for the students was very limited. Only six rooms available for lectures and the library were very small.

Staffing was considered another issue as the college had lost most of its able tutors who on returning from the war found better employment. Salaries for tutors in teacher training colleges were not good. As a result the college was

left with staff, having had little experience of teacher training work. The salary for junior staff at the college was poor. Well qualified people could gain employment elsewhere at much higher salaries.

Most of the tutors engaged after the end of the First World War had little experience of teaching in such a college. The main purpose of the inspection was to consider the fitness of the premises for training teachers, the general quality of the staff and the work of the students. The inspection was not looking at the future of the college or its university work.

There was no attempt to examine the curricula offered in the college. This aspect was under consideration by a committee established by the Board of Education. This Committee would make its recommendations in due course.

Included with the inspection report examination papers given to intending students to the teacher training college were given for each subject taught. The Geography Admissions Examination paper is given below.

1. Name the chief hills in the neighbourhood you have come from?
2. What is geography?
3. What is a cape? a peninsula? a gulf? Name some of the chief of each you are acquainted?
4. Name four chief rivers of England; give the length of its course and say what distances they drain.
5. What ocean must I pass over to get to the West Indies?
6. What country of the Continent is nearest to England? Give its capital and chief rivers.
7. The most mountainous countries of Europe?

At the time of the inspection there were a total of 144 students in the college of whom 139 were resident. The remaining five students lived locally. On admission to the college in September 1925 six students entered with the London Intermediate Degree either in Sciences or Arts. Fifty-seven students had the London Matriculation Examination or equivalent. Overall twenty-nine students were not qualified to proceed to the Board of Education's Final Examination for Training Teacher Colleges.

The physical environment for the residential students in the college was very poor. The inspectors stated that time and energy spent on cleaning of the dormitories could be considerably improved. A number of other problems in

the sleeping accommodation were also identified. There were no bathrooms for the resident students. Instead the students were expected to shower with cold water. The sleeping accommodation was grossly overcrowded and there was very little privacy for the individual student. The bedding was of poor quality and well used. There was inadequate furniture for the student's clothing, his books and other necessary personal equipment. It was reported that the sleeping accommodation could be a fire risk due to overcrowding. Above all there were no private study rooms for the students save for the library, which could only accommodate fifteen students at one time. The library had a serious deficiency of suitable books.

The inspectors attended classes in each of the subject areas taught at the college in order to ascertain that the standard of teaching was acceptable. Each subject area, including the various components of education, was inspected and a subject report was made.

With reference to Geography the inspectors made the following statement:

'The instruction is shared by two tutors whose main responsibilities lie with other subjects. The teaching seen was well formed; it also had the merits of careful preparation and interesting delivery. The method, however, was rather too discursive and the matter lacked a solid core of fundamental value. The mapping work done by the students was distinctly good and very much better than the written exercises, which might well have received more thoughtful attention'.

[Board of Education 1926 p.10]

After the inspection report had been received by the college authorities, discussions took place with the inspectors and the authorities of the college. There was an analysis of what actions needed to be done in the light of the inspectors' comments. The College authorities felt that an equipped library was vital to its future work.

During the period March 1926 to May 1926 the Board of Education arranged a number of conferences with the aim of discussing the proposed Joint Examination Boards (London Board of Education 1928 Circular 1372). It was proposed that eleven regional groups of teacher training colleges, each of which was associated with a specific university or university college. Each region was to have a joint examination board, which would coordinate and conduct examinations in academic subjects and the theory of education.

However the Board of Education would remain to assess the practical teaching of individual student teachers.

In 1926 the British and Foreign School Society provided Borough Road College with a special grant so that some of the recommendations made by the HMIs could be implemented. The monies were to be used to provide college facilities with standards suitable for the students undertaking university degree work. The grant was spent on the re-equipment of the chemistry and physics laboratories, the installation of electric light and the improvement of heating facilities. In addition the living quarters of the students and tutors were made more comfortable, the dining hall was redecorated and the galley extended so that an orchestra could be accommodated there. Unfortunately there was not enough money left in order to improving the sleeping accommodation for the students or the provision of an equipped library.

The students' accommodation was made more comfortable by the construction of group studies, each of which could hold a total of twenty students. In addition the common room was refurbished and re-decorated in a manner appropriate to students of the 1920s. The college dining hall was also re-decorated and its gallery extended to accommodate room for a college orchestra. A small canteen was constructed, the profits of which were to provide finances for the construction of hard tennis courts (Bartle 1976 p.73). The Speech room was adapted to an up-to-date gymnasium having an array of wall bars, ropes and other apparatus (BHum's 1931 p.6). Unfortunately the money was insufficient to improve the male dormitories or provide a properly equipped library (Bartle 1976 p.73).

Hence in 1927 an appeal was made by Principal Attenborough and Arthur Burrell to secure monies for this library to be built. Very soon over one thousand pounds had been raised by ex-BRC students and a large donation from Sir John Bayley. Sir John had been a Borough Road College student who left teaching to become a very successful business man. The new library was built at the west end of the college during 1929. Alas there was no money available to pay for the purchase of books for the library. As a result the library was not opened until 1931.

Altogether forty-three recommendations were made. The committee urged better training for teachers in the selection of school text books. In addition a

Central Advisory Conference was suggested with a remit to advise on the supply, quality and content of books for schools.

One year course consisting exclusively of professional studies and practice to students possessing only a Higher School Certificate were approved by the Board of Education in 1925. Further the view of the Departmental Committee that training college courses should be organised to produce effective teachers was agreed by the Board of Education in 1925.

The importance of practical subjects in the school curriculum was stressed. This aspect was particularly important in the period 1929 to 1930 when there was the expectation that the school leaving age would be raised.

The new library was built at the west end of the college during 1929. Alas there was no money available to pay for the purchase of books for the library. As a result the library was not opened until 1931.

In 1926 the British and Foreign School Society provided Borough Road College with a special grant of £4500. The monies were to be used to provide college facilities with standards suitable for the students undertaking university degree work. Also some of the grant would be used to deal with the recommendations made by the HMIs in their inspection of the college in 1925.

The grant was spent on the re-equipment of the chemistry and physics laboratories, the installation of electric light and the improvement of heating facilities. In addition the student's living quarters and tutor's quarters were made more comfortable, the dining hall was redecorated and the galley extended so that an orchestra could be accommodated there. Unfortunately there was not enough money left in order to improving the sleeping accommodation for the students or the provision of a well equipped library.

The inspectors attended classes in each of the subject areas taught at the college in order to ascertain that the standard of teaching was acceptable. In Geography the instruction was shared by two tutors whose main responsibility lay with other subjects. The teaching was well informed; it also had the merits of careful preparation and interesting delivery. The method, however, was rather too discursive and they often lacked a solid core of fundamental value. The mapping work, which was done by the

students, was distinctly good and very much better than the written exercises, which might have received more thoughtful attention. [Ministry of Education 1926 p.10]

A departmental committee was established in 1925 in order to review the arrangements for the training of teachers who were to work in public elementary schools. This committee was chaired by Vincent Burnham (Report of the Departmental Committee on the Training of Teachers for Public Elementary Schools, 1925).

Its terms of reference were:

‘To review the arrangements for the training of teachers for Public Elementary Schools, and to consider what changes, if any, in the organisation or finance of the existing system are desirable in order that a supply of well qualified teachers adjustable to the demands of the schools may be secured, regard being had to:

(a) the economy of public funds

(b) the attractions offered to young persons by the teaching profession as compared with other professions and occupations

(c) the facilities afforded by Secondary Schools and Universities for acquiring academic qualifications’.

The Burnham Report stated that the training needs of potential teachers in elementary and secondary schools were different. There was a view that teacher training colleges should concentrate on professional training exclusively and only have the students for two years.

The committee was only concerned with the difference between elementary and secondary schools in terms of their administrative procedures. It recommended that students trained in the universities to become school teachers should take a period of four years to complete their course. On the other hand the students in teacher training colleges should complete their course in two years.

The second principal of the London Day Training College was Sir Percy Thomas Nunn who took his position in 1922. He was a scientist and philosopher who had a very keen interest in education. Indeed he wrote books on a range of scientific subjects as well as aspects of education (Nunn 1920). In particular he was interested in the processes of learning and the

principles of the teaching method. He described the processes of learning as involving three steps, namely wonder, utility and system (Curtis and Boulwood 1970 p. 255). These stages could be roughly collated with the ages of the pupils.

However the committee strongly recommended a closer relationship between the universities and the colleges. The committee suggested that a special examination for the total number of training college students should be under the auspices of the universities. Prior to the publishing of this committee report, the examination had been under the control of the Board of Education.

Furthermore a pass at these examinations should give the student qualified teacher status. The departmental committee felt that contact with the universities would help to improve academic standards within the teacher training colleges and also give these colleges some measure of autonomy. By this means the teacher training colleges would gain greater freedom to develop their curricula and examinations which hitherto had been strictly controlled by the Board of Education (Quoted in Maclure 1868 p.178).

The Burnham Committee proposed that joint examining boards should be established for groups of colleges in association with universities. The Board of Education agreed to this proposal and nine regional joint boards and one central advisory board were formed. The function of the central advisory board was to supervise the standards adopted by the regional boards. It was envisaged that students would be examined by panels of examiners from the colleges who would act as internal examiners and members of the universities would act as the external examiners. By 1929 these joint examining boards had been established.

In the report it was suggested that a university might co-operate with a two year training college by holding a special examination for the whole of the training college students. Special syllabi of work could be arranged between the college and the university provided that the Board agreed. The examination of these syllabi could be accepted in place of the final examinations for the certificate course. The joint boards would issue to the certificates which were confirmed by the Board of Education. It was felt that such an arrangement could help to give the colleges some measure of autonomy for their courses.

Unfortunately the teacher profession was not at all happy with this situation. The teacher training colleges felt that the committee's proposal had not given them sufficient autonomy. Links with the universities were somewhat remote since they were only involved in moderating the work of the students.

The Burnham Committee considered that there should be a core of academic studies for all trainees aiming to teach in rural schools. This core of subjects was to include English, Geography, History, Mathematics and Science. It was also recommended that attention should be paid to a number of practical subjects including drawing, gardening, handicrafts and music (Dent 1975 p. 102).

Finally the committee hoped that there would be greater equivalence between the qualifications obtained by teachers coming from the universities and the teachers coming from the training colleges. In order to achieve this equivalence it was suggested that the teacher training colleges should be integrated with their local university and all teaching qualifications would be awarded by the relevant university.

In 1928 the Hadow Committee considered the role of books in public elementary schools over the period 1810 – 1820s. The current supply of books was considered in terms of volume, quality and character in relation to the various subject areas taught in the schools.

In 1928 a scheme was introduced into Borough Road College whereby every student on the teacher training course would take a three-year course under the framework of the newly created University of London Training Colleges Delegacy. Under this scheme each student entered the College with matriculation as a minimum qualification pursued professional studies whilst reading for Intermediate Arts or Science during the first year and sat for the Intermediate examination at the end of that year. The students who passed the Intermediate examination remained in the College for another two years, continuing with professional studies and academic studies. The Certificate examination in professional studies only was taken at the end of the second year and the final Degree examinations at the end of the third year (Hamilton 1958 p.13).

The students who failed at the Intermediate level abandoned the Degree course and at the end of the second year took the full Certificate examination (in both professional and academic subjects) and then left college.

In 1928 women were given the vote and very soon female teachers demanded equal pay with their male colleagues. In 1928 almost all female teachers were unmarried. Since at this time there was substantial unemployment most local education authorities operated a policy of giving female teachers notice as soon as they were married. This decision was made on the assumption that the husband should support the married female. The Burnham Report stated that the training needs of potential teachers in elementary and secondary schools were different. There was a view that teacher training colleges should concentrate on professional training exclusively and only have the students for two years.

The committee was only concerned with the difference between elementary and secondary schools in terms of their administrative procedures. It recommended that students trained in the universities to become school teachers should take a period of four years to complete their course. On the other hand the teacher training colleges should complete their course in two years.

Further the committee strongly recommended a closer relationship between the universities and the colleges. The committee suggested that a special examination for the total number of training college students should be under the auspices of the universities. Prior to the publishing of this committee report, the examination had been under the control of the Board of Education.

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central advisory board were formed. The function of the central advisory board was to supervise the standards adopted by the regional boards. It was envisaged that students would be examined by panels of examiners from the colleges who acted as internal examiners and members of the universities acting as external examiners. This recommendation was accepted by the Board of Education and by 1929 the Joint Boards had been established.

In the report it was suggested that a university might co-operate with a two year training college by holding a special examination for the whole of the training college students. Special syllabi of work could be arranged between the college and the university provided that the Board of Education agreed. The examination of these syllabi could be accepted in place of the final examinations for the certificate course. It was felt that such an arrangement could help to give the colleges some measure of autonomy for their courses.

Unfortunately the teaching profession was not at all happy with this situation. The teacher training colleges felt that the committee's proposal had not given them sufficient autonomy. Links with the universities were somewhat remote since they were only involved in moderating the work of the students.

In 1928 the Board of Education published *The New Prospect in Education*. This report kept the idea of a differentiation between primary and secondary education alive. Local education authorities prepared schemes for provision of education for pupils aged eleven and above using the template of the Hadow Report.

From 1928 it became college policy, with the agreement of the new Delegacy, for students to enter Borough Road College with matriculation qualifications to take the three year degree course. In the first year the students took Inter. BA or BSc, which was followed by the second year of professional part of the Teacher's Certificate. In the third year the final degree examinations should be taken. Those students who failed the Inter. Examinations at the end of the first year, would take the full Teacher's Certificate examination and leave the college after the completion of their second year studies.

The Delegacy scheme operated from 1929. For Borough Road College this new scheme had less impact than other teacher training colleges since the

college had a significant number of students taking the degree course. However the degree students still had to take the practical element of the Certificate course.

The importance of practical subjects in the school curriculum was stressed. This aspect was particularly important in the period 1929 to 1930 when there was the expectation that the school leaving age would be raised.

The 1930s

In 1929 government indicated that the school leaving age would rise from fourteen to fifteen years on 1st April 1931. As a result it was obvious that many more school teachers would be required. In the two years before the rise in the school leaving age was implemented a massive recruitment drive was required to get more teachers trained. The Board of Education requested the training colleges to take many more students during the sessions 1929/1930 and 1930/1931. Indeed the teacher training colleges replied by taking many more students in both academic sessions.

In the early 1930s the country went into depression and the financial state of the country created problems. It became necessary to curb expenditure and education had to take its share. In particular 50% of the building grant was withdrawn, teachers' salaries were cut back and other economies needed to be effected. Luckily the slump declined in 1933 and there was a gradual upturn in the economy of the country.

Early in the 1930s there were allegations suggesting that the government was spending too much money on education. As a result of these accusations the government appointed a Committee on National Expenditure chaired by Lord May.

In the summer of 1930 new Physics and Chemistry laboratories were added to the college's buildings. The reason for these new laboratories was the increased amount of degree standard work being undertaken in the Borough Road College (Hamilton 1958 p.10).

The old physics laboratory in the main building was changes into a music room with an oak floor. This music room was large enough for college concerts and lectures for groups of students (Bartle 1976 p.74).

The Board of Education anticipated that government would cut its income so issued a warning to the teacher training colleges stating:

'the prospects of early employment for the additional students accepted in 1929 and 1930 might not.... be....so favourable as they would have been had the bill become law'

[Board of Education 1931 p. 47]

Its remit was to consider allegations that the government was being extravagant with public monies. The report calculated that for the period 1932/1933 there would be a 120 million pound deficit in its accounts. As a result there needed to be a retrenchment of public expenditure. The report proposed wage cuts for the police, teachers and pre-1925 entrants to the armed forces and also financial cuts in other public service departments.

In December 1931 the President of the Board of Education introduced a bill about giving aid to voluntary schools using public funds. This bill called the Education (School Attendance) Bill was withdrawn as it met much opposition.

The following year a revised version of the bill was introduced. This time the bill passed a second reading but did not complete its passage through parliament in the session. The LEAs made it abundantly clear that they would not give more aid to voluntary schools until they had control over them. Once again the President of the Board of Education represented the bill but without any mention of financial aid. This bill was passed but only with a proviso that it should not come into operation until another act had been passed authorising building grants to voluntary schools. Unfortunately the House of Lords rejected the bill and the President of the Board of Education resigned the following month.

In 1931 the Board of Education stated that a 10% cut in student numbers in the teacher training institutions had to be made. This statement meant that each teacher training institution would have less income from student fees.

For Borough Road College this reduction in income caused problems. Existing finances were already earmarked for the provision of new buildings at Stockwell College in Bromley. Hence the British and Foreign School Society informed the College Committee that there would not be any further capital for Borough Road College for some time.

After the arrival of Principal Hamilton at Borough Road College in 1932 the new library was built at the west end of the main building. The cost of this new extension was given by ex-students of the college. Alas the library could not be properly fitted with books until monies had been received from donations and further OB's subscriptions. Hence it took two years to raise sufficient funds to equip the library. In fact the college borrowed four hundred pounds, interest free from the British and Foreign School Society,

which would be repaid in 1936 (B's Hum 1939 p.9). The library opened in 1931.

The Board of Education advised the teacher training colleges to leave vacancies unfilled and accept any withdrawals. Unfortunately economies could not be achieved by this suggestion as there were few vacancies and few withdrawals. Indeed the 1931 intake greatly exceeded that in the 1928 values. The Board of Education issued a further statement stating that the 1932 intake figure should not exceed the 1928 figure. Domestic subjects and handicrafts were excluded from these figures. Later the Board of Education stated that the entry figure in 1933 must not exceed 90% of the 1931 figure with the same two subjects exempted.

Obviously the cuts would cause severe financial problems for small teacher training colleges. The Board of Education realised this situation so a consultation was held with teacher training college authorities and came to the conclusion that least harm would be done if a few colleges were closed. Three female and one male teacher training colleges were named for closure. However there were protests and the Board of Education was persuaded to retract the proposal.

In 1931 a report entitled '*The Primary School*' was published. The committee had been influenced by the ideas of Jean Piaget. In the report the committee members stated that the style of teaching should be based on the interests of the children.

In 1932 the London Day Training College became part of the University of London and formed its Institute of Education. Sir Percy Thomas Nunn was made its Director and served in that capacity until 1936.

The 1932 annual report of the British and Foreign School Society stated:

'It will be many years before the Society will be able to spare further capital sums to Borough Road'.

[BFSS Annual Report 1932]

However the Society agreed to spend fifteen thousand pounds on the construction of a new three-storey block to the west of the main building. The new building was to provide students' studies, flats for lecturers and various improvements in the dormitories (Hamilton 1958 p.10).

Principal Hamilton had good support from two ex-students namely Mr Ballard and Sir John Bagley, both of whom had experienced the poor surroundings and facilities for the Borough Road students in the past. Sir John Bagley provided one thousand pounds towards improved accommodation (Bartle 1976 p.81). The two ex-students supported Principal Hamilton in his endeavours to persuade the British and Foreign School Society to approve plans for the construction of a new block to the west of the main building (Hamilton 1958 p.11). The erection of a Student Union Club was to be placed adjacent to the Speech Room and the gymnasium.

The new Study Block, later renamed the Thirties Block, was linked to the main building by a bridge commonly known as the *Bridge of Sighs*. When completed the New Study Block contained studies on three floors with accommodation for eighty-six students and three tutors. First year students shared double studies and students of other years had single study rooms. Unfortunately the new block was only partially successful in solving the accommodation problem since there was a very rapid rise in student numbers after the war. Two or more students had to be accommodated in each study (Bartle 1976 p.81).

Borough Road College had undergone considerable changes since the HMI Inspection in 1925. The library, a memorial room and laboratories had been added. A large common room for the students having a carpet floor covering and furnished with easy chairs was provided for relaxation.

In 1936 the Board of Education issued a handbook entitled *Suggestions for the Planning of Buildings for Public Elementary Schools*. The handbook stated basic principles for the planning of new schools to the type of school. The school building should take into account the type of pupils to inhabit its buildings and plan the external and internal features of the buildings. The internal decoration of the building needed to provide a pleasant environment for the teaching of the pupils. In the handbook it was stated that craft rooms would need to be provided for both primary and secondary schools.

An annex to the gymnasium was added in 1936 with monies provided by an ex-student of the college. The annex comprised showers and changing rooms and a recreation room for billiards and other indoor games on the upper floor. This annex was made possible by a generous contribution of one thousand pounds by the ex-student Sir John Bayley. The students also

contributed seven hundred pounds accumulated by their Union Society. The remaining contribution totaling one thousand and three hundred pounds was contributed by the British and Foreign School Society (Hamilton 1958 p.11). In 1937 another new building appeared on the site. This building provided accommodation for seventy-one students and three visiting lecturers.

In 1937 the possibility of closing more teacher training colleges was raised again. The Church of England Board of Supervision took a decision to volunteer to close four of its colleges altogether (three female and one male). The male college managed to persuade the Church of England Board of Supervision to let it continue to function as a teacher training institution.

In 1937 a blow hit Borough Road College when the Training College Delegacy regulations only allowed students possessing the Inter BA or BSc (Higher School Certificate equivalent) before entering college to study for a degree (Hamilton 1958 p, 14). Prior to Principal Hamilton's arrival all students were entered for degree courses. The new regulations resulted in only a small number of students taking a degree course or staying in college for a third year. The majority of students took the two year certificate course. However Principal Hamilton was determined that degree courses should continue at Borough Road College even though the college timetable would need substantial alteration in order to accommodate both degree and certificate courses.

In 1938 the Joint Standing Committee of the Training College Association and Council of Principals published a report entitled *The Training of Teachers*. The following year saw another report entitled *The Training of Teachers and Grants for Intending Teachers* was published. Both these reports expressed some of the concerns felt by the members of the teaching profession. In addition the reports articulated some principles which had to be implemented so that teacher training could be improved and developed. In particular it was considered that the current two years of training to become a teacher was insufficient and further years of training would be required so that the quality of the teachers could be improved. As a result the education of the pupils in the schools would be enhanced. A three year course was suggested so that time could be spent by the student thinking and reflecting on all aspects of their course.

Finally the committee hoped that there would be greater equivalence between the qualifications obtained by teachers coming from the universities

and the teachers coming from the training colleges. In order to achieve this equivalence it was suggested that the teacher training colleges should be integrated with their local university and all teaching qualifications would be awarded by the relevant university.

In 1939 the Joint Standing Committee of the Training College Association and published a report entitled *The Training of Teachers* which made comments and recommendations for teacher training.

The present time is marked by great activity of thinking and experiment amongst those engaged in the training of teachers. The growth of liberal ideas of education has been reflected in the training centres....in most to a marked extent. In particular recognition of the need for continual experiment and development in educational practice and theory has long ago demolished the idea that the business of Training Colleges was to provide a ready-made, stereotyped training in class management and method'.

[Joint Standing Committee of the Training College Association and the Council of Principals 1939 p. i-ii).

In the memorandum the reasons for lengthening the teacher training course to three years were summarised at the end of the document. Six major points were articulated as show below:

1. changing conception of elementary education
2. over-crowded curriculum
3. advancing standards in individual subjects
4. need for training in education as a social service
5. need for full participation in the college's social and intellectual life
6. consequent over-pressure upon the students

[Joint Standing Committee of the Training College Association with the Council of Principals 1939 p.67 – 70]

During Principal Hamilton's era great attempts we made to improve the quality of life in Borough Road College. A range of clubs and societies were active ranging from those interested in different sports to more academically orientated societies. A debating society, a rambling society (later to become a geographic society), philosophical discussions groups and education lectures given by prominent guests flourished. At Easter 1939 Principal

Hamilton and two other academic members of staff took a small party of students on a vacation tour of Brittany (Bartle 1976 p.81).

1938 the Board of Education published the Spens Report, which had made a study of secondary education. The title of the report was *Secondary Education with special reference to grammar schools and technical high schools*. The report's terms of reference were:

'To consider and report upon the organisation and inter-relation of schools, other than those administered under the Elementary Code, which provided education for pupils beyond the age of eleven+; regard being had in particular to the framework and content of the education of pupils who do not remain at school beyond the age of about 16'.

[Spens Report 1938 (reprinted 1939) p.iv]

The committee took five years in order to meet its terms of reference. The report of the committee discussed the possibility of multilateral schools, in which all types of secondary would be undertaken together. These multilateral schools later became known as comprehensive schools.

The Spens Report outlined the multilateral school stating that this type of school provided a good general education for all pupils over the age of 11+.

'a typical school of the present day is to be regarded as not merely a place of learning but as a social unit or society....deliberately created and maintained as a means of bringing to bear upon the young formative influences deemed to be of high importance for their own development or for continued wellbeing of the community'.

[Spens Report 1938 p.291]

In the Spens Report the subjects taught in the grammar and technical high schools were reviewed. Geography was stated to be a link subject between the sciences and the humanities (Spens Report 1938 p.174).

Further in the Spens Report surveys both general of the surrounding area and the intensive survey of a small area should be a feature of much teaching in Geography and History. It was stated that survey work *'should enable the teacher to present Geography as the mark left on the face of the earth by nature and by man'* (Spens Report 1938 p.193). Furthermore pupils should be taught to observe and to record accurately, using the 6 inch [15cm] map,

of which tracings could be made for working purposes. From the survey material the teacher would also draw concrete examples to illustrate general laws and movements, and to show the development from the older country life and systems of agriculture to the present time. Such material could be collated with historical data.

In 1939 the Board of Education regarded the future of the teacher training colleges to be aligned colleges to be aligned colleges to be aligned with the universities. Hence the Board of Education started to close some of the small colleges. This action started a major reassessment of educational provision of higher education in the country.

The minimum age for leaving secondary school was due to rise to fifteen years on 1st September 1939. Unfortunately was broke out two days later and immediately educational chaos ensued. The government decided that children of school age should be evacuated from densely populated urban areas due to fear that bombing would be concentrated in these areas.

Prior to the start of the Second World War in 1939 planning for post-war reform of the educational system was considered. Within a few months of war being declared in November 1939 the government sought to address a potential problem of young people being exploited. The government formed the Service of Youth in attempt to provide physical and cultural facilities for young people in their leisure hours. The Board of Education's ideas were reported in Circular 1486 which bore the title *In the Service of Youth* and were published in 1939.

The Circular was introduced with the following words:

'The social and physical development of boys and girls between the ages of 14 and 20, who have ceased full-time education, has for long been neglected in this country. In spite of the efforts of local education authorities and voluntary organisations, provision has always fallen short of the need and today considerably less than half of these boys and girls belong to any organisation. In some parts of the country, clubs and other facilities for social and physical recreation are almost non-existent. War emphasises this defect in our social services; today the black-out, the strain of war and the disorganisation of family life have created conditions which constitute a serious menace to youth. The Government is determined to prevent the

recurrence during this war of the social problem which arose during the last'

[Board of Education 1939 Circular 1486 1939, paragraph 1]

In the circular the Board of Education took responsibility for youth welfare. A National Youth Committee was established to advise the President of the Board of Education (Board of Education 1939 Circular 1486 paragraph 2). Further a special branch of the Board of Education was organised with a remit to administer grants for maintenance and development facilities.

