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## ABSTRACT

School attendance, an element at the center of educational history, not only uncovers important aspects of day-to-day history of schools, but also reflects a broad social. economic, and demographic structure of the times in which patterns of school attendance record family decisions about formal education. Rather than studying school registers to investigate who went to school, this paper demonstrates how, through the census, the gross patterns of attendance among the children of any group can be studied. A case study of Hamilton, Ontario, during the year 1851, when the mean school attendance percentage was 40.8, and 1861, when the mean school attendance rose to 57.8 , shows how, although the ethnic composition and family structures of the population remained similar, patterns of school attendance changed dramatically. Factors, in addition to age, affecting school attendance were religion, ethnicity, occupation, wealth, and family size. The source of the increase was proportional: more children to school and the difference between groups remained as they were before. Despite the rise in school attendance among every group, the poorer groups did not gain an advantage of more schooling than other groups, so that for the most part, schooling still reflected and reinforced the class structure of this mid-nineteenth century canadian city. (SJM)

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"Who Went to School?"

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[^0]"Calmly, deliberately, and advisedly, I give it as my opinion that no one other anti-progressive agent exercises so pernicious and clogging on influence on the educational growth and prosperity of Canada as irregular attendance of children in school."l The aura of profundity and revelation with which the author of this statement surrounded his remarks surely was unnecessary; by 1861, when it appeared, virtually no one associated with schools would have disagreed: Nearly all of the writers on educational problems during the last two decades had made the same point. After all, they believed, as Mr.G.A. Barber the superintendent of schools in Toronto put it in 1854, that "a numerous and regular attendance of scholars" was "the keystone of successful popular education" ${ }^{\prime \prime}{ }^{2}$ If that were the case, the success of popular education remained problematical. Judge Haggarty might have substituted the name of almost any other North American city when he told a grand jury that "the streets of Toronto, like those of too many other towns, still present the miserable spectacle of idle, untaught children, male and female - a crop too rapidly ripening for the dram-shop, the brothel and the prison - and that too under the shadow of spacious and admirably kept school houses, into which all may enter frec of cost." ${ }^{3}$

To schoolmen throughout North America securing the regular and punctual attendance of all children at school was the central educational problem of the nimetcenth century. In fact they wrote about at tendance with such monotonous regularity that their complaints
comprise a litany within educational documents whose significance, by its very frequency, it has become casy for the historian to underestimate. Despite the fact that attendance was the principal problem and preoccupation of late Victorian schoolmen, there is only one modern monograph in English on the topic. ${ }^{4}$

It is certainly the case that from first inpressions the history of school attendance seems a narrow and dry subject of little general interest. But, appearances aside, its analysis provides a fresh and provocative lead into problems central to social and intellectual developinent. To paraphrase Mr. Barber, school attendance is the keystone of educational history. A few examples should make that point clear.

First of all, the literature of school attendance both reflects and illuminates important topics in the history of social thought. One of these is the controversy concerning the role of the state in the promotion of sucial welfare. The critical decisions about school attendance policy rested on contentious assumptions about the obligations, limitations and style of the state and its relationship to essentially private groups such as the family. Three kinds of decision illustrate this point: should the provision of school facilitics assume the attendance of all or a portion of the eligible children; what, if any, degree of coercion should be applicd to bring recalcitrant children into school; what sanctions should be levied against parents who refused to send their children to school?

It is at the point that it intersects with and overlaps the histories of the family and social structure that the study of school attendance acquires broadest significance for the social historian. Patterns of school attendance may be redefined as the record of family decisions about formal education. Seen as artifacts of the nineteenth century family, shifting percentages of school attendance provide important clues into clusive areas such as: relationships between social class and parental attitude; the impact of economic fluctuation and technological advance on family fortume and behavior; or changes in the length and nature of dependency in different sorts of families over time.