The Service of Youth was intended to be a partnership between statutory and voluntary bodies. However before the Service of Youth got firmly established it was discovered that the Board of Education was considering radical reforms on a large scale.

The Second World War was predicted sometime before it actually started. In preparation for the outbreak of war the government needed to recruit many more people for its armed forces. The Military Training Act was passed on 26th May 1939. The act required all men aged twenty or twenty-one years had to register for six months of military training.

The National Service (Armed Forces) Act was passed on 3rd September 1939 which coincided with the outbreak of the Second World War. Men aged eighteen to forty-one years of age were made liable to conscription. Each person had to register in accordance with dates selected by parliament. In October of the same year men aged twenty to twenty-three years had to register to serve in one of the armed forces, namely the army, navy or air force.

Certain occupations exempted men from joining the forces. These people worked in a range of essential services including the utilities (gas, electricity and water), railway workers, miners, farmers, merchant seamen, dock workers and scientists. All these occupations were considered vital to the smooth running of the country.

Finally the committee hoped that there would be greater equivalence between the qualifications obtained by teachers coming from the universities and the teachers coming from the training colleges. In order to achieve this equivalence it was suggested that the teacher training colleges should be

integrated with their local university and all teaching qualifications would be awarded by the relevant university.

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As war appeared to be imminent the authorities of St Marks and St John Teacher Training College in Chelsea asked whether their second year students could be accommodated at Borough Road College. These students were lodged at Borough Road for the academic session 1939 – 1940. The following year these students were moved to Cheltenham since the impact of war was making London vulnerable (Bartle 1976 p.82)

The 1940s

Initially many men volunteered for war service and conscription was limited. Due to the casualties during the war government needed to reduce the age of conscription in order to maintain an adequate number of men in the forces. In addition some students from other teacher training colleges came to continue their studies at Borough Road College.

At the outbreak of war in 1939 the number of students at Borough Road College had dropped to 115. The college authorities did not consider this number to be adequate for financial reasons. Hence it strove to increase its numbers by inviting applications from private students seeking a degree qualification without the teacher training element. The college was able to make this proposal a reality as it had been teaching students for external London University degrees for over fifty years. Such students would pay their own fees.

During the war years the able-bodied men of the country had been mobilised into the forces. Women, including married women, were recruited into the teaching profession to fill the gap left from the male teachers.

At the end of the 1939/1940 session the students of St Mark and St John moved to Cheltenham from their temporary base in Borough Road College (Bartle 1976 p. 82). At this point in time the future of the college became an issue again. During 1940 Principal Hamilton wrote a large number of letters to a number of principals of other London colleges stating that any of their students wanting to stay in London could be accommodated at Borough Road College.

The start of the 1940s saw Great Britain involved in the Second World War. Physically fit men were conscripted to serve in one of the armed forces unless exempted by having a reserved occupation. Certain occupations exempted men from joining the forces. These people worked in a range of essential services including the utilities (gas, electricity and water), railway workers, miners, farmers, merchant seamen, dock workers and scientists. All these occupations were considered vital to the smooth running of the country.

The number of trained and trainee male school teachers was reduced as they became conscripted for the war effort. Hence it soon became apparent that

the work force in the country was short of labour as most able-bodied men had volunteered or been conscripted for the armed forces. Due to the loss of many men, women were recruited to take their places in a wide range of occupations including the manufacture of ammunition for the armed forces.

However many teacher training colleges had to consider their position as many male students volunteered for service in the armed forces and their financial situation became very difficult. For each training college it was essential to discover the likelihood of experiencing bombing due to their location in or near an important city, industrial areas or other facilities likely to be of interest to the Germans. Borough Road College was assumed to be relatively unlikely to be a target for a German attack. The early part of the 1940s decade was dominated by the Second World War. One of the first problems of the war facing the British and Foreign School Society was the future of its colleges. Initially it was thought that the students at Borough Road College would immediately be called up as the college was sited near London. Fortunately the students were unaffected by the 1939 National Service Act for some time. The student body was relieved that their courses could continue.

Principal Hamilton secured the deferment of call-ups for the students with the proviso that each student joined one of the emergency services such as the Home Guard or the Fire Service.

Later married women were also directed into civilian work which was relevant to the war effort. Exemptions from this act were pregnant women and women with small children. Men considered unfit to undertake front line service in the forces became members of the Home Guard.

The number of trained and trainee male school teachers was reduced as they were conscripted for the war effort. As a result during the war many children received part-time education (Turner J pers. comm.). Also some children did not start full-time school until they were six years of age (Turner J pers. comm).

At Borough Road College the students were involved in a range of activities in support of the war effort. A branch of the University Air Squadron was founded for students wishing to serve in the Royal Air Force at a later date.

Secondly a branch of the Home Guard was formed at the college. Guard duties took place every night in order to ensure that the college's small stock of rifles and ammunition was available should an invasion take place.

In addition to these two organisations the college was asked if it could provide stretcher bearers for the Hounslow Hospital. The students stayed overnight at the hospital willing to help should an emergency arise.

On campus students undertook stoking the college's boilers in cold weather as the college person responsible for this work had been conscripted into the forces. In addition there were other tasks which the students undertook around campus as requested.

The Borough Road College authorities spent three hundred pounds on air-raid shelters since there were a considerable number of persons on the college site. The air-raid shelters were sited behind the New Study Block. On the evening of 22nd September 1940 three H. E. bombs landed on the college grounds breaking some windows and damaging the physics laboratory (Bartle 1976 p.82). Luckily no one was injured or died.

On the night of the bombs the students were sleeping in the lower corridor of the main building and not in the shelters. In 1957 the Principal's wife, Mrs Hamilton, wrote an article for the college's B's Hum magazine concerning the night the bombs hit the grounds of the college. The students were sleeping in the lower corridor but were moved to the Memorial Room as soon as possible. The Principal and his wife slept in the Memorial Room and on this occasion they were accompanied by over twenty students who slept on the floor on mattresses (B's Hum 1957 p.10). Reminiscences from several students, who were resident in the college during the war, are given in Appendix 13.

On 24th September 1940 the offices of the British Foreign School Society in Temple Chambers in London were destroyed by incendiary bombs. As a result of this bombing many valuable documents, books, pictures and photographs relating to the Society Borough Road College were lost (Bartle 1976 p.82).

In 1940 the Board of Education issued Circular 1516 which was entitled '*The Challenge of Youth*'. The circular attempted '*to give some guidance the general aims and purpose of the work*' of the youth service and '*to find, in*

them any and varied types of facilities provided, some common element, which will serve as a foundation for this new national movement'. The general aim was to be found in 'the social and physical training which links all youth organisations to one another and the schools'

The business of the youth service was to provide *'appropriate means of bringing the child into a right and normal relation with his fellows and of developing bodily fitness through games and recreation'*. The Board of Education thought that the time of the child spent in elementary schooling was inadequate to complete the process. It needed to be continued through the adolescent period of a young person's life. It was appreciated that time available for young persons to participate in such leisure activities outside school hours was very limited. Alas no solution to the problem was articulated in the circular.

Planning for the aftermath of the Second World War started in 1941. In that year the Board of Education published a document entitled *Education after the War*, which was soon known as the *'Green Book'* as its cover was green in colour. The *'Green Book'* gave a detailed analysis of the educational system, its situation and proposed that the system needed reform and made suggestions for achieving it. This book was sent to a number of organisations for their comment in confidence. Its intention was to collect the opinions of educationalists on such subjects as the raising the school leaving age, the abolition of secondary school fees, the recruitment and training of teachers and a number of other problems.

In the Green Book was the following statement:

'The need to review the methods of recruiting to and training for the teaching profession, especially in the light of any decisions that may be taken as to the general framework of post-war education'.

[Education after the War 1941 p.1]

In the document the Board of Education outlined its plans for post-war education. This document was very thorough and discussed the recruitment and training of teachers in chapter 7 and teacher salaries in chapter 10 (Green Book 1941). An increase in the duration of the Teacher's Certificate course by one year would improve the quality and knowledge of the teacher. The document made it very clear that there should be a more uniform system of pay for teachers (paragraphs 152 and 153 of the Green Book document).

Many of the organisations sent the document returned their comments on the Green Book to the Board of Education. At the same time they informed the press of its contents and their comments on them. The vast majority of organisations were found to be much in favour of substantial educational reform. As members of general public heard about the Green Book it became apparent that there was a need for the Board of Education to publish their proposals to a much larger audience.

In the document entitled *Education after the War* it was proposed that the current differentiation between elementary and secondary education should be abolished. Instead there should be three stages, known as primary, secondary and further education.

In October 1941 the Board of Education gave details of the subjects and questions which were covered in their document. The questions were wide ranging and covered most aspects of educational provision for children and young persons.

List of subjects and Questions Covered

1. The raising of the school-leaving age. Should there be exceptions after fourteen as contemplated by the Education Act 1936?
2. The need for re-defining elementary education. Should the appropriate division of full-time education be primary up to the age of 11 and secondary thereafter?
3. Such a redefinition would give rise to the following questions:
 - a. Would the retention of separate local Education Authorities for elementary (i.e. primary) education be justified?
 - b. Would it be possible to make the provision of secondary education a duty and not a power as at present?
 - c. Should all schools at the secondary stage be administered under one Code of Regulations and be free?
4. The need to review the method of the distribution of children at 11 to the different types of secondary schools. Should there be a further review and redistribution at the age of 13?
5. The contribution that might be made:
 - a. to maintaining the mental alertness and physical welfare of the young person;

- b. to the development of their vocational training related to their employment;
 - c. the development of their social and recreational interests by a system of part-time day continuation schools up to the age of 18 following full-time schooling.
- 6. The relation of the Youth Service to any such development in order to build up a complete system covering the social, physical, and educational welfare of adolescents.
- 7. The need for an improved and extended system on technical, commercial, and art training, and for establishing closer relations between education and industry and commerce.
- 8. The establishment, in order to secure quality of opportunity, of a unified system of aid to enable students to proceed to the universities.
- 9. With a view to making the school medical services fully effective:
 - a. Should local education authorities be under an obligation to provide for the treatment for certain specific defects in the case of children in both primary and secondary schools?
 - b. Should the responsibility of local education authorities, hitherto confined to children attending schools, be extended to include all children, say, from the age of 2, through the provision of nursery schools and nursery classes?
 - c. Is further provision desirable for handicapped and maladjusted children?
 - d. Should an obligation be laid on the local education authorities to make or otherwise secure the provision of meals and milk for all children for whom such provision is necessary in order that they may derive full benefit from their education?
- 10. The need to review how the methods of recruiting to and training for the teaching profession, especially in the light of any decision that may be taken as to the general framework of post-war education.
- 11. The question how the dual system can be adapted to a reformed system.

In 1941 Sir Cyril Norwood was appointed by the President of the Board of Education and he was asked to prepare a report on curricula and examinations in secondary schools. This report, known as the Norwood Report, was published in 1943. It was very comprehensive and covered the subjects included in the secondary curriculum.

Despite the war government was determined to forward initiatives for in 1941 the Board of Education changed the call-up age of young men from twenty to nineteen years. The decision was taken as the number of deaths from serving forces personnel was becoming somewhat serious. The Board of Education issued a statement that colleges with less than fifty students had to be closed during the war for economic reasons.

At the end of March 1941 Principal Hamilton had an interview at the Board of Education where he pressed his case for keeping Borough Road College open. Principal Hamilton felt that he needed to explain to the Board of Education why Borough Road College should be kept open during the duration of the war. The main reasons were:

1. its unique long history of training teachers;
2. its non-denominational character;
3. its high academic standards;
4. well equipped premises;
5. proximity to London.

At the meeting Principal Hamilton discovered that he was not required to plead his case. Apparently the Board of Education thought well of the college and did not want to see the college closed citing its long established age and traditions. A formal letter from the Board of Education to Principal Hamilton confirming that Borough Road College would remain open and some concessions would be made postponing the call-up for the training college students (Bartle 1976 p.83).

On 18th December 1941 the National Service Act was passed by Parliament. As a result of this act women engaged in work hitherto regarded as men's work e.g. tanks and aircraft factories, nursing, transport and other key occupations. This act required single women aged twenty to thirty to take up work in reserved occupations such as factories and farms or join auxiliary services such as the Auxiliary Territorial Service (ATC), Women's Royal Naval Service (WRNS), Women's Transport Service (WTS) or the Women's Voluntary service (RVS).

In 1942 the Admiralty wished to requisition the whole of the college buildings in order to house about eight hundred naval ratings. These ratings were undertaking training at Messrs. Fraser Nash's work on London Road in

Isleworth and they were housed around the Frazer Nash works which were located on the London Road near to Borough Road College.

The proposal to take over the whole building was resisted by the Board of Education. After discussions the Admiralty sought to have a building on the Borough Road College site for meals to be prepared and served to the naval ratings whilst their naval ratings would be billeted in houses in the local Isleworth area (Bartle 1976 p.83). A large pre-fabricated building acted as a canteen for the naval ratings. It was erected on the hockey field west of the study block. In addition a new hall having a stage for shows and other recreational activities for the naval ratings was constructed (Hamilton 1958 p.12).

In 1942 the Board of Education of established a committee under the chairmanship of Mr McNair to investigate the training and supply of teachers. For some time it was felt that the training and supply of teachers was in need of radical re-organisation starting with the nature, role and functions of the existing training colleges.

In 1943 Lord Butler appointed a committee composed of people representing different organisations associated with school teacher training to prepare a scheme for implementation of emergency teacher training. The following year the scheme was included in Circular 1652 entitled *'Emergency Recruitment and Training of Teachers'*.

In 1943 a White Paper entitled *'Educational Reconstruction'* was published. This White Paper gave details on government's proposals *'to recast the national the education service'*. The paper worked on the assumption that *'education is a continuous process conducted in successive stages'* (Introduction 1943 p.2). The process needed to start when children are below the compulsory age of five years for going to school.

The White Paper stated that it would be possible:

'to secure for children a happier childhood and a better start in life; to ensure a fuller measure of education and opportunity for young people, and to provide means for all of developing the various talents with which they are endowed and so enriching the inheritance of the country whose citizens they are'

[Educational Reconstruction White Paper 1943 p.1]

In the White Paper paragraphs 100 – 107 commented on the recruitment and training of teachers and paragraph 100 noted that the country required many more teachers of the right calibre. It was necessary for the teachers to be able to maintain high academic standards. Reference was made to the McNair Committee, which was concerned with the supply and training of teachers for the future and awaited their recommendations with interest.

The Educational Reconstruction report stated that plans had to be laid to secure that the profession represented *'a cross-section of the interests and experiences of society at large'*.

[Educational Reconstruction White Paper 1943 paragraph 103 p.26]

Spens Report outlined the multilateral school stating that this type of school provided a good general education for all pupils over the age of The 11+.

'a typical school of the present day is to be regarded as not merely a place of learning but as a social unit or society....deliberately created and maintained as a means of bringing to bear upon the young formative influences deemed to be of high importance for their own development or for continued wellbeing of the community'.

[Spens Report 1943 Chapter IV p. 147].

The Board of Education then engaged in consultation with a wide range of organisations interested in the reform of the educational system. Two major issues surfaced before the proposed reforms were articulated in the form of a White Paper. These issues were to be discussed and negotiations held prior to the publication of the White Paper. The issues were firstly the position of the voluntary schools and secondly the replacement of the Part 111 authorities by district committees.

The Norwood Report, which was published in 1943, was entitled *'Curriculum and Examinations in Secondary Schools'*. It was prepared by the Committee of the Secondary Schools Examinations Council and considered in detail the recognition, supply and training of teachers for primary schools, secondary schools and further education colleges and for leaders for the Service of Youth.

The report was comprehensive and surveyed the range of secondary schools. In particular reforms in the educational system including the raising of the

school leaving age, expansion of nursery education, reduction in the size of classes and compulsory part-time education beyond the school leaving age were examined in depth.

There were a number of recommendations proposed in the Norwood Report including:

1. to have parity of staffing and staff treatment between the different types of secondary schools;
2. to introduce courses based on pupils' vocational interests in the later stages of their school life;
3. to introduce a tutorial system;
4. to appoint careers masters;
5. to review the curricula of various types of secondary schools;
6. to review the role of the School Certificate Examination; the school leaving age to sixteen years;
7. to limit the proportion of pupils going to grammar schools to a maximum of 15%;
8. to establish a new type of higher school of technical character which would be distinct from the traditional grammar school.

The report accepted the premise that secondary education follows the completion of the primary stage by a pupil. At secondary level the school should be able to provide for the special interests and aptitudes of each pupil by offering the appropriate kind of education. To this end the committee suggested that three groups of pupils could be identified at the age of eleven years. Hence pupils would transfer to grammar, technical or modern schools as appropriate i.e. secondary schools became part of a tripartite system. In each type of school it was envisaged that all pupils would follow the same curriculum for the first two years of secondary education were considered to be diagnostic. However at thirteen years of age it would be possible to transfer a pupil to another type of school if his/her needs would be better in a new school environment.

The Norwood Report gave careful consideration to the examinations taken by pupils in schools. It recommended that the School Certificate should be terminated and replaced by a subject examination as an interim step toward internal examinations being run internally in schools. Examination Boards were to be established and they would be assisted by teachers. In addition

the committee recommended a school-leaving examination at eighteen years which could be used for university entrance and professional qualifications.

It is interesting to note that the committee also recommended continued part-time education for pupils who left school at sixteen years of age. For pupils proceeding to university the committee recommended a six month break so that the pupil could engage in voluntary work between leaving school and starting university.

The suggestion that pupils should take six months of voluntary work prior to continuing their studies at university in October of the year necessitated the timing of the final year school examinations for eighteen year old pupils is altered. It was recommended that these examinations should be held in March of their last year at school. Effectively the sixteen to eighteen year curricula would be extended over five terms only. Scholarships for pupils proceeding to university education were also articulated.

The primary function of the secondary school was to provide an educational experience which would prepare the pupil for work in industry or commerce at the leaving age of sixteen years. In addition it was hoped that the schools could also provide facilities to continue the education of some pupils from the age of sixteen and eighteen years.

The secondary modern school would provide a general education for the majority of the boys and girls to the school leaving age of sixteen years. The curricula of the schools would be relevant to the interests and environment in which the pupils lived. The technical school would aim to educate pupils so that they could gain work in occupations and professions where technical skills and knowledge were essential e.g. engineering.

The grammar school would provide an education for pupils who aimed to stay at school until they were eighteen years of age and were intending to have a professional career where academic qualifications were required.

The Norwood Report examined each of the subjects taught in secondary schools. Each major subject area in the school curriculum had a chapter devoted to it in the report. Geography was included in chapter 13 of the Norwood Report. This chapter started with a working definition of geography being given as *'the study of man and his environment'*. However it was recognised that other subjects including natural science, economics

and history impinged on other subjects. Furthermore a study of local conditions would necessarily involve a study of industry, agriculture, other industries and humans as they affect its environment.

In the report geography was considered to be a good school subject for study since it involved other subjects. The environment is a term which can be expanded to include all everyday experiences. Thus the very nature of Geography has the advantage of impinging on other subjects but it also has the potential to extend its compass too widely resulting in its definition becoming lost. However the Committee recommended that Geography should be a compulsory subject in the early stages of the school course as well as being included in advanced studies.

The Committee recommended the following:

'(a) the course of geography in schools might reasonably be expected to include:

- (i) the elements of physical geography;*
- (ii) studies on various scales (e.g. world, continent, region, parish);*
- (iii) training in such skills as map reading, the use of atlases and of books of reference;*
- (iv) fieldwork and first-hand knowledge of town and country and of life in town and country;*
- (v) opportunities for the study of the geographical aspects of ventures which challenge or inspire human effort as, for example, exploration, mountaineering, flying'.*

The value of field work or local survey work was strongly recommended to play a part in every geography syllabus. Above all it was suggested that field work or local survey work would provide an introduction to practical citizenship.

If geography is defined as the study of man and the environment, the subject has links to many other subjects in the school curriculum. For this reason in the report it was suggested that geography should be a compulsory subject in the early stages of the school course.

Besides outlining the rationale for the teaching of geography the report made comments about a room dedicated for the teaching of the subject. The room was to be of good size and large enough to accommodate tables rather than chairs and provide room for maps, pictures, models and other relevant equipment for illustrating specific aspects of geography.

The report also stated that geography was also a very important subject to be made available in the sixth form. Geography is a subject which can be combined with a wide range of other subjects including modern languages, history, economics, public affairs and statistics. Selected combinations of these subjects would be very suitable for pupils wanting to continue their academic studies at university.

In 1943 the National Union of Teachers published a pamphlet entitled *'Recruitment and Supply of Teachers: a short term policy for an emergency.* (The Union said that without special measures it would be impossible even to maintain the existing number of staff in the schools let alone provide for a 50% increase on the present teaching staff of 170,000.

The National Union of Teachers accepted the idea of an emergency training scheme but made several proposals including a minimum qualification for entry should be a School Certificate, or equivalent. Further the accepted candidates should do at least one month in school in order to test their attitude for teaching. The course for these prospective teachers should undergo a training of one year and should be followed by directed study for three or four years culminating in a term at least in a training college During this latter time their pay should be as Certificated Teachers but they should not be recognised until they had completed the refresher course in college.

Some of the points made by the National Union of Teachers were included in the Emergency Scheme that was finally agreed by the Board of Education.

In the pamphlet the NUT Report outlined the requirements needed for post-war reconstruction of the education service. There were two main requirements; firstly it was necessary to remedy existing defects such as large class sizes and secondly allow extensions to the education service to take place e.g. the development of nursery education

Above all it was essential to make teaching more attractive as a career. In order to achieve more teachers it would be necessary to improve the conditions of the teachers and the schools in which they taught. A number of improvements were specified in the report. In particular the status of the teaching profession needed to receive better recognition. The raising of the salary of teachers would help to retain teachers. Small class sizes would help teachers to have better working conditions for the teachers. Also the provision of better buildings and amenities for teaching would be much valued. Above all greater freedom for the individual teacher would help to enhance the learning experience for the pupils. Lastly the union sought to exclude unqualified teachers in the schools thereby raising the status of the qualified teacher (NUT Report 1943 p. 1-8).

In 1943 the Board of Education produced a scheme to provide a number of emergency training colleges to deal with the serious shortage of teachers as a result of many deaths caused by the war. The Board of Education considered that there was a severe shortage of qualified teachers and a very significant number of teachers needed to be trained. Hence a major recruitment drive was considered and the armed forces were suggested as a prime source of new teachers to the profession.

In 1943 the College of Principals merged with the Training College Association to form the Association of Training Colleges and Departments of Education (ATCDE). Over the years Mr Hambling and Mr Johnston, both lecturers at Borough Road College, were members of this merged organisation.

By late 1943 there was common agreement that a large number of new teachers were going to be required. Hence it was vital that emergency teacher training was established. Towards the end of the year Mr Butler brought the matter to parliament and made a number of proposals. A departmental committee was formed which consisted of representatives of the Board of Education, H M Inspectorate, the local education authorities, the teachers and training institutions. The committee was chaired by Mr G N Flemming, who was at that time was a member of the Board of Education. Its aim was to consider how to meet the requirements for teachers after the end of the Second World War. In addition problems likely to occur from establishing emergency teacher training and suggest a suitable course of action for its implementation were also to be considered.

In May of 1944 the ideas suggested by the Flemming Committee were published as an appendix to Circular 1652 which was entitled *Emergency Recruitment and Training of Teachers*. Action was taken immediately.

Before the end of May 1944 an advertisement appeared in the press asking for teachers willing to serve in colleges, which were to be established to train new teachers. The Flemming Committee suggested a one year intensive course of training for men and women released from war service to be followed by two years of part-time study whilst teaching. On successful completion of these three years full qualified teacher status would be granted. Such teachers would be recruited from men and women between the ages of twenty-one and thirty- five years who had served in H M Forces or were engaged in other forms of national service for at least twelve months during the war.

The whole cost of the scheme was to be supplied by national funds. The Ministry of Education was responsible for the selection of candidates, their allocation to colleges and all matters concerning grants for the course. Suitable buildings for the emergency colleges were requisitioned and then adapted as appropriate, furnished and equipped to standards approved by the Ministry of Education. The emergency colleges were run by Local Education Authorities in order to ensure uniformity between the colleges.

Academic qualifications normally required for entry to a training college would not be rigorously enforced. However an applicant was expected to produce a good background of general education and experiences to enable him/her to become worthy members of the teaching profession. In addition personal qualities would also be considered. The training would be given in special colleges together with well qualified staff and adequate equipment. The training would be free and maintenance grants to support the applicant and their dependents would be given.

The Flemming Committee established four principles to be utilised in all emergency training courses. These principles were:

1. Students must be given '*full opportunities of studying and practising methods and techniques*';
2. They should be afforded '*every facility for reading and thinking about education in the wider sense, having regard to its individual, social*

- and ethical implications, and to its setting in the general pattern of life*'.
3. Every student should take *'a course designed to ensure competent use of the English language'*.
 4. Everyone should *make 'a close study of a field or fields of knowledge chosen because of its (or their) intrinsic interest for the student as a person'*.

The staff for the emergency colleges was recruited from a great variety of educational establishments, albeit the majority came from secondary schools. Recruitment of applicants for the emergency teaching scheme began in December 1944. The initial applicants were limited to ex-servicemen and women discharged on medical grounds, men considered physically unfit for active service and women in civilian occupations ranked as war service. The emergency training scheme was designed to recruit more men than women.

The Flemming Committee suggested the following timetable for the year of study:

Preparatory Stage, including school visits	6 weeks
Main Course Part 1	4 weeks
Teaching Practice	3 weeks
Vacation	1 week
Main Course Part 11	12 weeks
Vacation	
Teaching Practice	9 weeks
Vacation	1 week
Main Course Part 111	14 weeks

The pilot emergency teacher training scheme started in September 1944 with twenty-eight trainee teachers (27 male and 1 female) at Nottingham University College. The members of staff running this pilot course were from the Training Department of Goldsmiths' College, who had been evacuated from their base in south-east London for the duration of the war. The trainee teachers were all people who had been discharged from HM Forces on medical grounds. The pilot course consisted of Professional Studies, language and number, *'Particular Studies'* and Teaching Practice. The *'Particular Studies'* meant one Main and one or two Subsidiary subjects which were to be chosen from a list of nine subjects normally taught in training colleges.

The course was originally designed to last one full calendar year of which forty-eight weeks were to be spent in academic studies and teaching practices. The course would be accessed by utilising internal tests which the staff of the college would administer and mark. In addition external scrutiny of the work of the students would be undertaken. However the Board of Education must take overall responsibility for maintaining national standards of the courses. It was important that the whole process of the assessment methods employed throughout the course should be fully documented and made available to the external assessor. The remaining four weeks of the year were holidays of a fortnight and two separate weeks.

This pattern of study was modified by most of the emergency training colleges as both the staff and students found the pace too fast. Hence the four weeks of holiday were doubled. Between courses the staff of the emergency training college was given up to seven weeks for a rest from teaching and time for planning their new cohort of students. However in January 1946 the course was lengthened from fifty-two weeks to thirteen months in order to ease the stress on the students and staff. At the end of the course the passing students were encouraged to take a long vacation in order to recoup their energies prior to starting teaching in a given school at primary or secondary level.

The course of study involved only three compulsory subjects, namely the principles and practice of education, health education and use of English. In addition each student chose their optional subject(s) with the support of tutors. The individual student chose his/her subject(s) with care and their course was then sent for approval by the Ministry of Education.

The McNair Committee made a detailed investigation into the training of teachers including a range of factors which people considered before applying to train as a teacher for primary and secondary schools. The terms of reference for the McNair Committee were:

'To investigate the present sources of supply and the methods of recruitment and training of teachers and youth leaders to report what principles should guide the Board in these matters in the future'.

[McNair Report 1944 Preface p.5]

The McNair Committee stated that it found the *'existing arrangements for the recognition, the training and the supply of teachers as chaotic and ill-adjusted even to present needs'*.

[McNair Report 1944 Chapter 2 paragraph 58 p.18]

The McNair Committee laid a number of criticisms against the teacher training colleges. Many of the existing teacher training colleges were small in size, had little in the way of physical resources, subject syllabi needed to be updated and there was a lack of discipline. Further the qualifications and the status of both the school and college teachers needed to be urgently improved.

A significant disadvantage in recruiting well qualified potential teachers was the salary of the teacher when qualified. The McNair Committee investigated the salaries of certificated teachers and compared them against clerical officers and junior executive officers. The salaries of the certified teachers were found to be the lowest of these different careers. For this reason alone suitable academically qualified people to enter teacher training college was insufficient as mature adults could get much better paid jobs outside teaching.

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Many of the teacher training colleges were considered to be too small and the students were housed badly and ill-equipped. Also it was concluded that a two year course for non-graduates was too short. In particular the McNair Committee felt that there was a fundamental weakness in the system was that the teacher training institutions were *'not related to one another in such a way as to produce a coherent training service'* (McNair Report 1944 Chapter 4 paragraph 165 p.49).

The McNair Report regretted that there was a difference in practice in the appointment of *'elementary'* teachers and *'secondary'* teachers. The report

blamed the Board of Education for two very different systems for the two types of school teacher. The difficulties became more pronounced as new reforms were implemented.

The regulations for secondary schools did not specify prescribed qualifications for these teachers. The regulations merely required that each member of the teaching staff in the secondary school should be suitable in number and qualification.

The McNair Committee felt that teacher salary scales should satisfy four tests, namely:

1. *a test of personal need: salaries should be related to the cultural levels of the people concerned. i.e. they should make possible the sort of life which teachers of the quality required ought to be enabled to live;*
2. *a market test: in order to ensure the supply of teachers of the right quality, their salaries should be comparable with those of other professionals within the profession;*
3. *a professional test: salary scales should not give rise to injustice or anomalies within the teaching profession;*
4. *an educational test: they should not have consequences which might damage the efficiency of the education provided in any particular type of school or area*

[McNair Report 1944 Chapter p.32]

The McNair Committee aimed to achieve a closer relationship between the universities and the teacher training colleges. It was hoped that the closer relationship would improve the status and quality of the staff teaching in the teacher training colleges and thereby raise the standard of their courses. In order to achieve this aim it was proposed that the salary of the staff in teacher training colleges should be increased. Further the McNair Committee recommended the extension of the teacher training course from two years to three years.

The organisation of the training of teaching was in urgent need of attention. The isolation of the training colleges was no longer acceptable. The members of the McNair Report suggested that there was an urgent need to integrate the whole service of teacher training by offering a much closer connection between the existing training colleges and the universities. The

idea of establishing a Central Training Council (CTC) and a number of Area Training Organisations (ATO) were considered.

Scheme A University Schools of Education

Scheme B The Joint Board Scheme

In both schemes the Area Training Organisations were given the responsibility for the approval of curricula and syllabi for all types of students under training. The ATO would make the final assessment of the students' work by some agreed procedure. The findings would be forwarded to the Board of Education for acceptance and recognition that the student be accepted for qualified teacher status. The Board of Education retained the right to inspect every piece of work of the ATO. There would just be one grade of teacher recognised.

The 1944 Education Act made secondary education compulsory for all pupils to the age of fifteen years. The increase in the school leaving age meant that more trained teachers were required for the secondary schools.

During the Second World War many women including married women had taught in the schools. There were two main ways in which the number of teachers could be increased. The first method was to create a number of emergency teacher training colleges. These new colleges would train teachers over a much shorter period of time than the normal length of the course. However it was recognised that such emergency trained teachers would not necessarily make as competent teachers as other trained teachers.

It was appreciated that married women who had taught during the duration of the war should be allowed to continue teaching. However they were not given the same salary as their male counterparts. Even with these married teachers and emergency trained teachers there was still a need to increase the teaching force.

In addition there was an urgent need to recruit more experienced teachers to the teacher training colleges. Hitherto the calibre of teachers seeking jobs in teacher training colleges had not been very successful for some years as their job was not seen to be a promotion step primarily because the salary was poor. As a result of the Education Act the salary scale for a lectureship in a teacher training college was improved by the Burnham Committee. This committee devised salary scales for such lectureships which initially were

Associate Lecturer, Lecturer and Senior Lecturer grades. Later the Principal Lecturer and Head of Department grades were added.

At Borough Road College the geography staffing throughout the decade was one full-time member who taught at both certificate and degree levels until 1951. Mr E.E. Sharpe MA, who was appointed in 1935, became a house tutor in 1940 in addition to his teaching duties in geography. In September 1943 Mr W.B. Edmonds took the place of Mr Sharpe who had resigned due to ill-health. However Mr Edmonds resigned at the end of the autumn term. For the remainder of the academic session geography was taught by Miss O'Sullivan and Mr H. Milson from Isleworth County School on a temporary basis. In August 1944 Miss N.E. Coad MA was appointed but she only lasted one term. Again temporary staffing was needed for the rest of the academic year. Mr McGuire BSc, a geography lecturer at St Mary's College gave temporary geography teaching cover.

The array of temporary lecturers in geography during the first part of the 1940s was in some measure due to the effects of the Second World War. However in July 1945 Mr G.B.G. Bull BA was appointed to teach geography and religious studies and it was hoped that he would be employed at Borough Road College for some years Also it was hoped that student numbers would increase and it would be possible to recruit more lecturers in geography.

The emergency teacher training scheme was included in Circular 1652 entitled *Emergency Recruitment and Training of Teachers*. The circular, made the following requirements, namely:

1. men and women between the ages of 21 and 35 years of age, who had served in HM Forces or other forms of national service for a minimum of twelve months during the war could apply for the emergency course;
2. careful selection of candidates were made before offering a place on the course;
3. colleges offering the emergency training course should have a core of full-time staff;
4. student work on the course would be assessed internal tests and the work moderated by an approved external person;
5. the teacher would have the status of probationary teacher for a period of two years during which period of time they would continue their

academic studies on a part-time basis. Their studies would be geared to their individual's personal requirements.

The majority of the contents of the White Paper were to be found in the 1944 Education Act. This act was intended to completely overhaul the statutory system of education. Mr Butler was aware that the overhaul would have to be accomplished in stages. In fact parts I and V were operative immediately but Part II was postponed until 1945.

The 1944 Education Act was one of the most important education acts of the twentieth century. Its importance extended to each individual and the nation as a whole. The individual's education affected the whole community in which he/she resided. Hitherto there had been a lack of opportunity for many children of the working class to gain much of an education. There was a real need for them to get employment and support the finances of the family home as soon as possible.

The act was passed at a time when the country was still at war. Many of the children had been evacuated from the cities to the country in the hope that they would not be exposed to the bombing which largely targeted the cities. As a result their education was disrupted. In the towns and cities the children were often put on part-time schooling due to the shortage of teachers. In the legislation of the act the nature of the society and the welfare of the children were carefully considered. In particular recommendations for the personal and academic development of the child were made.

In the 1944 Education Act the Board of Education was replaced by a Ministry of Education. The president was replaced by a Minister who had more powers than his predecessor. The Education Act required the Minister:

'to promote the education of the people of England and Wales and the progressive development of institutions devoted to the purpose, and to secure the effective execution by local authorities, under his control and direction, of the national policy for providing a varied and comprehensive educational service in every area'.

[Education Act 1944 Part1 Section 1(1) p.4]

The act made a significant number of recommendations:

1. secondary education compulsory for all pupils to the age of fifteen years;
2. the education should be free for every young person;
3. a clear division between primary and secondary schooling;
4. a tripartite system of secondary education in which three main types of schools were proposed. They were grammar schools, secondary modern schools and secondary technical schools;
5. the comprehensive school was created;
6. the 11plus examination was introduced in order to assess the type of school for pupils on transfer from primary to secondary school.
7. education for women and working class people were established. Girls could attend secondary schools. In particular pupils from working class homes continued their education directly from secondary school into higher education.
8. the Board of Education was to be renamed the Ministry of Education and given more powers;
9. the school leaving age should be raised to sixteen years in due course of time;
10. independent schools could become direct grant schools when they received finances from the Ministry of Education in exchange for offering a number of pupils free places at these schools;
11. all teachers in the schools had to be trained. In so doing the teachers became '*qualified*'. No unqualified teachers were allowed in primary or secondary schools.
12. local education authorities were given powers to provide grants for students taking a teacher training course (Section 81c).
13. a committee should be established in order to determine the salary scales for teachers and submit them for approval (Section 89);
14. consideration of the physical welfare of each pupil;
15. provision for handicapped children was to be made.

This act led to very important changes in the structure of primary education. In the first instance five to seven year old pupils were called infants and during the years seven to eleven the pupils were known as juniors. In addition rote learning was recommended to be replaced by child-centred approaches. This act led to very important changes in the structure of primary education. In the first instance five to seven year old pupils were called infants and during the years seven to eleven the pupils were known as juniors. In addition rote learning was recommended to be replaced by child-centred approaches.

In particular the education provided was to be child-centred. The emphasis was that the pupil's progress should be assessed by his/her aptitude on an individual basis. It was hoped that the pupil's aptitude would be based on school records rather than examinations.

In the 1944 Education Act attention was placed on the training of teachers and regulations were outlined. The regulations for training teachers were given prescribed conditions for the recognition of permanent training colleges, including the university training departments and hostels, and students in such colleges.

In the act regulations for the recognition of permanent training colleges as stated below:

'These Regulations prescribe the conditions for the recognition of permanent training colleges, including the university training departments and hostels, and students in such colleges. Any person desiring to enter a college must—

- (a) Be 17 years old or upwards;*
- (b) Have passed the School certificate or other approved examination of at least equivalent standard, unless the Minister allows an exception;*
- (c) Satisfy the college authorities as to character, probable suitability for the teaching profession, and health and physical capacity for teaching.*

To enter as a recognised student, a person shall also –

- (a) Be a British subject ordinarily resident in England or Wales, unless an exception is allowed; and*
- (b) Sign a declaration that he intends to complete the course of training, and thereafter to adopt and follow the profession of teacher in an approved school, and that in entering the college he takes the advantage of the public funds by which it is aided in order to qualify himself for the profession and for no other purpose'.*

[Education Act 1944]

After the Second World War finished the economic status of the country was in a bad state. Many physical resources had been consumed and many

factories and other commercial concerns had been badly damaged and finances were in short supply. In addition there was concern about the international situation regarding the status of Cyprus and the Suez area. Hence economies needed to be implemented since monies had to be spent on re-arming programmes and inflation in Britain was high. In particular there was an adverse trade balance with other countries.

After the end of the war there would be many people seeking work and their experiences might be very useful for introducing different types of mature people to the teacher profession rather than the young people coming from grammar schools. People coming from the forces and related occupations would require short intensive courses to prepare them for work in schools. Generous financial provision needed to be made so that these potential mature people could take advantage of a new career opportunity.

The first priority of the government after the end of the war was to get everybody housed. As a small child my grandmother, mother and I were bombed out of our house and moved from one house to another six times in a period of six weeks until the local council found a more permanent house for us.

As a result of the devastation of so many buildings it was not possible to rebuild as the necessary construction materials were in short supply. In addition there was a serious lack of labour for reconstruction works.

When the Second World War ended there were two major problems which affected education. Firstly the birth rate was increasing and there was an extension of the school leaving age. It was obvious that many more children needed to receive school education and so many more teachers would be required.

In June 1945 the emergency teacher training scheme was opened to all men and women who had a minimum of a year in HM Forces or had worked in an industry related to the war effort. However it became obvious in 1947 the balance of men and women recruited in the emergency scheme needed to be altered in order to meet the needs of the schools. As more men had applied for training having returned from serving in the forces it was deemed necessary to stop the recruitment of men. On the other hand it was apparent that many more women were required to be trained as the birth rate was

rising. Hence a publicity campaign was initiated to recruit women for teaching in primary schools.

Circular 39 entitled *Report of the Burnham Committee* published on 23rd March 1945, was one of the shortest issued by the Ministry of Education.

'I am directed by the Minister of Education to state for the information of the Local Education Authority that he has now approved under Section 89(1) of the Education Act, 1944, the scales of salaries submitted to him by the Burnham Committees scales of salaries submitted to him by the Burnham Committees for (a) qualified teachers in Primary and Secondary Schools; (b) teachers in Technical Institutions; and (c) unqualified and temporary teachers. Copies of the scales so approved will be circulated to Authorities that the Minister proposes to make an order under Section 89 providing that the remuneration paid by the Local Authorities to their teachers shall be in accordance with these scales as from 1st April 1945'.

This circular initiated one single basic salary scale for all qualified teachers in maintained schools for the first time. In addition the circular made it mandatory for the local authorities to pay these agreed scales.

The increase in the school leaving age meant that more trained teachers were required for the secondary schools. There were two main ways in which the number of teachers could be increased. The first method was to create a number of emergency teacher training colleges.

The students taking the shortened course were mature students who had valuable work and life experiences to bring to the teaching profession. In addition they were highly motivated and they sought to bring discipline and stability to young people who had been traumatised by the war.

These new colleges would train teachers over a much shorter period of time than the normal length of the course. The course of training was to be shortened from the two year course to thirteen months of which forty-eight weeks would be the basis of the training period. However it was recognised that such emergency trained teachers would not necessarily make as competent teachers as longer trained teachers. Hence such trained teachers would continue part-time study for a further two years during their first school appointment.

In addition there was an urgent need to recruit more experienced teachers to the teacher training colleges as tutors. Hitherto the calibre of teachers seeking jobs in teacher training colleges had not been very successful for some years as their job was not seen to be a promotion step primarily because the salary was poor. As a result of the Education Act the salary scale for a lectureship in a teacher training college was improved by the Burnham Committee. This committee devised salary scales for such lectureships which initially were Associate Lecturer, Lecturer and Senior Lecturer grades. Later the Principal Lecturer and Head of Department grades were added.

In February 1945 the Minister of Education published regulations stating that grants in aid of a voluntary college to the value not exceeding half of any approved incurred on the improvement, extension or replacement of existing accommodation and on any furniture or equipment which were necessitated.

In 1945 the number of voluntary teacher training colleges was fifty-one whilst the number of local education authority colleges was seventy-six. By 1948 there were many more local education authority colleges than voluntary colleges. In the latter half of the 1940s the number of students studying in permanent training colleges was increasing when the emergency training teacher training colleges were running down.

In March 1945 the regulations providing standards for school premises set building standards for all primary and secondary schools.

Miss Ellen Wilkinson, Minister of Education, arranged for the Ministry of Works to supply and erect prefabricated classrooms, which could be despatched at the request of the local education authorities. These huts to be provided by the Ministry of Works were largely refused initially. However when it was realised that there was no alternative accommodation available the huts were accepted. The Royal Society of British Architects had criticised as *'inconvenient in use, sub-standard in accommodation, uneconomical to heat, erect on playing space and unnessarily costly'*. These huts became known by the abbreviation HORSAs, which stood for Hutting Operation for the raising of the School Age, which became known as SFORSAs. The huts were then equipped with suitable furniture including chairs, desks, tables and stoves.

As a result of the devastation caused by the bombing during the war many buildings suffered serious damage. Large scale construction of large buildings was not possible as the necessary construction materials were in short supply. In addition there was a serious lack of labour for reconstruction works.

In 1946 the Minister of Education ended the system of per capita grants and undertook to pay students tuition fees and boarding fees less student's contribution. This grant regulation was intended to ensure that no suitable applicant could be prevented from entering the teacher training college by lack of finances (Ministry of Education Regulations 22 1946). The student's contribution was the amount due from his/her parents (or the student if independent). It was based on a net income scale compiled by the Ministry of Education.

When the Second World War ended there were two major problems which affected education. Firstly the birth rate was increasing and there was an extension of the school leaving age. It was obvious that many more children needed to receive school education and so many more teachers would be required.

The permanent colleges found some benefits from the recruitment of staff having experience of the Emergency Training Scheme. Comments made include:

'their day-to-day routine enlivened, and their teaching methods in some degree enriched by the freshness of approach of keen students, andintercourse with college tutors who themselves actively resorting their habits of thinking'.

[Ministry of Education 1950 p.63]

With reference to education the government had a number of priorities. Firstly there was a determination that proper standards of teaching in the schools should be maintained. There was a strong feeling that everything should be done to ensure that the children of all ages should be provided with everything to support their studies. First and foremost an adequate number of school teachers should be available. Further it was essential that there was an adequate supply of books, stationery and other essential apparatus/equipment for each curriculum subject. The health of the pupils

was also considered important so the government sought to maintain school medical and dental services at an appropriate level.

Borough Road College was concerned that the number of first year students would not reach its target figure. Unexpectedly recruitment was successful.

The Ministry of Education was aware that it had a very urgent problem in that there would be a serious shortage of teachers caused by the war as well as raising the school leaving age to fifteen years. This raise in the leaving age was not implemented until April 1947.

In order to provide the finances for these students the government introduced a new grant scheme. As a result of this new scheme the total tuition fees of all the students were paid by the Ministry of Education through the student's local education authority. The maintenance costs of the student's time resident in college were to be the responsibility of the student and/or his parents' ability to pay. At the same time special grants of up to 50% of all capital expenditure were made available to the local education authorities and voluntary organisations for approved building schemes. However any surpluses from the annual maintenance grants were no longer be permitted to be transferred to capital funds.

After the ending of the Second World War conscription was continued and people who had been in the forces during the conflict were only slowly released back to their normal lives. It was not until the session 1947 -1948 that a significant number of ex-service men came to Borough Road College for teacher training. Indeed during that academic session the total number of students reached in highest number in the history of the college.

The number of students at Borough Road College varied across the years when Great Britain was at war, namely 1939 – 1945. At the start of the war there were one hundred and sixteen students registered.

Table 6: Number of registered students

<u>Session</u>	<u>Total Number of Students</u>
1943/1944	135 including 31 from Marjons and 1 from Westminster Colleges
1944/1945	101
1945/1946	161

In 1946 Borough Road College got the Isleworth site back for its own students. In that year there were 161 students registered.

In 1946 the government started to address the financial considerations for an expansion of the number of trainee teachers. The Ministry of Education gave details of these financial arrangements for the rapid expansion of the teacher training colleges (Ministry of Education Circular 85, 1946). The government offered in the middle of the 1940s capital grants up to one-half of the cost of any major additions or improvements to premises to all teacher training colleges. In addition 100% recurrent grants in respect of approved tuition and boarding fees less a contribution which was assessed on the stated salary of the parents.. For local authority colleges both capital and recurrent expenditure were to be paid from a national 'pool'. Every local education authority had to make annual contributions to this national pool. The calculation of the annual amount per authority was calculated on the number of primary and secondary pupils on their own authority.

After the end of the war the ban on expansion of teacher training places was lifted.

The majority of its contents were to be found in the 1944 Education Act. This aim of this act was to completely overhaul the statutory system of education. Mr Butler (later Lord Butler) was aware that the overhaul would have to be accomplished in stages.

Despite the war government was determined to forward education. Indeed the government was already planning for action regarding the number of trained teachers needed after the ending of the Second World War.

The Education Act was very comprehensive and considered all aspects of the education of children and the training of their teachers. A large number of recommendations were made.

The 1947 the Clarke Report entitled *School and Life* looked at the transition from school to working life and made many recommendations, including a plea for increased funding for schools. This was followed by a second Clarke Report in 1948 entitled *Out of School* which recommended government spending on out-of-school facilities for children and parents.

Both these reports were produced by The Central Advisory Councils for Education (CACE) set up under the 1944 Education Act.

In the McNair Report and the 1944 Education Act secondary education became compulsory for all students in maintained schools. These two government documents had far reaching outcomes for a country having been ravaged by the Second World War. In particular many men died serving in the forces and as a result there was a shortage of trained teachers. This situation was compounded by the raising of the school leaving age from fourteen to fifteen years.

The major recommendations of the McNair report were to the raise status of teachers, have a basic salary for all qualified teachers, recognition of only one grade of teacher to be known as the Qualified teacher, increase teachers' salaries, lengthen the period of training to three years and abolish the Pledge (McNair Report 1944 p.44- 45) McNair Report stated that a two year course was not sufficient for students entering upon their training at eighteen years of age. The studies and activities required of them and the claims of school practice are such that their day is overcrowded with things that must be done, leaving them less time for necessary recreation and reflection. As a result many students in training colleges would not mature by living: they survive by hurrying. ([McNair Report 1944 p. 65)

Alas the recommendations of the McNair Report and the 1944 Education Act took some years to implement due to the state of the economy in the aftermath of the Second World War.

One of the most urgent problems facing the new Ministry of Education after the war was the shortage of teachers. The problem was exacerbated by the raising of the school leaving age to 15 recommended by Hadow in 1926 and the reorganisation of secondary education. An emergency teacher training programme was introduced in 1945.

In line with the recommendations made in the 1944 McNair Report thirteen Area Training Organisations (ATOs) were established in England and one in Wales to co-ordinate the provision of teacher training in 1947. The universities kept their separate training departments and institutes, which served as centres for the ATO clusters of colleges. In the London area the University of London had a large number of teacher training institutions associated with its local ATO.

In 1944 a second circular on emergency recruitment and training was published. Circular 18 included the report of the Minister's Advisory Committee on standards and methods of selection of candidates.

In 1944 the Ministry of Education established a Departmental Committee to investigate scientific and technological expertise in the United Kingdom under the chairmanship of Lord Percy. He had been President of the Board of Education during the years 1924 – 1929 and he had a special interest in technical education.

This Committee produced its report entitled '*Higher Technological Manpower*' in 1945. Its terms of reference were:

'Having regard to the requirements of industry, to consider the needs of higher technical education in England and Wales and the contributions to be made thereto by universities and technical colleges; and to make recommendations among other things, as to the means for maintaining appropriate collaboration between universities and technical colleges in this field'.

The government accepted the recommendations of the Percy Report in full. It recommended the establishment throughout the country of Regional Advisory Councils for Further Education. It was acknowledged that many more scientific individuals needed to be recruited to further education and universities with a good science base. Here the schools and teacher training colleges were urgently required to provide well educated pupils keen to pursue careers in science, engineering and technology.

The following year the Circular 6824 (1946) was published. Its report was entitled '*Scientific Power*' more university places for science students. The terms of reference for the Barlow report were:

'To consider the policies which should govern the use and development of our scientific manpower and resources during the next ten years, and to submit a report on every broad line at an early date so as to facilitate forward planning in those fields which are dependent on the use of scientific manpower'.

The committee was commissioned in December 1945 and published its report the following May. In effect this report had to determine the immediate post-war policy on university expansion. The committee had a membership of a number of well known scientists like Sir Edward Appleton, Professor P. M. S. Blackett, Sir George Nelson and other fellows of the Royal Society.

The committee was aware that industrial growth in the United Kingdom was essential and hence well qualified people were required to help scientific growth in a variety of endeavours. It had become very apparent that the future was dependent upon highly qualified people with expertise in a range of technological and scientific fields were critical.

The main recommendation of the Barlow Committee was that the universities should be expanded so as to greatly increase the number of scientists and they were required urgently. Government accepted the recommendation and student numbers were doubled in an attempt to remedy the shortfall of well qualified scientists for industry and other commercial activities.

The ATOs became a reality in 1947 with thirteen ATOs in England formed. The universities kept their training departments which served as centres for the ATOs. In the London area the University of London had a large number of teacher training institutions associated with its local ATO.

With the passing of the 1944 Education Act the President of the Board of Education became the new Minister of Education. In the new role the Minister of Education was given more power to direct and control development in education. For examples the local education authorities were restructured in order to minimise the differences between them. In particular the smaller Part 111 authorities were abolished thereby reducing the number of local education authorities from 316 to 146.

Each local education authority was to undertake a survey to determine local needs and submit their plans to the Ministry of Education. Schools were to be *'sufficient in number, character and equipment to afford for all pupils opportunities for education..... as may be described in view of their different ages, abilities and aptitudes'*.

Of interest was the defining of the role of the parent. Parental duty was defined in the following way. The child was to receive 'efficient full-time education suitable to his age, aptitude and ability'. In addition it was noted that the parents has rights as well. '*...as far as is practicable, pupils are to be educated in accordance with the wishes of their parents*'.

The eleven plus examination was created by the 1944 Education Act. It took place in the last stage of primary education. A tripartite system of education was established in which there was to be an academic, a technical and a functional strand. The eleven plus examination results were to be used to match a pupil's secondary school to their abilities and future career needs.

It was thought that the results of the examination would be an effective method of finding the best strand for the individual pupil to follow. The early results demonstrated that the technical school did not feature strongly, which was rather disappointing. Instead the tripartite system came to become a competition for school places at a grammar school. Soon the eleven plus examination was found to be derisory since a pupil either passed or failed it.

Above all the 1944 Education Act tackled the problem of the religious denominations. In the act church schools either opted for 'controlled' or 'aided/ status. This action led to having compulsory religious education in every school. It became formally part of the curriculum which was decreed by law. In addition the act stated that '*the school day shall begin with collective on the part of all pupils*'.

Other aims of the Education Act were stated but not implemented immediately e.g. nursery schools, county colleges and part-time schooling for young people quitting school before they reached the age of eighteen years.

The increase in the school leaving age meant that more trained teachers were required for the secondary schools. There were two main ways in which the number of teachers could be increased. The first method was to create a number of emergency teacher training colleges.