Final.ly, school attendance is at the center of educational history. Its ifterature abounds in explicit and relatively uninhibited statements about the purposes and powers of formal schooling. At the same time, it reveals the major everyday problems which confronted schoolmen. Thus the history of school attendance uncovers an important aspect of the day-to-day history of schools. In the process, it wrenches us loose from our casy contemporary acceptance of universal schooling as a fact of life. For we learn the magnitude --and presumption-- of the attempt to insure the receipt of an elementary education by every child. ${ }^{5}$

The systematic analyais of school attendance in history is a vast and intricate undertaking. llowever, there arc several quite straightforward approaches with which one may begin. One, using traditional historical sources, is to analyse with carc and discrimination the statements about school attendance in educational writing and to assess
their broad social and cultural significance. This sort of analysis requires a consideration of what was said about at least the following topics: (1) why people should go to school; (2) who should go to school; (3) how long people should go to school; (4) what should be done about people who refuse to go to school; (5) for what reasons some people resist schooling. The study of activities undertaken to promote school attendance complements the analysis of the sentiments expressed in educational literature. It is possible, for instance, to study the history of truant officers, or the passing and implementation of legislation bearing on attendance, or to follow the efforts of school authorities as they experimented with one device after another to overcome the enormous social and economic handicaps that hampered their efforts to bring every child into school. David Rubenstcin's fascinating monograph, School Attendance in London, 1870-1.904, is a model of this approach to the topic.

Even if we knew all that was necessary about the thoughts and activities of people concerned with school attendance, we should still be left with at least three critical and unanswered questions: who actually went to school? What factors determined the level of schooi attendance within a community? How and why did levels of school attendance differ between communities? Through the use of quantitative sources it is feasible to attack these problems systematically. To begin with the last question --the differentiation between communitiesa variety of documents provide evidence about levels of school attendance, defined as the percentage of children of a given age group attending
school during some period of time. Using these sources, which are available at the least from quite early in the nincteenth century, one can assemble statistics which show how the level of school attendance in a given place fluctuated over time and how that level differed from place to place. The technical problems involved in assembling statistics of this sort should not be minimized, for problems of arriving at comparable rates and of assessing reliability can be very great. In this endeavour thé educational historian has much to learn from the historical demographer, who has developed sophisticated techniques to handle similar problems. There would seem to be no reason why these techniques cannot be adapted to provide reasonably reliable series of statistics on school attendance over long periods of time.

Whenever it is possible to find figures for school attendance, other social, economic and demographic information about the same place can almost always be located as well. Censuses, assessment rolls, vital statistics, educational reports and other sources may be combined to produce a composite picture of individual communities that includes school attendance, social structure, demographic character and relative prosperity. This information may then be used to construct and test hypotheses about the relation of school attendance, considered as a dependent variable, to its social context. Herc are examples of a few of the many hypotheses that might be explored in this way: school attendance varied inversely with the proportion of Irish immigrants in a community; school attendance varied directly with the proportion of
the workforce employed in professional and comercial occupations; school attendance decreased as the proportion of children employed in factories increased; school attendance increased directly with per capita wealth; school attendance increased most during periods of industrial and technological change; school attendance varied inversely with the birth rate; and so on. The list could be extended for pages. It is not a list, and this is the crucial point, that contains questions of merely passing interest. Each hypothesis that I have stated is vital to understandirg the actual functions of schooling. But there is not one of them which historians can say, with any confidence, is true.

The scarch for evidence that bears on hypotheses which attempt to explain differences in school attendance between communities should not obscure the importance oi differences within the same comunity.. As llaley Bamman shows in his essay in this collection, there were frequently striking variations in school attendance between the districts of a city. One of the most fruitful ways to approach these differences, he has shown, is to study the timing of the provision of educational facilities. His essay demonstrates that the geography of school building is central to the interpretation of attendance patcerns as well as to the study of educational purpose. The fact that a city chose to build schools in certain places and not in others reflects in part the uses which those schools were to serve, for it defines, in advance, to whom education would be most accessible.