In the report it was made crystal clear that students trained under the emergency arrangements were not to be mere stop-gaps for the immediate crisis in the provision of teachers for the schools. Each such trainee teacher

should be regarded as a potential teacher bringing valuable life experiences as a mature student.

The McNair Report was very thorough and dealt with the recognition, supply and the training of teachers for primary and secondary schools, further education colleges and leaders for the Service of Youth. Reforms already agreed were taken into consideration including the raising of the school leaving age, expansion of nursery education, reduction in the size of classes and the introduction of compulsory part-time education beyond the school leaving age.

The organisation of the training of teaching was in urgent need of attention. The isolation of the training colleges was no longer acceptable. The members of the McNair Report suggested that there was an urgent need to integrate the whole service of teacher training by offering a much closer connection between the existing training colleges and the universities. The idea of establishing a Central Training Council (CTC) and a number of Area Training Organisations (ATO) were considered. The Committee produced two possible schemes, namely:

The 1944 McNair Report recommended that area training organisations (ATOs) should be established to coordinate teacher training courses in England and Wales (McNair Report 1944 p.124). The ATOs became a reality in 1947 with thirteen ATOs in England formed. The universities kept their training departments which served as centres for the ATOs. In the London area the University of London had a large number of teacher training institutions associated with its local ATO.

As a result of the link of London University with a college of education, the staff of the colleges of education received the title of '*Lecturers of the Institute*'. Having this status individual staff members of the colleges sat on subject committees which had responsibility for arranging the syllabi of the two academic subjects studied by the students in the colleges as well as the planning and organising the Teacher Certificate examinations. For the staff of Borough Road College this opportunity was greatly welcomed.

During the length of the Second World War married women were recruited to fill the gaps left by men. At the end of the war the number of teachers had decreased considerably so that there was a shortage of qualified teachers. It

was recommended that married women should be allowed to continue to teach in order to help keep teacher numbers up.

During the period 1945/1946 the Ministry of Education announced financial support for the teacher training colleges to enable them to prepare for increasing the teaching force in schools.

The Ministry of Education offered capital grants to cover up to half the cost of any major additions or improvements to premises and 100% recurrent grants in respect of approved tuition and boarding fees less appropriate parental grants towards the cost of boarding (Board of Education 1946 Circular 85).

During the period 1947 to 1951 student numbers in teacher training colleges increased rapidly. Hence the government felt that the Area Training Organisations (ATOs) had an important role in the training and distribution of the supply of qualified school teachers. In 1948 the Ministry of Education abandoned the Teacher Registration Society.

In addition the Ministry of Education gave up the inspection of practical teaching by HMIs. This responsibility was transferred to the Institute of Education's subject committee for education. In practical terms the staff of the colleges became involved both for the syllabi and examination in the theory of education as well as the practical teaching assessment.

In 1948 the Standing Conference of Representatives of Area Training Organisations was founded (Education in 1948, p.55 – 56). Its function was to consider any matter likely to have a common view i.e. assessment and examination methods, curricula for certificates and diplomas and facilities for teaching practices.

In 1948 the ATOs were constituted as university institutes of education. In the London area the University of London's Institute of Education became the largest ATO in the country. It included all the colleges of education in the Greater London area as well as the Central College in Malet Street.

The Ministry of Education stated that every area training organisation had to have five basic functions, namely:

1. Supervise the courses of training in member colleges, and further their work in every possible way.
 2. Recommend to the Minister of Education for the status of Qualified Teacher students who had successfully completed courses of training in member colleges or departments of education.
 3. Plan the development of training facilities in their area.
 4. Provide an education centre for students in training, serving teachers in the area, and other persons interested in education.
 5. Provide facilities for further study and research, including refresher and other short courses for serving teachers.
- [Education in 1948 p.55-56]

Each area training organisation developed its own areas of expertise in one of three areas: teaching, research or extra-mural activities which arose from their previous educational interests and the community in which it was located. Hence the area training organisations were to facilitate a number of functions including academic validation, professional recognition, co-ordination and higher education supply.

The work of the area training organisations was to facilitate:

1. academic validation
2. professional recognition
3. co-ordination
4. higher education supply

In 1949 students of the London colleges of education formed the Association of London Education Students (ALES). The creation of the wider institute, which included the various university education departments and the teacher training colleges across London, enables students from different institutions to mix in a range of social and sporting activities. This organisation soon became the University of London's Institute of Education Student Association (ULIESA).

The National Advisory Council on the Training and Supply of teachers (NACTST) was established in June 1949. Its aim was:

'To keep under review national policy on the training and conditions of qualification of teachers and on the recruitment and distribution of teachers

in ways best calculated to met the needs of the schools or other educational establishments'.

[Education 1949 p.49-66]

Not only was there an urgent need to increase the number the teachers it was essential to increase the number of staff in the teacher training colleges to cope with the increase of students wanting to train. To encourage more people to apply the salary and status of the teacher needed urgent consideration and action.

[Education in 1949 p.45-46]

By the end of the decade the education of children had be come well established. As a aresult there was growth of teacher training institutions throughout decade. The number of trainee teachers (now known as pupil teachers) rose year by year. In the middle of the decade the Teacher's Certificate was established.

The 1950s

By the end of the 1940s the number of trained teachers was insufficient to keep pace with the rise in population. By 1951 the atmosphere in the teacher training colleges was poor. The three year's Teacher Certificate had not been implemented as the schools were desperate for teachers. Recovery from the Second World War was still on-going and there was a lack of resources for expansion. In particular there were financial constraints and a lack of building materials for the teacher training colleges to secure their expansion.

Borough Road College was fortunate in having a number of redundant buildings which had been vacated at the end of the Second World War. Between 1948 and 1951 these prefabricated huts on the Borough Road site were converted to college use thereby providing more facilities for the staff and students of the college.

At first it was necessary to demolish the Admiralty Block before a large enough space of land on the site could be cleared ready for rebuilding. A 'temporary' hut was erected in the grounds for the whole of the geography department during the building period. The hut had one room with tracing tables and map chests as well as tables and chairs, a small store for field equipment and slides for lectures and a small room for its staff and the technician.

The roof was removed from the centre of the canteen hall and a courtyard created so that the various rooms into which the hall had been sub-divided could receive light. The sub-division of the canteen hall provided the College with a Handicraft department, three Geography rooms, a History room, a Biology laboratory, an Audio-visual Aids room and some other rooms. At the same time a foyer and cloakrooms were added to the recreational hall. This new extension could now be used for plays, concerts, dances, lectures and other purposes.

In the 1950s the Teacher's Certificate consisted of two '*special subjects*' later known as '*main subjects*,' of which one of these subjects could be taken at advanced level. In addition a number of '*basic*' (otherwise known as '*curriculum*' and '*secondary method*') courses were taken. These courses were mainly concerned with the theory and practice of education related to some specialisation in junior or secondary work in the final year of the certificate course.

The minimum academic qualifications normally required for entry to teach training colleges were set by the Ministry of Education in Circular 213 published in 1950. The following year five G.C.E. Ordinary Level passes were required for admission to the training college. Furthermore only qualified teachers were to be permitted to serve in schools. The area training organisations were given power to admit students who did not meet this minimum qualification if they seemed suitable in other respects. These powers enabled the area training organisations to admit mature students who had post-school working experiences e.g. men who had war service.

In 1950 the Ministry of Education relinquished its inspection of practical teaching delegating that function to staff of the teacher training colleges and in the following year government abolished the '*Pledge*'. In the future teachers merely had to sign a '*Declaration of Intent*'. The result of stopping the pledge caused in a fall in the number of trainee teachers in the University Departments of Education for several years and then a yearly rise started again.

During the 1950s there was an increase in the number of academic staff comparable with an increase in student numbers. In addition teachers received a better salary and their staff was better qualified and experienced. As materials became available there was a surge in new buildings and renovations of existing college buildings.

In the 1950s the Cromwell bookshop provided a stand in the college at the start of each academic session so that the students could purchase the books for their course. As student numbers grew a small room on the ground floor in Lancaster House was provided for the storage and sale of books, which was open over the lunch-time period.

In the period 1950 -1955 there were insufficient teachers coming from the teacher training colleges since places were left unfilled. In particular qualified girls for teacher training were in very short supply. The Ministry of Education wanted to retrieve the wastage of women due to earlier marriages and offers of employment outside teaching.

Hence it was necessary to remedy the situation. Three suggestions were made to deal with this problem. Recruitment of girls from secondary modern schools could be tried. Alternatively the pupil-teacher scheme could be

revived whilst a third suggestion was to employ unqualified assistants who could become qualified teachers in time. The teaching profession was opposed to all three suggestions. They insisted that only qualified teachers should be allowed to teach in the schools.

The British and Foreign School Society needed to address this issue as Borough Road College was a male college. The Society was prepared to accept women as soon as a female hostel could be built on the site in Isleworth. The Ministry of Education wanted to see an increase in student numbers and so offered generous grants to enable this to happen. Borough Road College decided that it could raise its number of students to seven hundred and fifty.

By 1951 major post-war changes had been mainly achieved. Unfortunately the three year teacher training course recommended by Sir Arnold McNair had not been implemented due to the significant lack of suitably qualified teachers. There were several reasons for the delay in encouraging sufficient numbers of suitable applicants to the teacher training colleges. The teaching force had heavy demands on its time and there was a lack of finances and building materials for the repair or construction of new school buildings.

In 1951 the Memorial Reading Room at Borough Road College was prepared and equipped as a quiet reading space for students. It was dedicated to the sixteen former students who lost their lives in the Second World War. The room was opened by Colonel Gettins, who was chair of the College Committee and an ex-Borough Road College student during the period 1893 - 1895. A silver figure with a plaque containing the names of the dead students was placed in the Memorial Reading Room (Bartle 1876 p.87).

In 1952 a small number of degree students came to take a postgraduate course in teacher training. Alas this course was soon abandoned.

In 1952 the Committee of Council felt compelled to advise government that the introduction of a three year course could not be implemented for some years. As a result of the increasing birth rate after the war, there were an increasing number of children in schools but the number of teachers to teach the children was not sufficient to have class sizes of around thirty pupils.

At Borough Road College in the early 1950s the number of academic staff for each subject other than education was comparatively low. For the

geography department in 1953 there were two full-time two members of staff. At that time no increase in staffing was forthcoming despite larger numbers of students taking Geography.

For some years after the ending of the war Geography teaching took place in the Admiralty Block which was a series of prefabricated concrete structures erected during the Second World War (Bartle 1976 p.87). The Admiralty buildings were redundant at the end of the war and were purchased by the college. These buildings were located some distance from the main building known as Lancaster House. The Admiralty Block comprised a number of different rooms for providing lectures and seminars for geography, history and education classes. In addition there was plenty of room for the storage of equipment, map chests and practical apparatus.

The Students' Union conducted the social life of the College with the support of the Principal and Vice-Principal. At the time of the HMI Inspection in 1954 there were sixteen societies and twelve sports clubs, which catered for a variety of interests. Dances, concerts and plays were arranged with Maria Grey teacher training college for women located in Twickenham.

As the teacher training colleges were getting closer to the universities by virtue of the work of the Area Training Organisation, it was hoped that the vast majority of students on the three year degree courses would have, on admission to the college, minimum academic qualifications comparable with the university students i.e. two Advanced level passes.

In 1954 the Ministry of Education published a document entitled *Education in 1953*. This document gave a comprehensive summary of teacher training as operated in that year. It included a review of the functions of the area training organisations, the grants available to students and the various courses and curricula in operation at that time.

A quote in the document specified the criteria by which the trainee teacher became a qualified teacher:

'The teacher can no longer hope or expect to prepare himself by learning specifically at the college all he will need to know for the educating of the children he would teach. The emphasis is therefore on the teacher as an educated person with interests, ideals, and ideas, who had the chance of

reaching in at least one field of study the highest standard of which he is capable and of acquiring in others some experience of the ways in which children learn and grow’.

[Ministry of Education 1954 p. 84]

The image of the teacher profession at the time of the report was not attractive. In particular the salary of the trained school teacher after training did not compare well with other careers. It was noted that such salaries would not encourage good candidates, especially mature people, to the teaching profession. In order to recruit more teachers, especially mature people, it was necessary to change the terms and conditions of employment for teachers (Ministry of Education 1954).

The Report of the Central Advisory Council for Education (England) on ‘*Early Leaving*’ was published in 1954. This report examined the possible factors likely to influence the age at which boys and girls attending schools providing courses beyond the minimum school leaving age. In particular the committee members sought information on the class composition of grammar schools for their report. At this time boys and girls could leave school at the age of fifteen years so grammar schools were chosen for the survey as they were the main source of pupils extending their education beyond that age.

The terms of reference for the report were:

To consider what factors influence the age at which boys and girls leave secondary schools which provide courses beyond the minimum school-leaving age; to what extent it is desirable to increase the proportion of those who remain at school, in particular the proportion of those who remain at school roughly to the age of 18; and what steps should be taken to secure such an increase.

[Early Learning Report, 1954 p.1]

The report recommended a better maintenance allowance to children who were considered to be ‘*needy*’ so that they could continue with their schooling after the age of fifteen years. In addition the committee felt that an allowance should be given to each family having children at school beyond the age of fifteen years. Furthermore it was recommended that more secondary school places should be provided in the grammar schools.

In the report a possible remedy for the shortfall of trainee people for entry to teacher training college was made in the following statement:

In English grammar schools in 1953 about ten thousand boys and seven thousand girls, completed advanced courses i.e. GCE 'A' level courses....about five thousand more boys and five thousand more girls could very well have done so if they had stayed longer at school.

[Central Advisory Council for Education (England) 1954 p. 10-11]

The Central Advisory Council concluded that there was a need for different types of teachers. Staffing ratios were still far from satisfactory and there were far too many very large classes.

Two sources of teacher supply were possible, namely the universities and the teacher training colleges. Alas the number of student places in the teacher training colleges was insufficient and there was a lack of interest for entrants to the colleges.

The Borough Road College Committee made application for a grant from the Nuffield Foundation Fund for a special grant of fifty thousand pounds in order to construct a new and well- equipped science block, which was accepted (Bartle 1976 p.93).

Borough Road College had not received an overall institutional inspection for some years. The 1954 inspection took place 29 years after the previous one in 1925. Once again the inspection took place at some time after the end of another World War. During the war the college experienced many difficulties. Temporary buildings were erected on the hockey pitch in the college grounds. These buildings were used by the Admiralty throughout the war. At the end of the Second World War the college authorities purchased the Admiralty buildings for nineteen thousand pounds. These buildings were converted and adapted to provide extra rooms for the college's activities.

At the time of the HMI inspection in February 1954 the staffing included eighteen full-time members of staff excluding the Principal and three part-time members of staff. Eight of the full-time members of staff had been appointed within the last five years, six members had worked in the college between five and ten years and four members longer than ten years. No member of staff, except the Principal, was permanently resident on the site. Instead the full-time lecturers took turns on a rota to spend the night on the

site. Overnight this member of staff had responsibility for all the students and the fabric of the college.

Altogether there were 248 students registered in the college at the time of the inspection. 117 of these students were resident in college, 94 students were in approved lodgings and 37 students living at home (HMI Inspection 1954 p.5). All lodgings occupied by Borough Road College students were visited by the college bursar in order to ensure that the accommodation provided was adequate. The lodgings were all located within a twenty minute walk of the college.

The resident students were located on the second and third storeys of the main building (later known as Lancaster House). The cubicles were separated by wooden partitions about seven feet high, which were covered with plastic and painted. All cubicles had scrubbed wooden floors. The electric lighting covered the corridor between the cubicles. The lighting was switched off at 11.00 pm.

At Borough Road College the department of geography had just two members of staff, who prepared the students preparing for the London University concurrent BA general degree (three equal subjects) with teaching qualification and a two year Teachers' Certificate course. For the certificate all subjects were offered at main level and most students took two subjects together with Education Theory and Practice.

At that time of the inspection the Geography department consisted of Mr Douglas Hill (primarily a physical geographer) and Mr Herbert Savory (primarily a human geographer). Each student had to take courses in basic Physical and Human Geography with little opportunity to follow more advanced options. Field work was conducted in the local area of Isleworth in year 1 and Certificate students had a field week at Easter in year 2 whereas degree students had two field weeks in year 2 the first took place in September and the other at Easter. Further both members of staff also gave courses in geography teaching methods and, of course, supervised students on teaching practice in schools.

The Geography syllabus for the Teacher's Certificate in the 1950s was a two year course.

Geography Syllabus for Teacher Training

First Year

- I. Elementary knowledge of Physical Geography with special reference to:
 - a. shape, size, and motions of the earth,
 - b. the atmosphere, rain, clouds, and vapour,
 - c. winds, currents, and tides,
 - d. causes which affect climate,
 - e. effect of climate on industry, productions, and national character,
 - f. distribution of plants and animals.
- II. General geography of the British Isles and the Continent of Europe.

Second Year

- I. Geography, Physical, Political, and Commercial, of the British Empire.
- II. Sketch maps of the principal British colonies and dependencies.

In the inspection report it was noted that the teaching accommodation had been greatly improved by additions and adaptations to the fabric of the building since the 1924 inspection. Science and Handicraft were stated to have excellent accommodation but more space was required for Geography.

The inspectors made a number of comments regarding the college as a whole. The library had a shortage of books especially for Geography, Mathematics and Divinity. Teaching accommodation was poor for Geography but good for Sciences and Handicraft. On the other hand the lecturing staff of the college was considered to be well qualified and equipment provision was good.

The inspection team outlined some shortcomings with reference to the geography subject area. In order to overcome the shortcomings it was acknowledged that more monies needed to be spent on this subject area. In particular it was stated in the inspection report that the library had a severe shortage of geography text books. Further the current accommodation of two geography rooms comprising one large and one small room together with a

tiny storeroom was inadequate. Extra rooms were required together with a dedicated storeroom and possibly a dark room.

The chief inspector stated that there were a number of shortcomings which needed attention. The student accommodation was considered poor. In particular there was a lack of floor covering in the sleeping quarters, worn out beds and bedding was utilised and there was a lack of washing facilities in the sleeping quarters. The kitchen and dining room needed equipment and a floor covering. The floor of the dining room was badly worn and the floor was very thin and uneven thereby presenting a potential health hazard. In addition the tops of the dining tables needed attention.

The Geography Department had nearly two hundred students. The departmental accommodation comprised two geography rooms, one large and the other small, together with small store spaces. The accommodation was inadequate and there was a need to give the department three rooms, a store-room and a dark room. More equipment was also needed. In addition there was a serious shortage of geography books in the library; a third more relevant texts were recommended.

However the teaching of the subject was considered to be very good. The HMI Geography inspector made the following comments regarding his inspection of the subject area:

'The Senior Lecturer in Geography was appointed in 1951; his colleague more recently. What was seen at the inspection showed that work in the Geography Department is good and excellently conducted. The courses in primary and secondary teaching methods applied to Geography appear to meet the needs of the students and also to satisfy the students that those needs are met. The special two year course in Geography is a fine example of its kind; offering to students the chance of doing work at university level, it leads most of them to raise high their sustained effort and many of them to use a mature self-criticism as they shape a long piece of work. The degree student in the current year there is only one – has reached the final months of his course; his work does credit to the Geography Department.'

This department is concerned with nearly two hundred students. They make six groups for Primary Method (only three of which are in being at a time), one Secondary method group and four special geography groupings; also there are smaller and occasional groups for method. In general the

characteristics of the department's work are integrity, zest and quality. Four aspects of the lecturers' teaching are clear to see; all branched of work so interpenetrate that each syllabus strengthens itself; field work opening the way to individual studies has pride of place; each student is led to create his individual studies and, in them, to set himself his own standards of work; to the utmost of what is possible. The lectures and the student lectures rely on individual tuition, although neither lecturer has a private study of his own where students may visit them.

So much has been accomplished in the most recent years that a visitor may forget that, in the present form, the department has within that time made a new beginning. A chief importance of the beginning is that it would justify a continued development that, in no way directed towards maintaining the body of geography studied at its existing number, allowed the lecturers to widen the scope of work towards those horizons they could reach.

To develop such fields of geography and of teaching method would entail increased expenditure. The library has perhaps a third of the Geography books now required. The two Geography rooms, one large and one very small, with their tiny store spaces are inadequate; would be reasonable to have three rooms and a storeroom and a dark-room if these could be found within the existing accommodation.

The Senior Lecturer's foresight and judgement economically govern the buying of equipment, but less is bought than is needed. In every branch of the department's work the effect of material deficiencies is minimised by good teaching, sometimes at the price of time and effort none of the courses should afford.

In spite of provision that is lacking, the students are very well taught and most of them come to find toil and pleasure mingle in their working hard and well towards an appreciated end. The College has reason to be proud of its work in geography'.

[Ministry of Education Inspection Report 1954 p.10]

HMI Goldsmith said '*that the staffing must be seen as a whole; should good things be made better or the weaker sides be strengthened*'? A balance had to be preserved and Divinity, Art and Music, for example, might be said to stand in greater need than Geography. The Principal agreed.

In 1954 the college offered three main courses, namely two year primary and secondary certificate courses, a three year degree course and a one year postgraduate certificate course in education. Of the total number of students, the vast majority of the students were taking the two year Teacher Certificate course. In its first year the course had 125 students and the second year had 107 students.

The students taking the degree courses in General Science and Arts of the University of London entered the college having exemption from the Intermediate Examination. During the first two years of the degree course the students undertook three subjects in place of the Special and Optional subjects on the Teacher Certificate course. At the end of two years they took papers in professional subjects of the Institute's Certificate examinations. In the third year the degree students mainly studied their academic subjects but they also took a certain amount of education including a written exercise. Progress was reviewed at the end of the each year. If a student was struggling at the end of the first year the student was transferred to the certificate course.

Comments made at the review after the inspection between HMIs and members of the college committee were discussed at a meeting between the governing body of the college and HMI inspectors on 3rd March 1954. At this meeting were the College Committee which comprised the Chairman Mr F F Potter, Professor Buchanan, Dr Bailey, Mrs Honnig, Mrs Stephens and Mr Thurston. The Principal Mr E H Hamilton, The Vice Principal Dr A Page and the secretary Mr D Bennets also attended the review. At the review two HMIs were present, namely Mr S H Goldsmith (inspection reporter) and Mr W J Heasman. Professor Buchanan represented the University of London on the College Committee.

Interestingly Professor Buchanan and Mr Thurston were both geographers. Mr Thurston had been a Borough Road College student and at the time of the review was headmaster of Isleworth Grammar School, which was located in Ridgeway Road opposite Borough Road College. This school had trainee students from the college across the road.

In the first instance the quality of the subjects teaching was conveyed to the college authorities. Geography was considered excellent and most other subjects received very good reports.

At this review meeting Professor Buchanan referred to geography and the load on the geography staff – was the load heavy? HMI Goldsmith agreed that it was, particularly as a result of the methods of individual tuition used by lecturers. The specialist inspector for Geography had said that there was a need for an additional lecturer. The Principal added that the senior lecturer in Geography had said that there would be room for a demonstrator. The Chairman then asked whether the report would indicate the need for an additional lecturer.

Professor Buchanan asked for the HMIs' observations on the accommodation for geography.

In reply geography space was short and there was a shortage of books for the students. In addition there was a need for more photographic equipment and sample materials.

In 1955 the Minister of Education asked the NACTST to consider the three year teacher training course again. The following year the NACTST advised that the early 1960s seemed to be a possible time for increasing the length of the course.

Hence the three year teacher training course was a measure to adjust the rate of recruitment to the needs of the schools in the 1960s. In effect the output was reduced by a third.

The rationale for 1960 was:

'There is a limit to the number of additional teachers which the schools can absorb and the country can afford in a period of declining school population.

Without the introduction of the three-year course or some other equivalent restriction of recruitment (and without some major new source of demand for teachers), it is not impossible that there may be some difficulty in the early 1960s in maintaining full employment in the teaching profession'.

[NACTST 1956 p.7]

In 1956 the fifth report of the National Advisory Council on the Training and Supply of Teachers felt that there was a need to establish a three year course as the two year course had received criticism from a variety of sources over a long period of time. Its reasons for a three year course were three-fold. Firstly the schools required better educated men and women so a

third year of study was thought to be essential to get better qualified teachers. Secondly it was considered that many students leaving college at the age of twenty years were not sufficiently mature to accept the responsibility of educating children and young people. Thirdly the Committee of the National Advisory Council on the Training and Supply of Teachers intended that a longer period of time should be spent in contact with and teaching in the schools (Ministry of Education 1954 p.65). In the fifth report of this Committee the educational advantages of a three year certificate course were outlined (Ministry of Education 1956 p.3).

The Fifth Report of the National Advisory Council on the Training and Supply of Teachers was published in 1956. In this report criticism made by the McNair Report some twelve years earlier regarding the two year Teacher's Certificate were upheld by the Fifth Report of the National Advisory Council on the Training and Supply of Teachers. In the fifth Report three reasons were presented as still being valid. These reasons were:

1. The schools require better educated men and women, and this better education cannot be ensured unless students are released from the strain and sense of urgency which at present conditions many of them.
2. Students in general have not, by the time that they are twenty, reached a maturity equal to the responsibility of educating children and young people.
3. The committee intended that a longer amount of time should be spent in contact with and teaching in the schools.

The Fifth Report of the National Advisory Council underlined the educational advantages of a three year course. The report considered that the three year course *'would go some way also to reflect the modern concept of a unified profession reaching in all types of schools'* (National Advisory Council 1956 p.3).

In 1956 a one year supplementary course in Mathematics was started at Borough Road College. This supplementary course was supported by the Ministry of Education as it was concerned about a shortage of mathematics teachers as a result of the Second World War. This course was supported by both Principal Hamilton and the Ministry of Education. Principal Hamilton lectured on the history of mathematics to this group of college students. The

first of the mathematics supplementary course for practising teachers attracted twenty students and was successful for some years.

In 1956 the government decided to rationalise technical education in non-university institutions. A structure was created on a large base of local or district colleges, which would offer elementary and intermediate studies. On top of this base there would be strata of area colleges, regional colleges and a very small number of colleges of advanced technology. These latter colleges would offer advanced studies at degree and postgraduate levels.

In 1957 an additional storey was added to the laboratory building where a specially equipped mathematics room was established.

In 1957 the Diploma in Technology (Dip.Tech) was created. This new qualification was considered to be to be at degree or postgraduate level. Unfortunately this qualification was not designated a degree but it was officially rated as academically the equivalent of a first degree with honours. The Diploma in Technology (DipTech) qualification was soon accepted by employers.

The Ministry of Education felt that the teacher training colleges should prepare for the two year certificate course to be extended to three years as soon as possible. In order to assist this change a group of HM Inspectors, who had experience of teacher training work, produced a pamphlet entitled *The Training of Teachers* (Ministry of Education 1957).

The HMIs, who wrote the pamphlet considered that *the most substantial changes following from the extension of the course should be in the academic work*, because

It is important for the health of the teaching profession as a whole that three year training should give a considerable proportion of teachers an academic standing and confidence which will enable them to take their places alongside graduates.

(Ministry of Education Pamphlet No. 34 (1957) p. 2/3)

The authors of the pamphlet rejected the suggestion that much of the additional time should be given to Professional Studies in Education. They thought that *more benefit could be obtained from a re-arrangement of the*

course. It was felt that the greater maturity of the third year students could be directed at further academic work.

The Ministry officials felt strongly that the current young students entering teacher training colleges needed to mature during their course of study. The students needed to have more subject knowledge and have time to reflect on their experiences in the lecture room and in the school situation. The third year should include seminars and tutorials so that the students would have time to discuss and reflect on their experiences at the teacher training college. In addition they needed to have opportunities to study independently and discuss social problems with their tutors. Above all it was hoped that the students would transform from being teenagers into responsible adults (Ministry of Education 1957 p.2).

Examples of the Teacher's Certificate held under the auspices of the Institute of Education of London University in the 1950s are shown below. The first paper applied to all the teacher training colleges with links to the University of London. The second paper is an example of a special paper given by Borough Road College.

TEACHER'S CERTIFICATE EXAMINATION: 1957
[For all Colleges]

GEOGRAPHY

Special field of Study - I

WEDNESDAY, June 19.-Morning, 9.30 to 12.30

[Answer THREE questions, including Question 1, which carries half the total marks for this paper. In Question 1, (a) and (b) each carry 10 marks.]

1. With reference to the Ordnance Survey Map provided (1/25,000 series, sheet NY22):-
 - a. With the aid of sketch-map(s), describe the physical setting of Keswick.
 - b. Draw a transect diagram to summarise the characteristics of the Derwent valley north-west of Keswick.
 - c. Analyse the distribution of woodland in the area shown south of gridline 23.

- d. Compare the courses followed by the railway and the main road (A594) from where they enter the area in the north-west to where they leave in the east.
 2. Draw a longitudinal profile of Brockle Beck from 287200 to its entry
 3. With reference to the air-photograph provided: Describe the characteristics of the relief of the area shown, and in relation to them Analyse the man-made features of the landscape that are apparent from the photograph.
 4. Draw annotated sketch-maps and/or diagrams to depict an example of each of THREE of the following:-
 - a. A fiord with raised beach.
 - b. A drumlinised lowland.
 - c. An oasis.
 - d. A series of scarp-foot villages and strip parishes.
 - e. The layout of *either* a Roman town *or* a new planned town.
 - f. The setting of a large modern oil-refinery.
 5. Give an interpretative description of the conditions shown on the weather-map provided for 0600 hours, 24th November 1956.
 6. Indicate and evaluate the cartographical and diagrammatic treatment you would use to show:-
 - a. the rainfall of the British Isles,
 - b. the output of the coalfields of Great Britain.
 7. Draw sketches to show, by means of selected parallels and meridians, appropriate graticules for maps of any THREE of the following:-
 - a. the progress of Antarctica exploration,
 - b. the major vegetation belts of the world,
 - c. the currents of the North Atlantic ocean,
 - d. the mineral resources of Europe,
- In each case justify your choice of projection.

UNIVERSITY OF LONDON INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

TEACHER'S CERTIFICATE EXAMINATION

1957

[For Borough Road College]

GEOGRAPHY

Special Field of Study – II

THURSDAY June 20 – morning, 9.30 to 12.30

[Answer FOUR questions, selecting TWO from each Section. Illustrate your answers with sketch-maps and diagrams where possible. An outline map of the world is provided.]

SECTION A

1. EITHER -

- a. Whilst studying an area of mountainous country it becomes necessary to interpolate additional contour lines upon a large-scale map. Describe in detail a method by which this may be done. Name the chief instruments you would use and explain clearly the purpose of the work. Illustrate your answer by suitable diagrams.
- b. OR - Describe how you would use a plane-table to fill in detail on a large-scale map. Name the chief instruments used and explain clearly the purpose of each in the work. Illustrate your answer suitable diagrams.

2. EITHER -

- a. Using either Isleworth or Brentford as an illustration, describe the main phases in the growth of a town in relation to the physical condition of the site and in relation to human factors.
 - b. OR - In respect of any Thames-side village that in detail, examine the major geographical factors that have influenced its siting and its subsequent development.
 - c. Describe the physical geography of that area of the Mole valley and the North Downs that lies between Dorking town and Juniper Hall Field Centre. Pay special attention to the relationship between structure and the surface relief. Illustrate your answer by sketch-maps and diagrams.

3. EITHER –

- a. With the aid of sketch-maps and diagrams, describe and explain the major features of the drainage of the Weald.
- b. OR - Using examples from an area you know personally, describe the physical geography of an area of glacial deposition. Explain how the physical geography in this area influences human settlement and occupations.

- c. OR - Select a sketch of coastline which you know well. Describe its main physical features, and where possible relate them to its structure. Illustrate your answer by suitable sketch-maps and diagrams.
4. Draw annotated sketch-maps and/or diagrams to depict an example of each of THREE of the following:-
 - (a) A fiord with raised beach.
 - (b) A drumlinised lowland.
 - (c) An oasis.
 - (d) A series of scarp-foot villages and strip parishes.
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 - (c) the currents of the North Atlantic ocean,
 - (d) the mineral resources of Europe,
 In each case justify your choice of projection.

In 1956 selected technical colleges and further education colleges were upgraded to colleges of advanced technology.

In 1956 the Minister of Education requested the Central Advisory Council for Education in England to advise on the education of boys and girls between the ages of fifteen and eighteen years. The report entitled '*15 to 18*', which was commonly known as the Crowther Report, was published in two volumes. Part I comprising the report was published in 1959 and Part II containing surveys undertaken in compiling the report were published in 1960.

Terms of reference for the Crowther Report were:

‘To consider in relation to the changing social and industrial needs of our society, and the needs of the individual citizens, the education of boys and girls between 15 and 18, and in particular to consider the balance at various levels of general and specialised studies and to examine the inter-relationships of the various stages of education’.

The first volume was divided into seven sections, each of which had a specific theme. The seven themes were Education in a Changing World, The development of the modern School, Secondary Education for All, The Way to county Colleges, Sixth Form, Technical Challenge and Institutions and Teachers.

The report recognised that there was a need to have an increased supply of teachers in order to cope with the additional duties to be placed on the schools by raising the school leaving age and the need to improve the quality of the work in schools. It was felt that a longer time at school would produce more candidates for teacher training.

The report attempted to consider the great variety of secondary schools emerging in the middle of the twentieth century e.g. grammar schools, comprehensive schools, technical schools, grammar technical schools and bilateral schools. Many of the pupils attending secondary schools beyond the age of fifteen years were first generation pupils in their families to be able to access secondary education without having to pay for their education.

In the seventh section devoted to Institutions and Teachers noted that more teachers were required because of the additional work load created by the raising of the school leaving age. In addition there was a need to improve the quality of work already taking place in the schools. Every member of the committee producing the report was convinced that a longer average school life would produce more possible candidates for teacher training. Staffing levels were noted still to be undesirable as there were too many overlarge classes in the schools. Class sizes needed to be reduced in order to improve pupil’s experience. It was noted that there were two sources of teacher supply, namely universities and teacher training colleges. The number of students could be increased more easily in the teacher training colleges, if teacher training college places were increased.

The Crowther Report requested that the National Advisory Council for Teachers and Supply of Teachers (NACTST) advise on the additional

numbers of teachers that would be necessary to ensure a sufficient supply of teacher numbers to cope with a raise in the school leaving age (Ministry of Education 1954). The report considered that more measures needed to be put in place in order for an adequate increase in teacher numbers coming from the teacher training colleges.

Another recommendation for the individual institutions providing teacher training courses stated that each institution should have an independent governing body.

September 1959 saw the last intake of students for the two year Teacher's Certificate course. It was obvious that the imminent arrival of the three year certificate course would place unbearable demands on the two members of the Geography staff so the recruitment of a further member of staff was agreed.

Towards the end of the 1950s the geography department consisted of a head of department (Douglas Hill) and one other member of staff (Herbert Savory). As the number of students taking geography as a main subject was increasing on a year-by-year basis, it was necessary to appoint a third member of staff to join the department. David Wedden started in September 1959 having spent five years teaching geography in a technical grammar school.

In addition to the general improvement in teacher training standards expected from a three year course, The London Institute of Education introduced an Advanced level standard in subjects for the more able students. The students who took two subjects with Education, such as the majority at Borough Road College, could only take one at Advanced level. David Wedden proposed specialist options in Monsoon Asia and North America for the Advance Level options. These subject areas had been studied in his course at Cambridge University.

David Wedden was appointed to supplement the two geographers at Borough Road College. His particular expertise lay in the field of geomorphology. However David Wedden soon realised that some knowledge of geology would be extremely useful for geography teachers. In particular certain aspects of geology would be very useful when school teachers were leading school trips or undertaking projects on local

landscapes. Also trainee teachers would benefit from a wider geographical curriculum.

The rationale for introducing Geology as a subject at Main level for the Teacher's Certificate was the inspiration of David Wedden, who was a senior lecturer in the department of geography. In his undergraduate degree studies during the period 1950 – 1953 David Wedden had developed an interest in geomorphology and he had been engaged in geomorphologic field research in Norway in the three long summer vacations during his undergraduate degree studies and the postgraduate diploma in education. The field research involved studying glacial activity.

At Borough Road College the department of geography had just two members of staff, who prepared the students preparing for the London University concurrent BA general degree (three equal subjects) with teaching qualification and a two year Teachers' Certificate course. For the certificate all subjects were offered at main level and most students took two subjects together with Education Theory and Practice.

At that time the department consisted of Mr Douglas Hill (primarily a physical geographer) and Mr Herbert Savory (primarily a human geographer). Each student had to take courses in basic Physical and Human Geography with little opportunity to follow more advanced options. Field work was conducted in the local area of Isleworth in year 1 and Certificate. students had a field week at Easter in year 2 whereas degree students had two field weeks in year 2, one took place in September and the other at Easter. Further both members of staff also gave courses in geography teaching methods and, of course, supervised students on teaching practice in schools.

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particular certain aspects of geology would be very useful when school teachers were leading school trips or undertaking projects on local landscapes. Also the trainee teachers would benefit from a wider geographical curriculum.

Towards the end of the 1950s it was known that the length of the Teacher's Certificate was to be increased but the late 1950s saw a bulge in the birth rate. The large increase in the number of children meant that there was a need to expand teacher training and so planning was needed especially to train teachers for work in primary and junior schools. It was urgent to consider forward planning in order to accommodate the young people in primary, secondary, further education and higher education long into the future.

The 1960s

The decade of the 1960s saw a number of interesting developments in the educational field. Firstly government decided to introduce the three year teacher training course in September 1960 and issued Circular 325 to confirm their decision.

Further the Robbins Report was published during the course of the decade. The Robbins Report was very thorough and investigated different aspects of the education of children and the training of teachers. During the decade higher education received attention in that the Council for Academic Awards (CNAAs) and the Open University were created. Both of these organisations gave many more people the opportunity to access higher education.

In addition the decade of the 1960s was very significant for Borough Road College in many ways. In March 1960 itself Borough Road College celebrated its 150th Anniversary.

On this occasion the Queen Mother paid a two hour visit to Borough Road College in Isleworth. At the start of the celebrations runners from the Town Hall in Southwark to Borough Road brought a special message of greetings from the Mayor of the original borough in which the Borough Road Schools and training institutions had been sited. The Queen Mother gave a speech in the Admiralty Block Hall. In addition there were exhibitions and a gymnastic display by students (Bartle 1976 p.90). A plaque to commemorate the royal visit was placed in the main college vestibule.

In the early 1960s the subject of geography was expanding in the sense that other contributory subject areas were gaining recognition as vital to the processes of geographical study. These contributory subject areas included biogeography, geomorphology, meteorology and soil science as well as aspects of geology.

In the 1960s trainee teachers could take two subjects for their certificate of education qualification. One of the subjects was taken at Advanced Level and the second subject at Main level. In addition to these two academic subjects each student at the teacher training college took courses on education theory and practice.

Also in September 1960 the first year of the new three year certificate course commenced and student numbers started to increase on an annual basis. In mid-decade the college admitted females as students thereby making Borough Road College a mixed college. In order to accommodate increasing numbers of students, both male and female, the college needed to provide adequate both residential and teaching accommodation for the students, which were addressed during the decade. The building projects took place in several phases.

Prior to the construction of the buildings in Phase 1 of the 1960s developments at Borough Road College it was necessary to demolish the Admiralty Block which included a large hall, classrooms and workshops. As increasing numbers of students were to be found on the Borough Road College site it became necessary to use the available accommodation as economically as possible. In order to try and alleviate this situation to a minimum the working day was extended from 9.00 am to 8.00 pm on weekdays.

Initially the construction of a large hostel for women, a new assembly hall, a kitchen, a dining hall to accommodate five hundred students, new common rooms, classrooms, staff studies, an additional gymnasium and a Nuffield Block were all included in the first phase of the building projects. For constructing all these buildings the sum of five hundred thousand pounds was required. The Ministry of Education provided a capital grant of three hundred and seventy-five thousand pounds. The Nuffield Foundation Fund provided a further fifty thousand pounds. With these two major contributions the British and Foreign School Society had to find a further seventy-five thousand pounds. In order to provide this latter sum the British and Foreign School Society decided to sell Stockwell College of Education to Kent County Council.

In 1961 Principal Hamilton retired. His successor arrived in September 1961 from working as a Professor of Education in Hong Kong. Principal Priestley arrived at a very important time in the development of post-war educational initiatives. Many of the building improvements for Borough Road College had already been planned by Principal Hamilton but not implemented. Hence the decade held significant work for new Principal Priestley to ensure was completed.

In 1961 Principal Priestley arrived at a time when the courses at Borough Road College were changing. The new three year certificate course was in its second year and the annual intake of students was increasing. In addition plans were well advanced for the transformation of the male teacher training college into a '*mixed college*' and the very large building projects scheduled for dealing with the increased intake of students. The building projects were to take place in several phases.

Principal Priestley had a series of initiatives to cement into the workings of the college. In particular the three year Teacher's Certificate had recently been started. The expansion of the student intake was due to take place when the arrangements for admitting girls to the college were completed. These arrangements included the building of a hostel to accommodate the female students. In addition further projects were in the pipeline when finances became available.

Soon after the three year Teacher's Certificate course was operative the government appointed a committee which was requested to undertake a thorough investigation of the institutions providing teacher training courses and make suggestions for improving the status of the teachers.

In 1960 the government appointed Lord Robbins to chair a committee with a remit '*to review the pattern of full-time education in Great Britain and in the light of national needs and resources, to advise Her Majesty's Government on what principles its long-term development should be based*'.

The Robbins Committee was asked:

'In particular, to advise, in the light of these principles whether there should be any changes in that pattern, whether any new types of institution are desirable and whether any modification should be made in the present arrangements for planning and coordinating the development of the various types of institution'.

[Robbins 1960 p.1]

The three year teacher training course became a reality in 1960. Two years later the National Advisory Council on the Training and Supply of Teachers produced the eighth report entitled '*The Future Pattern of the Education and Training of Teachers*'. This report sought to consider the supply of teachers

over the next twenty years or more. The report made three long term objectives.

1. An increased teaching force supplemented by a number of temporary staff
2. Need for a flexible teaching force in order to cope with changes in educational initiatives
3. Need for a teaching force of high quality staff that had been professionally trained.

[National Advisory Council 1962 p.1]

In order to gain a flexible teaching force it was envisaged that two main types of teachers should be trained, namely the generalist and the specialist. One way of achieving flexibility was to offer academic courses at two levels. At Borough Road College the subject courses for the certificate students were offered at main and subsidiary levels. Later these became designated advanced and main levels.

Further the report discussed the ways in which these long term objectives could be met. It was clear that to obtain a competent teaching force the recruitment net had to be widened. Hence students from a wider range of educational establishments were canvassed. These institutions included art colleges, technical colleges and colleges of advanced technology.

The Central Advisory Committee commented that all potential teachers should be made aware in their training of the social and environmental problems involved in the training of secondary school pupils (Central Advisory Committee 1963 p. 103).

The Robbins Committee reported its findings in 1963. The Robbins Report recommended the increase in the percentage of the band of students in a specific age band receiving full-time higher education from around 8% to around 17% by 1980. At that time it was envisaged that boys would outnumber girls by nearly 50% In addition teacher training was to be removed from local authorities and integrated into the university pattern.

The Robbins Report noted that many teacher training colleges remained very small as they had less than 250 students. The report recommended that the future average size of the teacher training colleges should be increased to around 750 students. It was also recommended that the three year teacher

training course should continue to provide a professional qualification but also provide a four year degree for suitable students.

Much emphasis was placed on the education and training of school teachers. In the report it was stated that:

'The Training Colleges in England and Wales and Colleges of Education in Scotland alike feel themselves to be only doubtfully recognised as part of the system of higher education and yet to have attained standards of work and a characteristic ethos that justify their claim to an appropriate place in it.'
(Robbins 1963 p.107)

The Robbins Committee recommended that colleges should *'go forward but in closer association with the universities with the universities not only on the academic side but also on the administrative side'*.
[Robbins 1963 p.119]

Three further recommendations made by the Robbins Committee were made, in an attempt to raise the status of the teacher training colleges. Firstly the colleges should have independent governing bodies and be financed by specific grants through their associated university. In addition the Robbins Committee sought to expand the range of courses offered in the teacher training colleges by having them to offer a four year degree course as well as a three year Teacher's Certificate. The four year degree would be known as a Bachelor of Education (BEd) and it was suggested that the degree should be awarded by their affiliated university. The Robbins Committee thought that the teacher training colleges should provide certificates of education and BEd degrees.

Not all the Robbins Committee's recommendations were accepted by government. Financial and administrative integration was not acceptable at the time. Alas independent governing bodies for the teacher training colleges were not considered. However government did invite the colleges to join a study group to consider their internal government and did recommend the four year Bachelor of Education degree course.

The Robbins Committee also made a number of suggestions which were intended to raise the status of the colleges by having independent governing bodies to be financed by ear-marked grants me through the universities, should provide three year courses leading to the Teachers' Certificate as well

four year courses leading to a degree as well as the Certificate. The degree was to be known as the Bachelor of Education and it would be awarded by the university associated with the college where the student took his/her course.

Government welcomed closer academic ties between the universities and the training colleges and felt that they should be renamed colleges of education. The report favoured the formation of a four year course to be known as a Bachelor of Education (BEd) degree. The Robbins Committee thought that the teacher training colleges should provide certificates of education and BEd degrees. Alas the committee rejected the integration of administrative and financial services of the college with their associated university. Nor was the government agreeable to the colleges having independent governing bodies.

Government welcomed closer academic ties between the universities and the training colleges. Interestingly the BEd degree had been suggested by Principal Burrell of Borough Road College in 1910. He had written an article for *The Educational Record* in 1910 in which he advocated a new degree for students taking a teacher training course. He suggested that the curriculum of this new degree for teachers should include theory of education and practical teaching would form an important part of the degree.

'Degrees are given in many faculties'..... why should not a Bachelor of Education be added to the list? But some way of connecting the colleges with the universities, even supposing that the colleges are willing, must first be devised'.

[Burrell 1910 *The Educational Record* p.58]

In addition the Robbins Report recommended that the colleges of advanced technology (CATs) should be designated as technological universities with *'the power to award both first and higher degrees'* (Robbins 1963 p.281). The report proposed that the DipTech qualification should be abolished (Robbins 1963 p.281). Government accepted these recommendations made by Lord Robbins.

The Robbins Committee also recommended that a Council for National Academic Awards should be formed. This recommendation was also accepted by Government and the Council for National Academic Awards was established by Royal Charter in 1964.

The CNAA was given:

'powers to award degrees, diplomas, certificates and other academic awards to persons who have successfully pursued courses of study approved by the Council at educational establishments other than universities or who have successfully carried out research work under the supervision of an educational or research establishment other than a university'.

[Royal Charter of CNAA 1964]

The objectives of the CNAA were advancing education, learning, knowledge and the arts by granting academic awards. The Council achieved this objective by working with higher education institutions outside the university sector including polytechnics, institutions of higher education, colleges of education and colleges of arts.

The CNAA was given powers to award BA and BSc degrees at ordinary and Honours levels. The CNAA awards were compatible to those of the universities and were recognised by professional associations and employers. Most students would take these degree courses by part-time study as they were likely to have full or part-time jobs. In addition range of higher degrees including MA, MSc, MPhil and PhD degrees were also awarded. Thus the CNAA offered students an alternative to studying for a degree at a higher education institution.

In 1964 the Ministry of Education became the Department of Education and Science and Quintin Hogg became its first Secretary of State for Education and Science.

As the decade progressed plans were put in hand to get Borough Road College ready to receive the first female students, who arrived in September 1964. For Borough Road College the transformation to a mixed college there was a need to ensure that facilities for the female student population were ready and appropriate for them. Plans for building new facilities were in hand and continued for some years.

In order to be ready for the female students it was necessary to appoint some female members of staff. In the first instance the female members of staff were Education and English lecturers. It was felt that some female lecturers were required to make the first women students feel at home. In particular

female members of staff were appointed to lead the new infant courses which were likely to be relevant to the future careers of female students. The warden of the newly built Stockwell House was also a female member of staff.

The hall of residence for the girls at Borough Road College opened in 1964. It was named Stockwell House in memory of the girls' school found by Joseph Lancaster early in the 1800s and moved to Stockwell years later. Eighty female students were accommodated in the eight storey building. Each student had their own study bedroom with washing facilities. In addition there were flats for the resident female warden and other members of staff. The building had an extension which provided a sick bay, a surgery and accommodation for a resident nursing sister.

Facing Stockwell House across a small courtyard was the new Hamilton Hall which had a large auditorium and foyer suitable for plays, concerts and other musical events. To the rear of the stage in the auditorium was a large music room and accompanying music practice rooms.

Within the new complex of buildings were the kitchens and storerooms and a dining room which provided meals for both residential and non-residential students. Student facilities were also located next to their dining room. Hamilton Hall was joined to the newly built Nuffield Block by an upper corridor which provided specialist mathematics rooms and various science laboratories for Chemistry, Natural Science and Physics. Student facilities were also located next to their dining room. Adjacent to the dining room was the Senior Common Room which was smartly decorated and had easy chairs for members of staff to have informal chats and more formal discussions. BEd honours degree.

The arrival of female students at Borough Road College brought change to the academic and social life of the college. As a result of the influx of female students many more students were accommodated in approved lodgings or rented properties in the surrounding area. With the changing environment, the college authorities sought to strengthen staff-student relationships thereby providing support for the female students. The Principal and members of staff was very keen to ensure that no student felt isolated.

The degree course continued and an example of a second year Geography examination paper is shown below.

Borough Road College

2nd Year Degree Geography Examination

Paper III – Methods of Teaching

Time: 2 hours

June 1965

Answer FOUR questions selecting TWO from each section

Section A

1. Consider the place of regional geography in a school course.
2. Frame in general terms a syllabus suitable for a Secondary School.
3. *'Objectivity is an essential to good geography teaching'*. Discuss
4. What special problem does Sixth-Form work involve?

Section B

5. Examine, with illustrations, the character of a lesson depending on the sample study method.
6. Illustrate the varied use of the blackboard in teaching geography.
7. Discuss the character of the instruction suitable for visiting classes to the Commonwealth Institute.
8. *'The value of teaching aids depends on the initiative and skill of the teacher'*. Discuss.

In 1966 the Council of London University established a Faculty of Education with authority to give the awards BEd, MEd and a four year BEd honours degree.

In 1966 a White Paper entitled *Plan for Polytechnics and other Colleges* was published. In this paper the following statement was made:

'The object of developing a new pattern now is to see that the rapidly mounting demand for higher education within the system of Further education is met in such a way as to make the best possible use of these resources without prejudicing opportunities for the tens of thousands of less

advanced students who wish to take courses at intermediate and lower levels'.

[Ministry of Education 1966 Command 3006 p.3]

In 1966 a White Paper entitled *University of the Air* was published. This government paper outlined the possibility of introducing an *Open University*. In the following year a Planning Committee was appointed by the Secretary of State for Education and Science with the following terms of reference:

'To work out a comprehensive plan for an Open University, as outlined in the White Paper of February 1966, 'A University of the Air', and to prepare a draft Charter and Statutes'.

[Open University Planning Committee 1969 p.1]

The main objective of the Open University was to bring higher education to a large number of citizens hitherto deprived of the opportunity to go to university. Primarily its students were to be taking the higher education courses as part-time students. Its remit was wide ranging and introduced innovative teaching methods including radio, television, correspondence courses, summers schools and specially programmed textbooks. The university provided large number of courses at both undergraduate and postgraduate levels as well as research opportunities.

The Open University was to offer both ordinary and honours degrees, which would be obtained by the collection of suitable '*credits*' in individual suitable courses. A total of six credits were required for an ordinary degree and eight credits for an honours degree. The normal minimum period of study was four years. Every student had to undertake two foundation courses, each of which carried one credit, prior to taking further courses. The foundation courses offered were Understanding Science, Mathematics, Understanding Society and Literature and Culture.

Phase 2 of the building plans at Borough Road College was supposed to commence immediately after Phase I was completed. Due to a shortage of funds, construction of the men's residential quarters was delayed until 1966. Finally a 75% grant from the Department of Education and Science made Phase 2 possible.

David Wedden felt that it would be most helpful if he increased his personal geological knowledge in order to improve his teaching of geography. Certainly geography students would benefit from acquiring some knowledge of geology. Hence with the support of his head of department, Douglas Hill, David Wedden registered for a part-time geology degree at Birkbeck College, London.

The BSc geology course was very demanding since it required an individual to attend Birkbeck College for five evenings a week for a period of four years during term time. In addition there were field classes to be undertaken outside the term dates. During all this time David Wedden continued with his full-time teaching commitments. His new geological knowledge complemented both the teacher certificate and degree level teaching.

As the teacher training colleges were getting closer to the universities by virtue of the work of the Area Training Organisations, it was hoped that the vast majority of students on the three year degree courses would have, on admission to the college, minimum academic qualifications comparable with the university students i.e. two Advanced level passes.

Within the new complex of buildings on the Borough Road College site were the kitchens and storerooms and a dining room which provided meals for both residential and non-residential students. Student facilities were also located next to their dining room. Hamilton Hall was joined to the newly built Nuffield Block by an upper corridor which provided specialist mathematics rooms and various science laboratories for Chemistry, Natural Science and Physics. Student facilities were also located next to their dining room. Adjacent to the dining room was the Senior Common Room which was smartly decorated and had easy chairs for members of staff to have informal chats and more formal discussions.