Finally, there is the question of who it was that went to school. This may be studied in two ways: one is through school registers. Surprisingly many nineteenth century registers (lists of children attending a school) still exist. It is an intricate, lengthy but nonetheless entirely feasible procedure to trace the students whose names appear in registers to other sources, especially to the manuscript census. This in effect locates the student in the context of his family; it shows the occupations, religion and birthplace of his father and mother, the ages of his brothers and sisters, and, as well, a good deal about the structure and economic status of his houschold. This is the way in which to examine the social background of students who attended different sorts of schools. If the registers are good, the questions may be refined; for it may be possible to examine not only the fact of attendance but its regularity and duration as well. Consider just a few of the possibilities that may be tested in this way: perhaps there was little social class influence on who went to school at some point during the year but very much on the regularity and length of that attendance. There may have been a marked difference in social origins between children entering and children graduating high school. It could be the case that conmon. schools have been common in name only; since early in their history the realities of residential segregation may have kept the range of social status in most of them quite narrow. Once again these are sample questions which are both unanswered and vital to interpreting the history of education.

The other method of finding out who went to school is to begin with the manuscript census itself. Usually the cens us schedule contained a column which was supposed to be filled in if a person had attended school during the previous year. Beginning with this column, the gross fact of school attendance may be related to a host of other variables about the status and structure of the family and household. This procedure has one obvious and serious disadvantage; it confounds attendance at all types of school and $1 . t$ permits no conclusions about regularity or length of attendance during the year. It is the grossest possible measure. Nonetheless, it has the great merit of including the entire population. Nowhere have I ever seen a complete set of school registers for a community in the middle of the nineteenth century. Thus the study of registers, vital though it is, is almost always the analysis of attendance at a particular school, whereas by starting with the census one may study the gross patterns of attendance among the children of any group, religious, ethnic, occupational, or any other into which the census material can be arranged. In the rest of this essay I shall demonstrate how that may be done. In part that discussion should serve as an illustration of what may be learned through a quantitative approach to the history of school attendance; it should also point to a number of significant and intriguing suggestions about just who it was that went to school.

In the remainder of this essay $I$ shall discuss patterns of school. attendance in llamilton, Ontario, in 1851 and 1861. The information comes from the manuscript censuses of those years, which have been coded in entirety as part of the Canadian Social History Project, which I direct. ${ }^{6}$ In 1851 Hamilion, a lakeport about forty miles west of Toronto, was a commercial city with a population of slightly over 14,000. It was largely an imnigrant city; fewer than ten percent of the heads of household had been born in what is now Ontario. Most had come from Scotland, Ergland and Ireland, and about six percent had emigrated from the United States. Although Hamilton's population had increased to more than 19,000 in 1861; industrialization had hardly begun, and tine city retained many of its earlier features. Throughout the decade the ethnic composition of the population remained remarkably similar and its household and family structures altered very little. Patterns of school attendance, on the other hand, changed dramatically. The manuscript censuses contained a column headed "attended school during the past year". In more than $85 \%$ of the cases this column was completed for individual children within the household; in the remaining cases the head of the household merely stated the number of people living with him who had attended school but did not specify which particular individuals they were. There is no reason to believe that as a general rule this column was filled in unreliably. The aggregate figures for school attendance correspond reasonably to the reports of the superintendent of schools with some allowance for attendanes at private schools. They are also comparable to figures
for other cities. ${ }^{7}$ It is therefore possible to analyse the patterns of attendance they reveal witt bota degice of confidence.

At mid-century school attendance remained far from universal; within families the mean percencage of children aged 5-16 who had attended school during 1851 was 40.8 (Table 1). On the whole rather more boys than girls attended at every age level, from 3 to 20 (Table 3). However, very few of either sex $-0.4 \%$ of the three year olds, $3.9 \%$ of the four year olds and $17.7 \%$ of the five year olds- entered school before the age of six when school going became relatively common with nearly a third of the children in attendance. The years of heaviest school attendance were seven through thirteen; only then did the proportion of children excced foxty per cent" The peak years for attendance were nine through eleven, the only ages at which more than half of the children , went to school. After age 13 , attendance dropped rapidly: only $28.9 \%$ of the 14 year olds went to school, a figure which dwindled to $8.7 \%$ of the 17 year olds.