In 1965 the National Advisory Committee recommended that there should be a considerable expansion in the output from the teacher training colleges over the next ten years in order to overcome the shortage of teachers in the schools. At the time financial expenditure was tight and it was suggested by a minority of the National Advisory Committee that the expansion should be achieved by the more effective use of existing resources rather than trying to approve more buildings.

Government accepted these recommendations and in 1965 the Department for Education and Science published circular requesting college authorities to prepare schemes for a 20% increase in student numbers. Indeed a four term year and a type of Box and Cox system were suggested as possibilities. The colleges were given six months to discuss how this increase could be achieved and produce their development plans for scrutiny.

In Circular 10/65 the Department of Education and Science published its intent:

'to end selection of the eleven plus and to eliminate separation in secondary education'

[DES 1965 para.1]

Two months later after internal discussions within the Department of Education and Science, the new government published Circular 10/65, which began with the bold declaration that it intended *'to end selection at eleven plus and to eliminate separatism in secondary education'* (DES 1965: para.1).

The Circular made it clear that the government expected LEAs to go comprehensive. It presented some of the schemes which LEAs had put forward and invited others to adopt one: *'local education authorities are requested to submit plans to the Secretary of State for the reorganisation of education in their areas on comprehensive lines'*.

[DES 1965: para.43]

It concluded that the government had no desire to impose 'destructive or precipitate change on existing schools' and that 'the evolution of separate schools into a comprehensive system must be a constructive process requiring careful planning by local education authorities in consultation with all those concerned'

[DES 1965: para.46]

But the boldness was short-lived. Although the language of the Circular made it clear that the government *expected* LEAs to go comprehensive, it stopped short of actually *compelling* them to do so. It presented some of the schemes which LEAs had put forward and invited others to adopt one.

At the time of the publication of Circular 7/65 Borough Road College was in the midst of an expensive process, which included updating the men's

residential accommodation and raising the number of students to seven hundred and fifty (previously agreed with government). It was apparent that no further expansion could be contemplated until 1967 at the earliest. There was a serious concern that there was a lack of classroom space and dining facilities made further expansion impossible. Capital investment was required to provide a new library, extended kitchens, more classrooms, more staff studies and extended student facilities were essential.

For Borough Road College new buildings were out of the question so the Academic Board of the college had to consider how an increase in student numbers could best be achieved.

Borough Road College hoped that the completion of Phase I of the building projects would be followed directly by the reconstruction of the accommodation for the male students. Due to a lack of adequate funding this reconstruction was delayed until 1966. Luckily a 75% grant was provided by the Department of Education and Science which enabled the college authorities to proceed with updating the male accommodation on the upper floor of Lancaster House and the accommodation on the first floor of the study Block renamed as the Thirties Block.

After long discussions on the Academic Board various development schemes were examined. Finally it was agreed that it would only be possible to increase numbers of nine hundred or more by the adoption of a staggered year. In November 1966 detailed reorganisation to accommodate one thousand students was produced by the Principal and accepted by the Academic Board and the governors. This scheme provided for approximately one third of the student body would be either on vacation or on teaching practice during term time.

With this agreement within the college hard negotiations with the Department of Education and Science took place. Senior officials of the Department of Education and Science paid a visit to the college in February 1967. It was agreed that a viable expansion scheme would be required to undertake substantial capital developments in order to make this scheme workable. It was estimated that the scheme would require £80,000 of which the government would contribute 80% of the money.

At this point in time the student body had not been included in the discussions. In April 1967 the Principal referred the scheme to the student

body. The Students Union Council established a sub-committee comprising six persons to consider the scheme and report back to the Principal.

The student reply came in October 1967, which meant rejection of the proposal. Grounds for refusal were articulated in detail. Firstly the staggering of the year groups over a 2 week year would hamstring the Students Union, disrupt student social life and adversely affect the academic work of the college. In addition the report drew attention to the immense strain which further expansion would place on student accommodation and teaching practice facilities. The students' committee stressed that it was preceded by adequate building developments and not accompanied by re-organisation according to any kind of modified *Cox and Box* scheme.

As a voluntary college Borough Road College had a governing body, which had a considerable degree of independence. However the rapid increase in the number of staff meant that the constitution of the Academic Board had to conform to the recommendations of the Weaver Report. In particular the membership of the Academic Board had to comprise a small number so that the work of the Academic Board could be discharged effectively.

Reforms of the internal government of colleges of education were examined by a study group chaired by Mr T R Weaver. This report, which was published in 1966, was entitled *The Government of Colleges of Education*. The report recommended that the governing bodies of maintained colleges, which currently had to be sub-committees of the Education Department, should be made independent bodies having representatives of the LEA, the associated university, the academic staff, local teachers and other persons with the concern for teacher training or specialist subjects. The governing body would delegate to its Academic Board the power to deal with all academic matters. In order to implement some of these reforms it was necessary to put them into legislation which occurred when the 1968 Education Act was passed.

The Weaver Report recommended the inclusion of staff representatives on the governing body of the college. Two representatives from the Academic Board from the Academic Board, namely Mr H R Hambling (Head of Physics) and Mr D Hill (Head of Geography) were elected to represent the staff on the governing body. Overall the Borough Road College governing body included three London University professors, two local head teachers, three representatives from the British and Foreign School Society, as well as

college representatives, all of whom had an interest in education but also had some expertise in academic, financial and relevant local interests. Some of the membership had previously been students of the college e.g. C B Thurston – Head of Isleworth Grammar School.

In 1967 the Academic Board was re-organised on representative lines with ex-officio places for the Principal and his deputies, all Principal Lecturers holding responsibility allowances, other heads of department (changing session by session) and the remaining members of the Academic Board elected by the teaching staff (Bartle 1976 p.96).

The following year the Academic Board was further re-organised so that student representatives were admitted to some of the sub-committees of the Academic Board. The year after the re-organised composition of the Academic Board had become operative, two student representatives were also placed on the governing body, one of whom was the President of the Students Union.

The student representatives were invited to participate in which disciplinary procedures with the establishment of a staff-student disciplinary committee. Every student had a right of appeal from the decisions of this committee and the Academic Board to an Appeals sub-committee of the College Governors. The students also had their own disciplinary committee which had the power to impose fines on misdemeanours.

In 1967 eight colleges of advanced technology, including Brunel College of Advanced Technology, received a Royal Charter enabling it to become Brunel University. With this new designation the National Council for Technological Awards became redundant.

In the latter half of the 1960s ten colleges of advanced technology received Royal Charters thereby making them universities. Thus Brunel College of Technology became Brunel University. Hence there was no longer any need for the National Council for Technological Awards. It was suggested that the National Council for Technological Awards should be replaced by a Council for National Academic Awards (Robbins 1963 p.143).

The year after the reorganised composition of the Academic Board had become operative, two student representatives were also placed on the governing body, one of whom was the President of the Students Union.

The original plan for expansion was to be continued immediately after Phase 1 was finished. Unfortunately the next phase of development was delayed due to a lack of sufficient funds. Luckily a 75% grant from the Department of Education and Science was forthcoming but this amount of money was just sufficient to bring the accommodation for male students on the upper floor of Lancaster House and the first floor of the Study Block, renamed the Thirties Block.

On the opening of the new buildings in Phase 1 the old large building, which had accommodated the students of the International School, was renamed as Lancaster House and its internal rooms were significantly altered. Lancaster House became the administrative centre of Borough Road College and also provided accommodation for some of the male students. In addition in the building a reading room and a large lecture room for the English department were constructed. The old laboratory block at the rear of Lancaster House was converted to provide classrooms and workshops for the Education, Geography and Craft Departments which had been located in the Admiralty Block prior to its demolition.

As the teacher training colleges were getting closer to the universities by virtue of the work of the Area Training Organisations, it was hoped that the vast majority of students on the three year degree courses would have, on admission to the college, minimum academic qualifications comparable with the university students i.e. two Advanced level passes.

In the latter half of the 1960s decade there was a growing demand for a thorough investigation of the education and training of teachers in England and Wales. There were many critics of the complete educational system who felt that the Area Training Organisations were ineffective, the government of the colleges was authoritarian, the teaching in the college was poor, the curricula was largely irrelevant to the work being undertaken in the schools and above all the standard of the Teacher's Certificate itself was low. However there were defenders of the teacher training colleges who want an inquiry in order to refute these charges.

The BEd degree was not launched until 1968. At this time Borough Road College had its courses validated by the University of London. In order for the university to establish and validate the BEd it was necessary to create a Faculty of Education within the university. The Faculty needed a Dean, a

Board of Studies and a number of relevant subject committees in order to administer the degree which would be available at both pass and honours levels. It was agreed that the new BEd degree would have a unit-based structure. In 1968 a Select Committee worked hard and acquired a great deal of evidence from a range of organisations and people. Unfortunately a general election took place and so the work of the Select Committee ended.

In the late 1960s the professional status of teachers in maintained schools was an issue government addressed. For many years graduates were able to hold positions in maintained schools without undergoing professional training. The order for graduates to have a professional teaching qualification going to teach in maintained secondary schools was published in Circular 18/69.

Hence the long standing grievance held by teachers was finally resolved in 1969, when Circular 18/69 was established. This circular, which was entitled *Professional Training for Teachers in Maintained Schools*, was made mandatory for all graduates teaching in maintained schools. For primary school teaching this requirement was effective from people graduating after December 1969 and for secondary school teachers from December 1973. This pronouncement did not apply to teachers who were already established in maintained schools.

In 1969 the House of Commons established a Select Committee to investigate teacher education and training. The chair of the committee was Mr F T Willey. The committee stated that there were many anomalies in the different BEd awarded by the various universities. In particular the BEd award had very varied content of the courses, different requirements for entry to the degree course, there were different dates at which examinations were held and different types of awards e.g. at pass or honour levels.

The introduction of geology to the course provision at Borough Road College was introduced slowly. Initially geology was offered as a Main subject to Advanced Geography. As student numbers taking the subject combination of Geography with Geology increased so it became necessary to recruit additional staff members. Mrs Pat Wilson, who held a joint honours degree in geography and geology, was appointed in 1965. Her particular interests included geomorphology, palaeontology and earth history. In addition she had secondary school teaching experience.

Main level geology for the teacher's certificate started in September 1969. From that date advanced geography and main geology became the standard pattern of study for the vast majority of the geography students whilst the teacher's certificate existed. Student numbers increased on a year by year basis. Hence it became necessary to recruit more academic members of staff.

The Period 1970 - 1976

As the 1970s started the colleges of education had to tackle three major challenges created by a change of circumstances. Of especial importance was the rising school population which meant that more teachers would be required. Hence more teachers needed to be trained. The standard of the school teaching staff was considered to need improvement in both the quality of teaching and the knowledge which the teaching staff possessed.

To this point in time many of the school teachers had qualified taking two year certificate courses. Increasing the length of the teacher training course for non-graduates had been suggested in the McNair Report but it had not been implemented. An increase of the certificate course from two to three years would give the opportunity for every training school teachers to improve the quality of teaching.

The start of the 1970s heralded the retrenchment of teacher training places across the country as a decline in the birth rate was confirmed by Government. Hence it was envisaged that fewer teachers would be needed in the schools. The reduction in teacher training places would need to be replaced with other students undertaking a range of different higher education courses, if the overall numbers for individual training colleges were to be sustained. Hence every teacher training college needed to consider its future position.

In the 1970s there were plans to change the school leaving age from 15 years to 16 years so there was a need to train more teachers for the secondary sector. However the early part of the 1970s saw an oil crisis, which led to an economic recession covering the period 1971 - 1973.

The decade started with the publication of three major governmental reports, each of which dealt with one sector of education. Two of the reports were the outcomes of work by Select Committees on School Education in England and Wales and the third report, conducted by the Select Committee of Education and Science, considered teacher training. The James Report on teacher training was thorough and comprised six volumes.

For some time the Department of Education and Science did not permit the request for an inquiry into teacher training since the colleges were expanding rapidly. However in February 1970 Mr Edward Short, Secretary of State,

asked the Area Training Organisations to examine the issue of the education training of school teachers including their current practices and made suggestions for improving the standard of teaching.

In 1970 the University of London's Institute of Education faced a challenge. The Secretary of State for Education and Science, Edward Short, wrote to the heads of area training organisations to '*initiate a major review of content and structure of their present courses*'. Short's letter declared that there was little opportunity for a two way flow of ideas between the profession and those responsible for teacher training in relation to the content of courses provided and an inadequate consensus of opinion and the objectives of teacher education and means by which it should be obtained.

The Institute of Education had a number of concerns about contents of Short's letter. These doubts included the distribution of time between various elements, the relevance of traditional main and academic elements in the education of teachers of young children, the organisation, supervision and assessment of teaching practice, the adequacy of course in relation to practical teaching problems and the content and relevance of courses in theory of education.

The Select Committee of Education and Science of the House of Commons took evidence from many organisations and people involved in the training of teachers during the period 1969 -1970. The advent of a General Election in October 1970 caused the Select Committee to be dissolved. The new circular permitted each local authority to decide its own policy concerning the change of secondary schools into comprehensive schools within its boundaries.

Also in this circular the number of student places for student teachers was halved. Government would continue to accept proposals for individual schools to become comprehensive. Some local education authorities decided to retain their grammar schools e.g. Boston in Lincolnshire and the London Borough of Bexley. In the circular the government's aim was to ensure that every pupil had opportunities for secondary education and which was suitable for their ability and requirements.

In 1970 the Conservative Party won the general election. Margaret Thatcher, in her role as Minister of Education, removed the compulsion from local education authorities to comply with Circular 10/65. This circular had

concentrated on the establishment of comprehensive schools and it was replaced by Circular 10/70. In the circular local education authorities were no longer had to go comprehensive.

In the early 1970s higher education courses were taught in universities, polytechnics, colleges of education and technical colleges, each of which had different entry requirements for individual higher education courses. At this time the binary line separated the research-led universities from the teaching-led polytechnics.

As the 1970s started the colleges of education had to tackle three major challenges created by a change of circumstances. Of especial importance was the rising school population which meant that more teachers would be required. Hence more teachers needed to be trained. The standard of the school teaching staff was considered to need improvement in both the quality of teaching and the knowledge which the teaching staff possessed.

During the early years of the 1970s the London Institute of Education foresaw a number of problems. In particular the long established external degree system initiated by the University of London back in 1858 was threatened by the Council for National Academic Awards, the Open University and by other universities gaining their own degree awarding powers. The University of London felt that the associated colleges of education were becoming an encumbrance since the course unit structure and the number of course units was increasing for relatively students, the administration of the courses was expensive and finances were being cut back on a year by units year.

In the circular 10/70 the number of student places for student teachers was halved. In December 1970 the new Secretary of State, Mrs Margaret Thatcher, appointed a Committee of Inquiry to investigate teacher training. The inquiry was to consider the education, training and probation of teachers in England and Wales. The committee had reference to information produced by the Area Training Organisation and evidence provided by the Select Committee on Education and Science. Mrs Thatcher was anxious to have the results of the inquiry as soon as possible so she asked the committee members to work full-time and complete their report within twelve months.

In the light of the review currently being undertaken by the Area Training Organisations, and of the evidence published by the Select Committee on Education and Science, to enquire into the present arrangements for the In 1971 F T Willey MP, who had been chairman of the recent Select Committee on teacher training, published a book with a colleague R E Maddison entitled '*An Enquiry into Teacher Training*'. In their book the BEd degree was severely criticised. Mr Willey was of the view that there had been a lack of consultation and co-ordination such that different entry qualifications, different dates at which selection was made and different degrees awarded had resulted in '*such confusion as to seriously damage the standing of the degree, and the risk of permanently debasing its value*' (Willey and Maddison 1971 p. 67).

The Select Committee of Education and Science of the House of Commons took evidence from many organisations and people involved in the training of teachers during the period 1969 -1970. However the advent of a General Election in October 1970 caused the Select Committee to be dissolved. The new Circular 7/70 permitted each local authority to decide its own policy concerning the change of secondary schools into comprehensive schools within its boundaries.

Also in this circular the number of student places for student teachers was halved. Government would continue to accept proposals for individual schools to become comprehensive. Some local education authorities decided to retain their grammar schools e.g. Boston in Lincolnshire and the London Borough of Bexley. In the circular the government's aim was to ensure that every pupil had opportunities for secondary education and which was suitable for their ability and requirements.

In 1970 the new Conservative government appointed Lord James to chair a Royal Commission with a remit to investigate teacher education and training in the United Kingdom and to consider the future of the area training organisations. Fortunately the Royal Commission had access to the information already collected by a Standing Committee and the Area Training Organisations.

The chair of the Committee of Inquiry was Lord James of Rusholme. The remit of the Committee was:

In the light of the review currently being undertaken by the Area Training Organisations, and of the evidence published by the Select Committee on Education and Science, to enquire into the present arrangements for the education, training and probation of teachers in England and Wales and in particular to examine and answer the following questions:

- a. what shall be the content and organisation of courses to be provided?;*
- b. whether a larger proportion of intending teachers should be educated with students who have not chosen their careers or chosen other careers;*
- c. what, in the context of (a) and (b) above, should be the role of the maintained and voluntary colleges of education, polytechnics and other further education maintained by local education authorities and the universities.*

The Committee was asked to make recommendations.
[*Teacher Education and Training 1972 James Report*]

Mark Sleep was appointed in 1971 to support the development of geology within the geography department at Borough Road College. He held a BSc degree in oil petroleum, an advanced diploma in secondary education and had taught in the secondary school sector for several years. In addition he had spent some time working in the oil industry in the Middle East.

In 1972 the CNAEA became a BEd validating organisation in the public sector. This initiative was timely since the James Report heralded the likely merger of many colleges providing teacher training to form institutions of higher education largely within the public sector.

In the James Report a total package of preparing students for teaching was offered. It included their personal education, induction and training in their early years of teaching and in-service education whilst teaching over their career. A novel perspective on the education and training of teachers was given. Three distinct cycles were suggested. Arrangements were made for both the concurrent and consecutive arrangements for the education and training of teachers. Solutions for changing patterns of training were made.

It was suggested that the education and training of teachers should be divided into three consecutive cycles:

1. In the first instance a Diploma in Higher Education (2 years) or degree course (three years).
2. One year of professional studies leading to becoming a 'licensed teacher', followed by a school based year with at least one day a week at a professional centre leading to '*recognised teacher*' and BA(Ed).
3. A range of in-service training courses with the equivalent of one term full-time training every seven years.

In addition the report favoured the introduction of a bachelor of education degree.

The Superannuation Act of 1972 included a section on Compensation Regulations for Colleges of Education This act prepared the way for dealing with redundancies from colleges of education as mergers, amalgamations or closures took place.

In 1972 the one year postgraduate course was revived for science and mathematics graduates as the number of graduates preparing to teach these subjects in schools was low. The award was a Graduate Certificate in Education (Bartle 1976 p.92).

In 1972 Government sought to close the binary line, which had become an obstacle to further progress in getting more students into higher education. In December 1972 the government published their reactions in the form of a White Paper entitled '*Education: A Framework for Expansion*', in which the establishment of a single framework for higher education was outlined.

This paper clearly articulated the aims of government. Overall number of students in higher education was to be increased from around half a million to three-quarters of a million over a ten year period. Furthermore there was a commitment to establish a single framework for higher education over the same time period.

With reference to the training of teachers the government confirmed:

1. integration of the colleges of education into the family of higher education institutions;
2. working towards an all-graduate profession;
3. improving arrangements for control and coordination of teacher training and supply on both nationally and regionally;

4. re-enforcement of the induction process for new teachers;
5. large expansion of in-service education;
6. improvement of the training of teachers in Further Education.

In 1973 the University Grants Committee (UGC) and the CNAA jointly agreed to establish a Study Group to produce guidelines for a new BEd degree. The study group which published its report in 1974 made a statement that the proposed new degree would differ from the existing BEd degrees:

'it will be designed.... As a course of higher education in which the initial training of a teacher is integrated, rather than being based on qualification through the Certificate in Education course'

[The Times Educational Supplement 17th May 1974 p.18]

The first half of the 1970s decade brought considerable upheaval to the colleges of education. Government stated that there needed to be reorganisation of teacher training as fewer teachers were going to be needed in the schools in the future. Initially Borough Road College hoped to stand alone as it was one of the largest colleges of education in the country. However the concept of standing alone was soon dismissed when it was apparent that teacher training numbers had to be reduced substantially. Hence merger with one or more institutions was required.

In the local vicinity of Borough Road College in Isleworth were Brunel University, Ealing College of Higher Education, Maria Grey College and two colleges of further education, namely Twickenham College of Technology and Chiswick Polytechnic. For Maria Grey College it soon became apparent that the institution could not remain on its own. Hence different possibilities needed to be considered. For Maria Grey College there were three main possibilities needed to be considered.

In the autumn of 1973 Maria Grey College and Twickenham College of Technology entered preliminary discussions with staff and student representatives of both institutions concentrating on pre-degree courses. It soon became apparent that complementary work would be difficult and there were limited opportunities for expansion. As a result of these discussions it was concluded that such a merger would be impossible.

A formal relationship with Brunel University was also considered. The university did not have a faculty of arts or a school of education and it was

keen to expand its academic offerings. Negotiations started but soon a number of problems became apparent. These problems include finances, staffing, validation of courses and entry qualifications. Unfortunately Brunel University was financed by the University Grants Committee and such a merger was impossible. Furthermore the Department of Education and Science rejected the idea. This plan was abandoned.

A third possible plan involved an arrangement between the two Hounslow technical institutions and the two colleges of education sited within the London Borough of Hounslow. The local authority was keen to pursue this option as it had a problem of limited accommodation for the expanding Chiswick Polytechnic. However it was soon apparent that the Department of Education and Science did not favour this plan and required a definitive response to a final proposition as soon as possible.

After long discussions with the three institutions, namely Borough Road College, Maria Grey College and Chiswick Polytechnic, it was mutually agreed that this plan should be implemented if the Department of Education and Science agreed. Borough Road College, Maria Grey College and the higher education work from Chiswick Polytechnic would form a new institution to be called the West London Institute of Higher Education.

There were still a number of hurdles to be overcome. However the proposal was to be forwarded to the Department in order to meet the deadline date for the response. The plan was accepted and work started on the merger.

The circular made it very clear that the Government intended to make most colleges of education to find their future in the public sector of a precisely delimited binary system of higher education. Furthermore change was to take place as soon as possible. The circular requested the LEAs to submit by November '*interim*' proposals for their maintained colleges. Final plans had to be deferred until the new local authorities were established under the 1972 Local Government Act. This act became operative on 1st April 1974 and the DES requested the submissions should be made as soon as practicable after the new act became operative.

In 1973 Circular 7/73 set about reorganising teacher education nationwide. A dip in the birth rate had been identified, which meant that there would be fewer children in the schools over a period of years. Hence it was proposed that the number of student teachers taking the certificate course in teacher

training colleges should be reduced. Instead graduate teachers would be encouraged to take a one year postgraduate teacher training course.

The order for graduates to have a professional teaching qualification going to teach in maintained secondary schools became operative from December 1973 (Circular 18/69 1969).

The LEAs were told that they were *'not merely the planning of a marginal expansion of higher education.... but rather a major reconsideration of the future role of colleges of education both in and outside teacher training* (DES 1973 Circular 7/73 para.4).

Also in the same year the Department of Education and Science asked local authorities to submit interim proposals on the re-organisation of their higher education provision by November 1974 (Bartle 1976 p.104).

Circular 10/70 was later withdrawn by Circular 4/74, which published and reaffirmed Labour's intention to proceed with privatisation.

'...it will be designed ...as a course of higher education in which the initial training of a teacher is integrated, rather than being based on qualification through the Certificate in Education course'
[THES 17th May 1974 p.18]

Before the end of 1975 the Department for Education and Science had proposed and the British and Foreign School Society agreed to close two of its colleges, namely Darlington and Saffron Walden.

The University of London agreed to introduce a range of new degree awards from 1975 for colleges having been associated with it over the years. It was decided that the degree awards BA, BSc, BHum and BEd would all have a unit based structure.

For the University of London and its Institute of Education there were a number of concerns. In particular the London external degree system was threatened by organisations also having degree awarding powers, namely The Council for National Academic Awards (CNAA), the Open University (OU) and other universities having degree awarding powers.

Many of the colleges of education having had a long association with the University of London underwent considerable re-organisation as a result of the James Committee's recommendations. In particular the colleges were strongly encouraged to diversify their courses provision. Indeed a significant number of these colleges of education were merged and as a result their course offerings and names changed. Some other colleges of education merged and their names were amended to institutes of higher education. These changes took place in an attempt to widen their course provision and thereby increase their student numbers. Also some of the colleges of education sought an alternative validating authority to the University of London.

One of the institutes of higher education was formed by two colleges of education namely Borough Road College merging with Maria Grey College and the higher education work at Chiswick Polytechnic to form the West London Institute of Higher Education. Whilst the former colleges of education had their courses validated by the University of London, the work coming from Chiswick Polytechnic comprised a number of courses not validated by any university but rather vocational awarding bodies like BTEC and the City and Guilds Institute. At first West London Institute of Education continued its association with the University of London whilst the effects of the merger were evaluated.

However for some years after the publication of this report the structure of BEd degrees continued to show considerable differences from university to university and from institution to institution in the public sector offering the BEd degree.

The reorganisation of the training of teachers across the London area under the auspices of London University changed dramatically. A number of teacher training colleges were closed whilst other colleges became part of nearby polytechnics. In this massive reorganisation three new institutes of higher education were created involving six colleges of education, of which West London Institute of Higher Education arose from the merger of Borough Road College and Maria Grey College.

With these very significant changes there became a reduced number of institutions with an allegiance to the University of London. Some of these institutions sought to gain alternative validation for their courses from

CNAA or other universities. As a result the number of students taking University of London validated degrees started to reduce.

Despite these threats the University of London agreed to introduce new degree awards from 1975 for colleges wishing to remain with the University of London. The degree awards were dictated by the recommendation of the James Committee which reported in 1972. The new awards were to have a unit structure. In this connection three year degrees called BA, BSc, BHum and BEd Ordinary degrees were introduced. In addition a four year BEd Honours course for teacher training students was also made possible.

Prior to merger the two colleges of education had approximately the same number of full-time equivalent students. However the distribution of the number of student intake was very different. For Maria Grey College there was a long standing commitment to women who wished to train on a part-time basis whilst for Borough Road College most students were male and took their courses full-time. Further a significant number of the Borough Road College students took concurrent degree programmes.

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In 1976 the Department of Education and Science outlined the compensation to staff made redundant from their post in a college of education as a result of the re-organisation of further and higher education which became known as the '*Crombie Code*'. Over a period of several years it afforded staff the opportunity to take early retirement if it was helpful to the efficient running of the new higher education institutions.

After the DES had agreed the composition of the new institute of higher education, there was an urgent need to attend to overcoming the problems of uniting a local authority and a voluntary college of education and part of a local technical institution. The voluntary status of Borough Road College needed to be maintained as it had a Royal Charter, which was given in 1906 (Bartle 1976 p.32). Hence an independent trust needed to be established to which the local authority and the British and Foreign School Society contributed. The new institution would become an institute of higher education under the joint control of the local authority Hounslow and the British and Foreign School Society.

The University of London, which validated the degree work in many colleges of education in the London area, expressed some concerns that its student numbers were in decline as other universities sought independence from them.

The colleges of education and the technical colleges were much more vocationally orientated as they prepared people for the world of work. In order to expand the number of higher education places it was necessary for some institutions, especially the colleges of education, to substantially diversify their range of courses. It was hoped that the binary line, which had become an obstacle to further progress in getting more students into higher education, could be removed by the changes which government was proposing.

In the early 1970s Borough Road College geography staff had been engaged in designing a BA Combined Studies degree courses for starting in the autumn of 1974. The subjects involved in the submission were English, French, Geography, History, Mathematics and Religious Studies but it was not validated. At around the same time a BSc Combined Sciences degree was proposed. This degree comprised the subjects of Geography, Geology and Biology. However this submission was also rejected.

The Circular requested Local Education Authorities to submit by November 1973 interim proposals for their maintained colleges. The final plans suffered some delay as the new local education authorities were not confirmed until 1st April 1974. The Local Education Authorities were told to radically consider the future role of teacher training colleges both with their traditional course provision but new and initiative means of increasing numbers with students taking a wide range of non teaching courses. The end of November 1974 was the deadline set for the local education authorities to submit their plans to the Department of Education and Science. Discussions between all relevant parties took place in the first half of 1974 and decisions started to be announced from August 1975.

In the summer of 1974 a senior officer of the Department of Education and Science, by name Mr H A Harding, visited Borough Road College to attend an Academic Board meeting. At this meeting Mr Harding put forward the Department's proposal that the college should merge with the more advanced work at Chiswick Polytechnic in order to develop '*diversified*' courses without any teacher training element. The advanced courses would be sited on the Borough Road College site with non-advanced courses kept at Bath Road, Chiswick and Isleworth Polytechnic. Maria Grey College would be urged to amalgamate with Twickenham Technical College form a new College of Higher Education (Bartle 1976 p.104).

In 1974 inflation started to mount. As a result there were a number of consequences of this rise in inflation giving rise to unemployment, industrial conflicts and currency depreciation.

In 1974 the Houghton Report examined the pay of non-university teachers in Great Britain. The report proposed new salary structure for staff in teacher training establishments. Further the salary scales were to be common to all institutions of higher education and further education outside the

universities. This recommendation paved the way for the arrival of institutes of higher education.

This review of course provision within the teacher training colleges triggered a significant change in the landscape of higher education. Some teacher training colleges were shut completely, some remained free standing, some merged with polytechnics, some merged with further education colleges and a very small number of teacher training colleges merged with other teacher training colleges. The merger of Borough Road College with Maria Grey College and several departments from Chiswick Polytechnic would be facilitated.

At that point in time Borough Road College was aware that the University of London was going to discontinue the BA General degree. Hence it was agreed that the submission should be sent to CNAAC for validation. A team of experts representing the CNAAC visited the college for a validation event. Unfortunately the CNAAC team failed to validate the BA degree course programme in which each degree proposal involved two subjects. Due to these poor responses from the CNAAC the college decided to remain with the University of London.

In the early 1970s higher education courses were taught in universities, polytechnics, colleges of education and technical colleges, each of which had different entry requirements for individual higher education courses. At this time the binary line separated the research-led universities from the teaching-led polytechnics.

The colleges of education and the technical colleges were much more vocationally orientated as they prepared people for the world of work. In order to expand the number of higher education places it was necessary for some institutions, especially the colleges of education, to substantially diversify their range of courses. It was hoped that the binary line, which had become an obstacle to further progress in getting more students into higher education, could be removed by the changes which government was proposing.

Entry to higher education courses normally required at least two Advanced Level passes for undergraduate courses. Special entry requirements were given for mature students who had relevant vocational qualifications and/or work experiences. Alas significant numbers of students entering initial

teacher training courses often did not have two Advanced Level passes or equivalent. However a few colleges of education, including Borough Road College, had a very significant number of well qualified applicants since many of them entered the institution to take concurrent BA and BSc degree programmes. These degrees were taken as external London University students.

Also at this point in time the colleges of education associated with the Institute of Education were undergoing extensive changes resulting in mergers or closures. As a result the number of colleges was significantly reduced. As new larger institutions emerged the nature of their course provision changed. Sometimes a different validating authority for their courses was sought. For example Borough Road College and Maria Grey College became West London Institute of Education. Initially the University of London validated its courses provision as both colleges of education had their Teacher Certificate courses validated by the university.

Nevertheless in response to the recommendations of the James Report, the University of London agreed to introduce new degrees from 1975 for the colleges of education associated with its Institute of Education. The new degree courses, namely BA, BSc, BHum and BEd, were to have a course unit structure.

The new course proposals had to be prepared for insertion of the 1975/1976 well in advance. The prospectus giving details of the new course proposals were articulated. These included:

- a. 3 year BA Combined subject degree and
- b. 3 year BSc combined subject degree both validated by the University of London
- c. 3 year course leading to CNAA BA Honours and BSc Pass degrees
- d. 2 year Diploma of Higher Education

The prospectus outlined the facilities available for the study of Geography and Geology on the Borough Road site.

The department of geography maintained two practical laboratories as well as a number of lecture and seminar rooms. There was an extensive range of land use and geological maps as well as a large range of British and foreign large scale maps. Equipment included a weather station, an experimental

tank for studying river characteristics, a range of surveying equipment, a full range of audio-visual apparatus and soil surveying equipment.

Practical courses within both Geography and Geology provided experience in a variety of techniques including quantitative methods. Geomorphology, climatology, biogeography, economics, historical geography and regional geography were specific aspects of the course, all of which had practical applications.

In the final year of the certificate or degree course a dissertation was compulsory. The choice of subject for the dissertation was made by the student who was assigned an academic advisor. The topic could be selected from physical geography or human geography.

Field work was an integral aspect of both the Geography and Geology courses. A field class was held during each year of the certificate and degree courses. The field trips were held in different parts of the country. Venues for the field classes included the Vale of Pewsey, Forest of Dean, Swanage and North Wales.

In January 1976 the Association of Teachers in Colleges and Department of Education (ATCDE) amalgamated with the Association of Teachers in Technical Institutions (ATTI) to form the National Association of Teachers in Further and Higher Education (NATFHE). In the following month a new Burnham Committee for Further Education was formed by merging the Pelham Committee, the Farm Institutes Committees and the old Burnham Committee and Higher Education.

In 1976 Borough Road College and Maria Grey College merged to form West London Institute of Higher Education. Within the Geography department of Borough Road College David Wedden and Alan Hamlin were granted recognised teacher status within the Faculty of Education and Iris Turner was granted recognised teacher status in the Faculty of Science whilst at Maria Grey College David Gowing and Mike Turner were also granted recognised teacher status in Faculty of Education. As a result status these staff members were able to actively participate in the design of the units for the BA, BSc, BHum and BEd degrees with their University of London representatives.

The year of 1976 saw the end of Borough Road College as a separate educational institution. Its merger with Maria Grey College and with some of the higher level work from Chiswick Polytechnic created the new institution of West London Institute of Higher Education.

Epilogue

Joseph Lancaster's name became known across the world as his trained teachers went to other countries in order to promote his system of education. Lancasterian schools were early established in the United States of America and in time each continent had such schools. Even today Joseph Lancaster's name is known to every trained teacher.

Over a period of two hundred years, many thousands of trained teachers have continued Joseph Lancaster's work. Many of these teachers have inspired younger persons to follow Joseph Lancaster's lead and become teachers. In addition some of the teachers have subsequently progressed to other professions including journalism, members of parliament and industrialists.

More particularly trained teachers from Borough Road College have reached all levels in education as educational administrators, chief county education officers, heads of schools, heads of colleges, university lecturing staff, inspectors of schools and colleges as well as HMIs. A significant number have been given national awards including knighthoods, MBEs, CBEs as well as military awards for gallantry in the two world wars.

The summer of 1976 saw the end of Borough Road College as a separate educational institution. At this stage the British and Foreign School Society ceased to have responsibility for its last teacher training college. Hence the Society turned its attention to utilising its monies, amassed from the sale of its teacher training colleges, to help disadvantaged children anywhere in the world. Its motto is *Maximising Educational Opportunities for All* and still in 2014 is a flourishing charity.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: The British and Foreign School Society Manifesto

The Royal Lancastrian Institution for the Education of the Poor was founded in 1808. It proposed to provide a non-sectarian education. At this point in time Anglicans and non-conformists were on the committee.

In 1811 an address of the Committee for Promoting the Royal Lancastrian System for the Education of the Poor was made. In this manifesto address the Committee outlined its plan to improve the education of the children of the poor.

Address of The Committee for Promoting The Royal Lancastrian System for the Education of the Poor.

The present address is made to those who, wish to see all the good bestowed upon the lower orders of their species, of which their place in society permits. To all those who are not strangers to so humane a sentiment, it is an invitation to ask their own reason, whether the education of the poor is not an advantage of this description; and to afford u their aid, if we can prove to them that it will be attended with the most beneficial effects.

We present to their consideration a plan or extending to the poor the knowledge of reading, writing, and common arithmetic, more efficacious, and more economical in respect to both time and money, than has hitherto been conceived to be within the sphere of possibility. It is a plan which, while it calls upon the superior and middling classes for nothing that admits the name of a sacrifice, promises to bestow upon them more able and more trustworthy associates in all the circumstances pf life, in which we are dependent upon the cooperation and fidelity of our subordinate brethren. It is probably not sufficiently considered to what an extent that dependence reaches. The poor are our inmates and our guardians. They surround our tables, they surround our beds, they inhabit our nurseries. Our lives, our properties, the minds and the health of our children are to an inconceivable degree dependent upon their good or evil qualities.

According to the system, which Mr Lancaster has not only established, but already reduced to practice, and of the practical efficacy of which the most satisfactory experience has now been obtained, the children of the poor, before they are old enough to work, can be completely taught the valuable acquirements of reading, writing and arithmetic, at an expense, even in the

metropolis, of little more than five shillings per annum of each. It follows evidently from this most important fact, that be a combination requiring very slender efforts among the benevolent and public- spirited members of the community, those useful attainments may be extended to the whole of the rising generation, and the pious wish of the SOVEREIGN be fully accomplished, *'that every poor child in the kingdom should be able to read the Bible'*.

The points of utility naturally connected with this event are of tow kinds, and both in the higher degree important. The first respects the purposes to which the faculties in question might be turned in the different offices which devolve upon the lower orders. The second respects the frame of mind which is created during, and by the acquirement.

1. It is surely unnecessary to point out the innumerable modes in which the faculties of reading, writing and accounting, render the lower orders more useful coadjutors to us on those occasions in which we stand in need of their services; as domestics, as artisans, as manufacturers, as persons intrusted with the guardianship, the transfer, the improvement of our property in a thousand ways. It is possible that any man capable of recalling to his mind the number and importance of these occasions, can doubt of the prodigious advantage derived to society from so great an addition to the useful faculties of the operative members of the community.

2. But, high as this advantage ought evidently to be ranked, it is still very inferior to that which arises from the frame of mind created by the *discipline* of education; by the habits of order, and of the love of rational esteem, which it is its nature to *engender*. Let us but reflect upon the different modes in which the time required for education is spent by the children of the poor, when in a school like that of Mr Lancaster's, and when at no school. If at no school, their time is for the most part at their own disposal; it is spent with idle companions like themselves, in all the disorderly courses of which idleness is the parent. Their life is (upon their own scale) an exact picture of that irregularity in the grown man, which produces almost all the unprofitable and dangerous members of society; and it cannot, from the known laws of the human constitution, operate otherwise than as a most fruitful seminary of this unhappy description of persons. In a school of Mr Lancaster's, on the other hand, the children are inured to habits of order and subordination. They are delivered from idleness, and from the daring and disorderly courses for which it gives a taste. They become habituated to

strive with one another for superiority in useful arts, and to look for praise from the attainment of real excellence. Who sees not that in the one course of training there is every chance of rearing valuable members of society? Who sees not in the other there is every chance of rearing precious ones?

For the particular methods pursued in Mr Lancaster's plan of education, we must refer to his own publications. One regulation it is necessary to state. In order to obviate the scruples which parents and guardians attached to any particular form of christianity might feel with respecting to the religious instruction imparted in Mr Lancaster's schools; and in order to extend the benefits of his plan of education to all the religious denominations of the community, instead of confining them to one or a few, it is an inviolable law to teach nothing but what is the standard of belief of all Christians, **THE SCRIPTURES THEMSELVES**. The children are not only taught to read the bible, but are trained in the habit of reading it, and are left entirely to the explanations and commentaries which their parents or friends may think it is their duty to give them at home.

In the Borough Road school alone 8000 children have been educated, whose parents were of the poorest description, and hitherto no instance has been noticed of any one of these children being since charged with a criminal offence in any court of justice.

The patronage which Mr Lancaster has received, particularly from Their Majesties and the whole of the Royal Family, having contributed powerfully to the general adoption of his plans, schools are now established in every county of England; several have been erected in Scotland, and some in Ireland. As the advantages of the system are more generally experienced, more numerous applications are to be made to Mr Lancaster for assistance in the formation of schools; bringing along with them an additional burden of expense, and a demand for more extended means. It is sufficiently evident, that, in order to disseminate in the most perfect manner the benefits of the scheme, persons completely trained in its practical details, are highly necessary to be employed in conducting the first operations of every newly-erected seminary. Among the youths who come under Mr Lancaster's care, it is his object to select those who appear best calculated for his purpose, and to train them up to become school-masters and school-mistresses in the new establishments which are successively formed. The instances which have already appeared, of youths of fourteen or fifteen years of age conducting with almost the regularity of a machine, schools containing

several hundreds of children, and imparting to them, with unexampled rapidity, the elements of education, afford the most gratifying proofs of the adaptation of the expedients to the great object in view. The maintenance, however, of the young persons intended for this office, during the time of their preparations, has been experienced to be the grand source of expense attending this institution, reaching far beyond the unaided exertions of any individual to supply.

[Report of the Finance Committee and Trustees of The Royal Lancastrian Institution for The Education of the Poor, for the year 1811 (1812)]

Appendix 2: Rules and Regulations of the British and Foreign Schools Society

- I. *'This Institution shall be designated institution for promoting the education of the Labouring and Manufacturing Classes of Society of every Religious Persuasion, and, for the purpose of making manifest the extent of its objects, the title of the society shall be British and Foreign Schools Society.*
- II. *This Institution shall consist of a patron, vice-patron, president, vice-president, treasurer, secretaries, life and annual members, togetherwith such officers as may be deemed necessary for conducting the affairs of the Institution.*
- III. *The Institution shall remain a school on an extensive scale to educate children. It shall support and train young persons of both sexes for supplying properly instructed teachers to the inhabitants of such places in the British dominions, at home and abroad, as shall be desirous of establishing schools on the British system. It shall instruct all persons, whether native or foreigners, who may be sent from time to time for the purpose of being qualified as teachers in this or any other country.*
- IV. *All schools which shall be supplied with teachers at the expense of this institution shall be open to the children of all religious denominations Reading, Writing, Arithmetic and Needlework shall be taught, the lessons for reading shall consist of extracts from the Holy Scriptures; no catechism or peculiar religious tenets shall be taught in the schools, but every child shall be enjoined to attend regularly the place of worship to which its parish belong.*

These rules and regulations of the British and Foreign School Society are recorded in the book entitled *A Century of Education: being the Centenary History of the British and Foreign School Society 1808 - 1908* written by H B Binns on behalf of the Society to celebrate the centenary of education. These rules and regulations were operative until 1906. In that year the Society was granted a Royal Charter and the rules and regulations were superseded in the schedule of the Charter and the Bye-laws of the Council of the British and Foreign School Society.

Appendix 3: Description of Joseph Lancaster's Classroom

THE best form for a school-room is a long square, or parallelogram. All the desks should front the head of the school, that the master may have a 'good view of each boy at once; the desks should all be single desks, and every boy sits with his face towards the head of the school.

Room should be left between each desk for a passage for the boys that the scholars in one desk may go out without disturbing those in another. It is desirable the desks and forms should be substantial, and firmly fixed in the ground, or to the floor. The ends or corners of the desks, and forms, should be rounded off, as the boys, when running quickly in and out, are apt to hurt themselves by running against them.

At the head of the school there should be an elevated platform for the master's desk, as a convenient place to overlook the school; passages should be left at the bottom and on one side of the school or on both sides when space allows. Children confined in a small school-room, can no more be expected to be in order, than soldiers can perform their exercise without a parade.*

No half desks should be placed against the walls, nor should any double desks be admitted into the school-room.

Desks so placed and constructed, merely afford pretence for idleness and play, the scholars being wholly or partly out of the master's sight.

There can be no propriety in filling a room with timber when the space is wanted for children. Desks and forms when of a broader surface than actually needful, really occupy that room, which, were they made of proper dimensions, would contain more desks, and consequently more children.

These arrangements not only conduce to order, but give facility to the master in the detection of offenders.

Wherever the floor of a school-room can be placed on an inclined plane it should be so. The master being stationed at the lower end of this plane, the elevation, of the floor at the farther end of the room, would cause a

corresponding elevation of the desks placed there, so that, from the platform the boys at the last desk would be as much in view as those at the first.

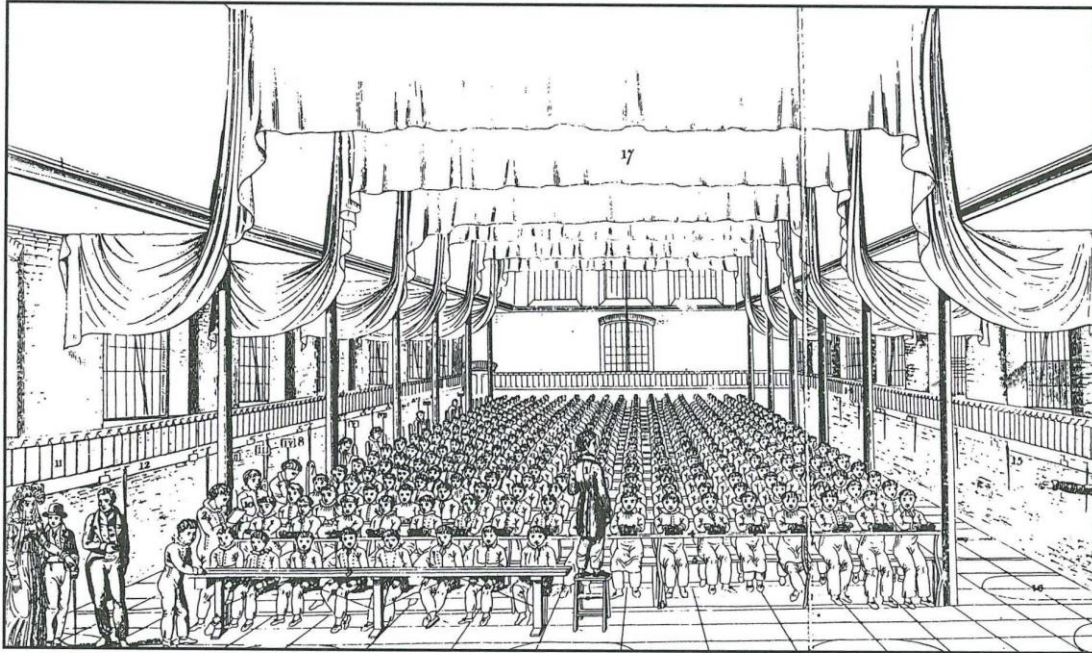
The ventilation of school-rooms is a subject which requires local consideration, but they should be built, or if already built, made as much as possible on an inclined plane. Wherever the floor of a school-room can be placed on an inclined plane it should be so. The master being stationed at the lower end of this plane, the elevation, of the floor at the farther end of the room, would cause a corresponding elevation of the desks placed there, so that, from the platform the boys at the last desk would be as much in view as those at the first.

The ventilation of school-rooms is a subject which requires local consideration, but they should be built, or if already built, made as much as possible open every way to the free circulation of air.

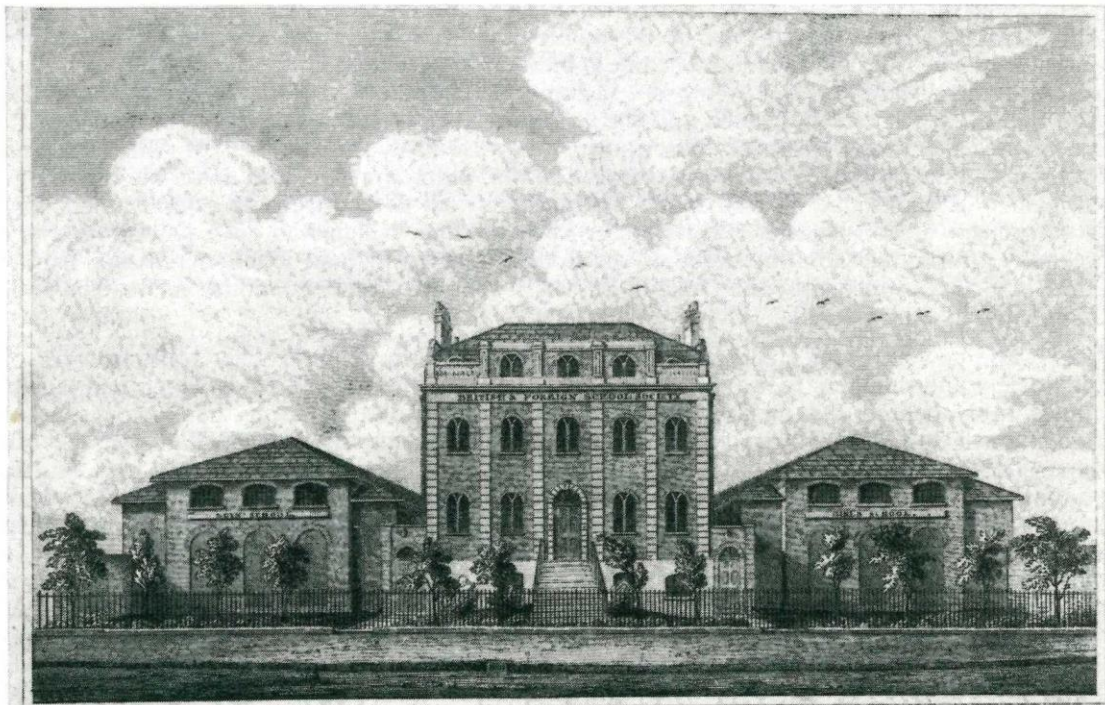
School-rooms may be warmed by under-ground flues, heated by a stove which will burn refuse cinders or ashes. This is the best mode. Any place may be sufficiently heated in this manner without the children being obliged to leave their seats to go to the fire, but this will only apply to ground floors'.

[Lancaster 1810 British and System of Education p.13]

Footnote The only remaining Lancastrian schoolroom can be seen at the British Schools Museum in the centre of Hitchin. For further details see Appendix 4.

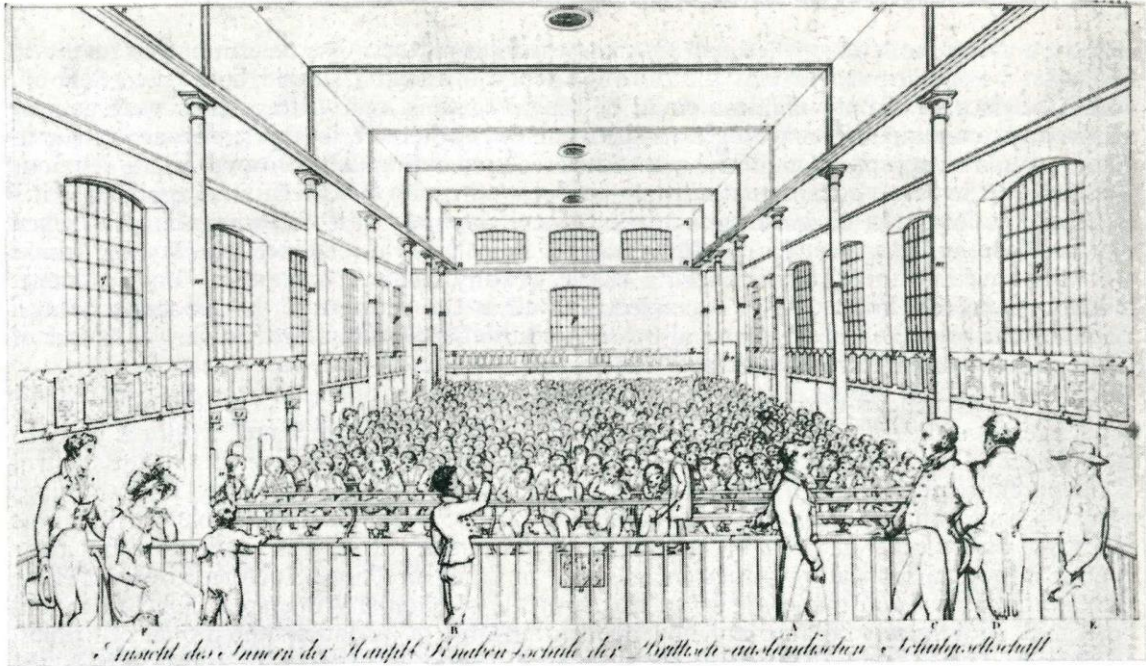


Interior of the Central School of the British & Foreign School Society, Borough Road. Circa 1814. Joseph recommended that there should be no ceiling. Curtains were later added to reduce sound.



Elevation of the Building erected for the British & Foreign School Society in the Borough Road, Southwark.

The Borough Road Normal School, 1817 (College Archives)



Ansicht des Innern der Haupt-Schule der Britisch-amerikanischen Schulpflicht

Borough Road Boys School (from J. Hamel's *Mutual Instruction*, 1818). The visitors include the Dukes of Kent and Sussex (C and D), William Allen (E), the master, John Pickton (A) and the negro monitor-general, William Jagon (B), later master of a school in the West Indies

Appendix 4: The British Schools Museum, Hitchin

The British Schools Museum is an educational museum which is located in Hitchin, Hertfordshire. The museum is a complex of buildings situated on one site in Queen's Street located in the centre of Hitchin. It consists of a number of listed school buildings, which have been graded either Grade II* and Grade II. The buildings included provision for the teaching of infant children, boys and girls. In addition there were houses for the master and mistress of the schools. In addition other more recent classrooms were built and used for the education of the local children of Hitchin.

Today the museum affords current people and children the opportunity to see the only remaining example of the original format for the Lancastrian schoolroom in the world.

The site of the museum originally accommodated a malthouse, which at the turn of the nineteenth century had become disused. The malthouse was owned by a local lawyer called William Wilshere. In 1808 William Wilshere attended a lecture by Joseph Lancaster in Hitchin. At this lecture Joseph Lancaster was promoting his ideas on education. William Wilshere was inspired by what he heard at the lecture. In particular he was fascinated to hear how children were left roaming the local streets and causing trouble. By starting his school Joseph Lancaster removed the children from the streets and gave them education at the same time. In addition trouble such as vandalism was largely reduced.

At the time of Joseph Lancaster's visit Hitchin had the same problem. William Wilshere decided that the poor children of Hitchin should have a school so that they could receive an education and in the process help to reduce vandalism. Hence in 1810 William Wilshere formed a Lancastrian school within the old malthouse, which he owned. The school opened with both sexes accepted but they were taught separately. The children followed the methods outlined by Joseph Lancaster in his various publications.

Joseph Lancaster designed his own schoolroom so that one master could teach a large number of pupils with the help of monitors at a rate of ten pupils per monitor. In one of his books a very detailed description of the schoolroom was given. The following extract is taken directly from his book entitled (Lancaster 1810 British System of Education p.13).

The schoolroom was described as:

'parallelogram, the length about twice the width. The windows were to be six feet from the floor. The floor should be inclined, rising one foot in twenty from the master's desk to the upper end of the room, where the highest class is situated. The master's desk is on the middle of a platform two to three feet high, erected at the lower end of the room. Forms and desks, fixed firmly to the ground, occupy the middle of the room, a passage being left between the ends of the forms and the wall, five or six feet broad, where the children form semicircles for reading'

'THE best form for a school-room is a long square, or parallelogram. All the desks should front the head of the school, that the master may have a good view of each boy at once; the desks should all be single desks, and every boy sit with his face towards the head of the school.

Room should be left between each desk for a passage for the boys that the scholars in one desk may go out without disturbing those in another. It is desirable the desks and forms should be substantial, and firmly fixed in the ground, or to the floor. The ends or corners of the desks, and forms, should be rounded off, as the boys, when running quickly in and out, are apt to hurt themselves by running against them.

At the head of the school there should be an elevated platform for the master's desk, as a convenient place to overlook the school; passages should be left at the bottom and on one side of the school or on both sides when space allows. Children confined in a small school-room, can no more be expected to be in order, than soldiers can perform their exercise without a parade.*

No half desks should be placed against the walls, nor should any double desks be admitted into the school-room.

Desks so placed and constructed, merely afford pretence for idleness and play, the scholars being wholly or partly out of the master's sight.

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These arrangements not only conduce to order, but give facility to the master in the detection of offenders. Wherever the floor of a school-room can be at the lower end of this plane, the elevation, of the floor at the farther end of the room, would cause a corresponding elevation of the desks placed there, so that, from the platform the boys at the last desk would be as much in view as those at the first.

The ventilation of school-rooms is a subject which requires local consideration, but they should be built, or if already built, made as much as possible open every way to the free circulation of air.

School-rooms may be warmed by under-ground flues, heated by a stove which will burn refuse cinders or ashes. This is the best mode. Any place may be sufficiently heated in this manner without the children being obliged to leave their seats to go to the fire, but this will only apply to ground floors'

[Lancaster 1810 British System of Education p.13]

The Lancasterian schoolroom had clerestory windows and pillared side aisles. The floor was sloped so that the master could have a good view of all the pupils in it. The plan was to ensure that the master could maintain discipline throughout the schoolroom. Discipline was maintained by giving commands using semaphore.

In this schoolroom the pupils sat facing the master and were taught by monitors. These monitors had been taught by the master (originally Joseph Lancaster and subsequently by his own monitors) before they taught their allocated number of pupils. The monitors were situated at semi-circular positions, commonly known as teaching stations, around the walls of the schoolroom whilst the pupils sat on benches.

The very young pupils sat in front of the master where they practised their letters of the alphabet in sand. When competent in this task, the children were allocated to specific monitors. Whilst under the responsibility of the monitors the pupils used slates for written work.

In 1837 Wilshire built a Lancastrian schoolroom on the site in Queen's Street, Hitchin. In this schoolroom the pupils sat facing the master and were taught by monitors. Altogether three hundred boys were taught with the assistance of thirty monitors. These monitors had been taught by the master (originally Joseph Lancaster and subsequently by his own monitors) before

they taught their allocated number of pupils. The very young pupils sat in front of the master where they practised their letters of the alphabet in sand. When competent in this task, the children were allocated to specific monitors. Whilst under the responsibility of the monitors the pupils used slates for written work. The monitors were situated at semi-circular positions, commonly known as teaching stations, around the walls of the schoolroom whilst the pupils sat facing the master on benches at narrow desks.

In 1849 HMI inspector J D Morrell visited the school in Hitchin. He recommended that the boys' school would benefit from a new schoolroom.

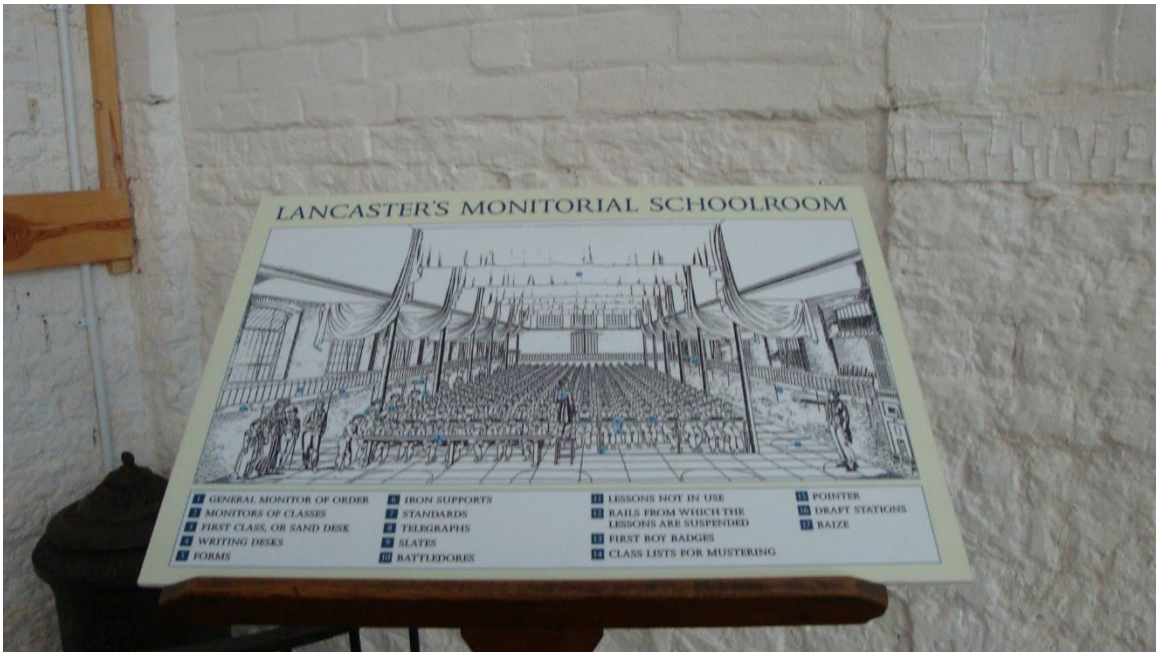
When HMI inspector Matthew Arnold visited the Queen Street School in Hitchin in 1852, he suggested that a galleried schoolroom should be built. This new schoolroom was designed to enable pupil-teacher apprentices as part of their education to view lessons given by fully qualified teachers. This new schoolroom, which was completed in 1853, provided light and airy accommodation for the 110 boys who were taught in it (British Schools Museum 2008)

In 1857, it was decided by the School's Board of Trustees to completely rebuild the Girls' and Infants' School. The new building was completed in 1858 together with adjoining houses for the Master and Mistress. When Matthew Arnold paid a return visit to the school in 1867 he reported that the new buildings were '*excellent*'.

1. A picture of the original Lancasterian schoolroom in Borough Road, Southwark
2. A picture of the Lancasterian schoolroom built in Hitchin was taken by the author on a visit to the British Schools Museum with their permission.



3. Explanatory Poster Describing the Features of the Lancaster Schoolroom in Hitchin



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Appendix 5: Regulations for Students in Residence at Borough Road College
in 1839

The teachers in training are expected:

to rise every morning not later than six o'clock;

to meet in the class-room by half-past six in the summer and seven o'clock in the winter, to commence their morning studies;

to avoid entering the bedrooms, without special permission, after leaving them in the morning. Never to go upstairs with shoes worn during the day;

to attend punctually to the daily studies at the times prescribed, viz., from half-past six to eight o'clock in the morning from October to March, and from five to seven o'clock in the evening except Saturday, on which day the class meets from nine until one o'clock in the forenoon;

to attend the school from seven to twelve, and from two to five (Saturdays excepted);

to confine themselves to their own apartment, having no communication with any other, holding any conversation with the servants; and being ready at all times to perform their duties assigned to them with alacrity and cheerfulness;

On no occasion to be absent from the premises without permission and never to be out later than nine o'clock at night;

to attend their accustomed place of worship twice on the Sabbath and to spend the remainder of the day in a suitable manner;

It will be seen that the students had a dual function – to study the system and also to work in the Model School, which was attached to the College.

[BFSS Annual Report 1839]

Appendix 6: Royal Charter

The British and Foreign School Society was incorporated by Royal Charter in 1906. Its principles were stated as follows:

1. That the development of the physical, mental, and moral nature of children is an object worthy of pursuit for its own sake – privately as a state concern.
2. That this object is best pursued by combined action – all sects and parties sinking their differences in the provision of the best educational means, and using them in the common school on equal terms.
3. That while the cultivation of religious thought, the expression of religious feeling, and the performance of religious work may, and generally do, lead up to creeds and separate churches, there are certain fundamentals of religion and morals which the intelligent reading of the Bible is the best means of encouraging.

That in accordance with the above principles the aim of the existing Society has constantly been to develop the physical, moral and mental nature of the pupils in its schools and colleges by giving them the best secular instruction and training, and by using the Holy Scriptures without any catechism or formulary distinction of any religious denomination.

That the principal methods by which this aim has been pursued may be described under five heads –

- (i) Establishing and maintaining and contributing to the establishment and maintenance of Training Colleges and other Institutions in which to illustrate the above principles and to instruct and prepare persons who, as teachers in elementary or other schools, will be able to put them into practise;
- (ii) Encouraging and assisting in the foundation and maintenance of Local Schools in England and Wales conducted according to the above principles for the benefit of the poorer classes of society of every religious persuasion, and providing such schools with school books and materials from a central depository;

- (iii) Establishing and administrating endowments for the benefit of such colleges and Schools as above mentioned, and for the provision of exhibitions and prizes tenable thereat;
- (iv) Assisting in the government and management of charitable foundations having the like objects to those of the existing Society by acting as or appointing Governors or trustees thereof and otherwise;
- (v) Propagating the above principles in British Colonies and Dependencies and in Foreign Countries.

Appendix 7: Act of Parliament

Appendix 7 Acts of Parliament

1662	Act of Uniformity
1665	Five Mile Act (otherwise known as the Nonconformist Act)
1689	Act of Toleration
1713	Act of Uniformity
1802	Health and Morals of Apprentices Act
1819	Cotton Mills and Factories Act
1825	Cotton Mills and Factories Act
1829	Catholic Relief Act
1832	Representation of the People Act (otherwise known as the Reform Act)
1833	Factory Act
1834	Chimney Sweeps Act
1834	Poor Law Amendment Act
1840	Chimney Sweeps Act
1840	Coal Mines Act
1841	School Site Act
1842	Mines and Collieries Act
1844	Labour in Factories Act

1844	School Site Act
1845	Museums Act
1847	Ten Hours Act
1847	Reform Act
1849	School Site Act
1850	Public Libraries Act
1850	Coal Mines Inspection Act
1850	Public Library Act
1850	Factories Act
1851	School Site Act
1852	School Site Act
1855	School Grants Act
1867	Representation of the People Act
1869	Endowed Schools Act
1870	Elementary Education Act (Forster Act)
1876	Elementary Education Act (Sandon Act)
1880	Elementary Education Act (Mundella Act)
1886	Elementary Education Act (known as Sandon Act)
1888	Education Reform Act
1888	The Local Government Act

1889	School Attendance Act
1889	University for London (Bryce Report)
1889	The Technical Instruction Act
1890	Local Taxation (Custom and Exercise) Act
1891	Free Elementary Education Act
1893	Half-time Act
1893	School Attendance Act
1893	Elementary Education (School Attendance) Act
1894	University of London Act
1898	University of London Commission Act
1898	Board of Education Act
1898	University of London Convocation Act
1899	School Attendance Act
1899	University of London Act
1899	Superannuation Act
1902	Local Government Act
1902	Education Act (Balfour Act)
1903	Education (London) Act
1906	School Meals Act
1907	Education (Administrative Provisions) Act

1910	Education (Choice of Employment) Act
1916	Military Service Act
1918	Education Act (Fisher Act)
1918	Teacher's Superannuation Act
1925	Teachers' Superannuation Act
1931	Education (School Attendance) Act
1939	Military Training Act
1939	National Service (Armed Services) Act
1941	National Service Act
1943	Educational Reconstruction Act
1944	Education Act
1945	Higher Technological Education (Percy report)
1946	Scientific Manpower (Barlow Act)
1954	Early Leaving Act (Gurney-Dixon Act)
1972	Representation of the People Act
1972	Superannuation Act
1972	Further and Higher Education Act
1975	Pay for Non-university Teachers (Circular 584)

Appendix 8: List of Royal Commissions

1834	Practical Operation of the Laws for the Relief of the Poor in England and Wales
1850	Great Exhibition of the Works of Industry of all Nations
1858	State of Popular Education in England
1861	The State of Popular Education in England (Newcastle Commission)
1864	The Revenues and Management of Certain Colleges and Schools, and the Studies Pursued and Instructions Given Therein (Clarendon Report)
1867	Popular Education
1868	Schools Inquiry Commission (Taunton Report)
1875 Report)	Scientific Instruction and Advancement of Science (Devonshire
1884	Technical Instruction (Samuelson Report)
1884	Gresham Report
1884	Technical Instruction (Samuelson Report)
1884	Draft chapter for the Proposed Gresham University of London
1888	Working of the Elementary Education Acts in England and Wales (Cross Report)
1889	University for London (Selborne Report)
1895	Secondary Education in England (Bryce Report)
1898	London University Commission Act

1900	The University of London Act
1913	London University Act
1926	London University Act
1946	Equal Pay Command Paper 6937

Appendix 9: Parliamentary Select Committees

1816	The Education of the Lower orders in the Metropolis and Beyond
1816	Expenditure and Public Education
1832	Operation of the Poor Laws
1834	State of Popular Education
1834	Inquiry into Drunkenness
1845	Secondary Education
1849	Public Libraries
1920	National Expenditure on Service Supplies
1969	Teacher Education and Training

Appendix 10: Publications

The following list excludes books and official government publications which are listed elsewhere.

Newspapers

The Times
Times Educational Supplement
Times Higher Education Supplement

Other Publications

Edinburgh Review
Education

The Christian Schoolmaster
The Educational Record
The Schoolmaster

Appendix 11: Principals of Borough Road College

The term '*Principal*' of the Borough Road College was not given until 1845, when the first government maintenance grant was received. In that year James Cornwell was given this title.

Dr J Cornwell	1845 – 1855
Dr J Fitch	1855 – 1863 Later Sir Joshua Fitch
Mr J Curtis	1863 – 1888
Mr H L Withers	1893 – 1900
Mr A Burrell	1900 – 1912
Mr F J R Hendy	1913 – 1919
Dr T H Miller	1919 – 1925
Mr F L Attenborough	1925 – 1932
Mr E R Hamilton	1932` - 1961
Mr K E Priestley	1961 – 1976

Appendix 12: Educational Texts Written by Masters/Principals of Borough
Road School/College

The Masters and Principals of Borough Road School/College were educationalists, who sought to spread their particular subject knowledge by writing relevant educational texts for trainee teachers.

After the name of the Master/Principal the dates of his term of office as Head of Borough Road School/College are given.

J Lancaster (1808 – 1813)

Lancaster J (1878) *An Account of the Progress of Joseph Lancaster's Plan for the Education of Poor Children and the Training of Masters for Country Schools*, London: Joseph Lancaster at Free School in Borough Road, Southwark

Lancaster J (1800) *An Account of the Progress of Joseph Lancaster's Plan for the Education of Poor Children and the Training of Masters for Country Schools*, London: Joseph Lancaster

Lancaster J (1803) *Improvements in Education as it Respects the Industrious Classes of the Community: containing, a short account of its present state, hints towards its improvement, and a detail of some practical experiments conducive to that end*, London: Darton and Harvey, Mathews J and W Hatchard W.

Lancaster J (1803) *A Report of the Rise and Progress of the School for Girls; instituted on the Royal Lancasterian System of Education, in the Borough Road, Southwark: describing the principles on which the industry of it is conducted*, Southwark, London: J. Lancaster

Lancaster J (1992) *Improvements in Education as it Respects the Industrious Classes of the Community: containing, a short account of its present state, hints towards its improvement, and a detail of some practical experiments conducive to that end*, London: Routledge Thoemmes Press (Facsimile of the 1803 publication)

Lancaster J (1804) *Outlines of Improvements Relative to Education Arising from the Establishment of Joseph's Lancaster's Free School, for the Education of Poor Children*, Borough Road, Southwark, Royal Free School, Southwark: Joseph Lancaster

Lancaster J (1805) *Improvement in Education: as it respects the Industrious Classes of the Community*, London: Joseph Lancaster Free Schools Press

Lancaster J (1805) *Improvements in Education, Containing a Complete Epitome, of the System of Education, Invented and Practised by the Author*, Borough Road, Southwark: Free School Press p. 11

Lancaster J (1806) *Outlines of a Plan for Educating ten thousand Poor children, by Establishing Schools in County Towns and Villages: and for uniting works of industry with useful knowledge*, Free School, Borough Road, Southwark: Joseph Lancaster

Lancaster J (1807) *An Appeal or Justice: in the Cause of Ten Thousand Poor Children, and for the Honour of the Holy Scriptures, being a Reply to the Visitation of Charles Daubeney, 6th June 1806*, London: Joseph Lancaster Free School Press

Lancaster J (1808) *Improvements in education, abridged: containing a complete epitome of the system of education invented and practised by the author*, London: Joseph Lancaster Free Schools Press

Lancaster J (1809) *Instructions for the Forming and Conducting of a Society for the Education of the Children of the Labouring Classes according to the General Principles of the Lancastrian or British Plan*, London: Joseph Lancaster Free Schools Press

Lancaster J (1809) *The British System of Education; being a complete epitome of the improvements and inventions practised at the Royal Free Schools, Borough Road, Southwark*, London: Joseph Lancaster Free Schools Press

Lancaster J (1809) *Hints and Directions for Building, Fitting-up, and Arranging School-rooms on the British System of Education*, London: The Royal Free Schools Press

Lancaster J (1808) *An Account of the Progress of Joseph Lancaster's Plan for the Education of the Poor and the Training of Masters for County Schools*, London: Royal Free Schools Press, Borough Road, Southwark

J Pickton (1813 – 1829)

Pickton J (1812) *The Friend of Man*, London: Royal Free School, Borough Road, Southwark

J T Crossley (1829- 1852)

Crossley J T (c1845) *Crossley's Comprehensive Class Book: including History, Physics, Natural History, Geography and Miscellanies*, London: Hamilton Adams

Crossley J T and Martin W (1863) *Manual of Practical Arithmetic*, London: BFSS

J Cornwell [1845 – 1855]

Cornwell J (1845) *A School Atlas*, London: Simpkin Marshall and Co

Cornwell J (1904) *A School Geography* (40thEd) London: Simpkin, Marshall, Hamilton, Kent and Co

Cornwell J (1853) *The young composer, or, Progressive exercises in English composition Pt.1. Comprising sentence-making, variety of expression, and figurative language, with appendices on the use of capitals and punctuation* (14th Ed)

Fitch J G (1888) *The Art of Questioning*, New York, United States of America, E. L.Kellogg and Co.

J C Curtis [1863 – 1888]

J C Curtis (1867) *Outlines of English Grammar for Schools and Colleges and Home Use*, London: Simplin and Marshall and Co.

Curtis J C (1875) *A First Book of Geography*, London: Simpkin, Marshall and Co

Curtis J C (1875) *Elements of the History of England*, London: Religious Tract Society

Curtis S J (1952) *Education in Britain 1900 – 1950*, London: Andrew Dakers

Curtis S J (1957) *History of Education in Great Britain* (7th Ed), London: University Tutorial Press

H L Withers [1893 – 1900]

H L Withers (1904) *The Teaching of History and Other Papers*, Manchester: Manchester University Press

A Burrell [1900 – 1912]

Burrell A (1898) *Clear Speaking and Good Reading, etc.*, London: Longmans and Co.

Burrell A (1912) *A Book of Heroic Verse*, London: J M Dent and Sons Ltd.

Burrell A (1922) *Bert Milnes: A brief memoir*, Letchworth, England: Temple Press

T H Miller [1919 – 1925]

T H Miller (1891) *An Introduction for the Differential and the Integral Calculus*, London: Percival and Co.

F L Attenborough [1925 – 1931]

Attenborough F L (1922) *The Laws of the Earliest English Kings (Ed. and translator)*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Attenborough F L (1926) *Cities in Sonnets*, London: Privately printed

E R Hamilton[1932 – 1961]

Hamilton E R (1929) *The Act of Interrogation: studies in the principles of mental tests and examinations*, London: Kegan Paul

Hamilton E R (1940) *Geometry (including trigonometry)*, London: University of London Press

Hamilton E R (1945) *The Teacher on the Threshold*, London: University of London Press

Hamilton E R (1956) *Memorandum on the Training of Teachers in Nigeria*,

Hamilton E R (1958) *An Outline History of Borough Road College*, London: Borough Road College

K E Priestley [1961 – 1975]

Priestley K E (1961) *Education in China*, Hong Kong: Dragonfly Books

Priestley K E (1963) *Workers of China*, Hong Kong: Dragonfly Books

Priestley K E (1964) *China's Men of Letters: yesterday and today*, London: Ampersand

Appendix 13: Reminiscences of the Second World War

The following reminiscences were given by students in residence in Borough Road College during the Second World War.

J Bohannon (1940 – 1942)

I joined the College Local Defence Volunteers, which later was renamed the Home Guard. With other students the college unit carried out night duties with factory workers from firms along the Great West Road. One of the duties to be undertaken was to lay china plates at certain places on the road in order to delay invading German forces should this action be required. Every student took his turn at Fire Watching, which involved being in college from seven in the evening until seven the next morning and by arrangement between the ten members of each watch two students stayed awake and patrolled the premises throughout every night. In addition the Vice-Principal arranged for some students to volunteer to sleep at a local hospital to assist with stretcher cases when required.

Graham Powell (1940 – 1942)

A Home Guard unit was formed at Borough Road College under the leadership of Jackie Panton, the Education tutor, who was the Captain of the unit. His Second-in Command was Mr E E Sharpe, a House Tutor. The unit was No.1 Section of the No. 9 Platoon of the 5th Battalion of the Middlesex Home Guard. Each person in the unit was given a uniform, which comprised khaki battle-dress, cap, boots, steel helmet and a raw leather belt stained brown. Rifles and bayonets were supplied but without any ammunition. Duties included stoking the boilers on a rota, night patrolling of the college buildings and grounds. In addition checking of the ID of the local populous in Old Isleworth and conducting security checks around Mogden Sewage Works, which was vital for supplying clean water for the neighbourhood.

Eric Silletto (1940-1942)

As a pacifist I required dispensation from service in the armed forces. I was called to meet a judge, who considered my statement outlining my reasons for seeking exemption. I stated that I was prepared to serve in the National Fire Service. The judge immediately granted my request.

During my service in the fire service I started in Coventry until I was sent to London where there was plenty of action. Whilst in London I had a visit to St Paul's Cathedral. Colleagues and I had to climb right to the top of the gold cross on the Cathedral in case a fire started in the roof. Later I was sent

to Portsmouth. After some time in the main fire station there I volunteered to join the crew of an ocean-going fireboat which was moored in the harbour. Also I had to work on Nelson's ship *Victory*. The experience was fascinating but climbing the rope ladder was no fun.

Towards the end of my time in the fire service I saw an advertisement for a job involving a correspondence course in Mathematics and English for professional firemen with the London Fire Brigade. Together with three colleagues we taught professional firemen to improve their education in basic subjects.

Then I returned to Borough Road College where I completed a shortened course to qualify as a teacher.

Other Interesting Information

Bombing Raids

Three high explosive and one oil incendiary bombs were dropped on the area. Luckily the oil incendiary bomb did not ignite. The bombs fell near the Great West Road, one near to the college main building and one right on the cricket pitch. We then checked that none of the students or staff had been injured. The next morning the glass from the rear windows of the main building was collected. The glazier came promptly to replace the glass in the windows. The bombs left craters. We repaired the cricket pitch with tons of fine earth gained from wherever we could find it and watered the soil so that it would settle. Later grass seed was placed on the soil. One student returning late to the college fell into the crater left by the bomb.

Sleeping at Night

Underground concrete shelters were built besides the sports pitches. Alas these shelters were damp, cold and uncomfortable.

As an alternative the students made two inch thick pine window shutters for the ground floor corridor of the main building. The shutters were made from some very heavy pine tables which had come from the original college in Borough Road in Southwark. Each evening when the sirens sounded the students took their mattresses and a blanket to that area to sleep on the floor or on benches from the dining hall.

Visits to Kew Gardens

At the weekends when free of other commitments at the college a group of students met at Kew Gardens. We would take a walk through the gardens and stroll through the hot-houses to warm ourselves. We would linger over

the hot vents in the floor of the hot-houses since the fuel ration for the college was not sufficient to keep us warm.

National Evacuation Scheme

In 1939 I took part in the National Evacuation Scheme. As an intending teacher I was given charge of ten young children on a paddle steamer together with lots of mothers with babies, pregnant women and several hundred school children with their teachers on their way from Tilbury to Lowestoft. (J Bohannon)

Summary of Iris Turner's Career



My working career spanned a period of forty-seven years. During that time I taught at a range of educational levels. Initially I taught Chemistry in several secondary schools, In 1967 I joined the staff of Borough Road College as a junior lecturer. The college was a voluntary teacher training institution under the auspices of the British and Foreign School Society. As a lecturer in Chemistry I taught potential intending students for the Teacher's Certificate, the external degree validated by London University and the BEd and BHum degrees held under the auspices of the London Institute of Education. When Borough Road College merged with Maria Grey Teacher Training College I became a Senior Lecturer in Sciences at the new West London Institute of Higher Education. From the late 1970s I became a foundation governor of Isleworth and Syon School representing the British and Foreign School Society. This position I still hold in 2015.