In addítion to age, religion, ethnicity, wealth and family size all affected school attendance. The least likely ethnic group to send its children to school was the Irish; less than one-third of the . children aged $5-16$ whose fathers had been born in Ireland went to school in 1851 (Table 1). By contrast those fathers who had been born in Scotland and in Canada each sent more than one-half of their schoolage children to school. Statistics for religion reinforce those for ethnicity (Table 1; ; less than thirty percent of Catholic children attended school compared to more than one-half of the children of members of the Church of Scotland and Wesleyan Methedists and over

60\% of those whose fathers were Free Clurch Presbyterians. The obvious conclusion is that Irish Catholicism and Free Church Presbyterianism, respectively, retarded and promoted school attendance. However, this explanation takes no account of other factors; it could be that Irish Catholics were poor and Scottish Presbyterians prosperous, and therein lay the difference. The point is of some importance, for it raises the question to what extent school attendance was a product of cultural and to what extent a result of economic factors.

There was no direct measure fir wealth on the census. The closest indicator is number of servants, which in fact provides quite a reliable way of separating the moderately prosperous and the wealthy from the rest of the population. There were three categories into which people could be divided on the basis of servants: those who employed none, about $70 \%$ of the household heads in 1851 ; those who employed one, about 21\% and those who employed two or more, about $9 \%$. The precise social meaning of these distinctions is not clear. However, Eric Hobshawm has argued that the employment of a servant signified middle class status in mid-nineteenth century Britain, and another historian recently claimed that the employment of two or more servants distinguished the affluent or upper class in the same period. ${ }^{8}$ The data from Hamilton support these contentions; there is a direct association between the employment of servants and economic rank when census and assessment records are joined, and, additionally, the three groups differ from each other on almost every measure that we have devised. ${ }^{9}$ School attendance is no exception. The proportion of children attending
school generally increased with the number of servants in a family (Table 1): from slightly more than one-third in families with none to more than one-half in families with one and even higher in those with two or more servants.

Thus far two quite commonsensical patterns emerge from the statistics: poor Irish Catholics sent relatively few children to school and prosperous native and Scottish families sent proportionally many. However, the relations between attendance and both occupation and family size complicate this tidy picture. The practices of men in different occupations differed widely with respect to sending their children to school, and these differences cut across status lines in a sometimes inexplicable way (Table 1). Jawyers, for instance, sent relatively few, $28.6 \%$, of their school age children to school. It is entirely possible that they hired private tutors. Yet their practice was not typical of all professionals, for doctors sent substantially more of their children, an average of about $58 \%$, to school, and merchants fell somewhere in the middle, with generally about $45.6 \%$ of their children in attendance. Craftsmen in some: trades sent more of their children to school than did some professionals and businessmen. Tinsmiths, for instance, sent $84.7 \%$ of their children to school, a figure exceeded only by the teachers, $91.7 \%$ of whose children had attended. Nonetheless, there were striking differences between trades: an average of $37.7 \%$ of the children of shoemakers had attended compared to $53.9 \%$ of those of cabinct makers, to take one example. The figure most consistent with other findings is the one for laborers, who sent the fewest children of any group, less than one quarter, to school.

Factors particular to individual trades undoubtedly influenced school attendance patterns. The high attendance of tinsmiths may have been a product of their wealth, for they were the wealthiest of the craftsmen, wealthier by and large,in fact, than people in some commercial callings, such as clerks. ${ }^{10}$ On the other hand, the relatively high attendance among children of cabinet makers and carpenters may have reflected the demands of their crafts, which called for a knowledge of mathematics; certainly in England men in both groups were noted for sending their children to school for just that reason. ${ }^{11}$

Family size is the other factor that operated independently of wealth on school attendance. Contemporary research emphasizes the connection between a small family size and educational achievement, and that finding accords well with popular stereotypes of ambitious and aspriring parents restricting the size of their families. Thus we migit expect that in the nineteenth century small families sent proportionally more of their children to school than large ones. This, however, was decidedly not the case. Among the wealthiest families, those with two or more servants, it was those with the most children, five or more, that generally sent the greatest proportion of children of all ages to school (Table 6). In fact within each economic rank it was the families with the fewest children which sent proportionally least children to school. The explanation of these patterns is not at all clear; it is a problem to phich we shall have to return when we consider the degree to which the same patterns persisted ten years later.

However, before we examine the changes in school attendance patterns that came about in the next decade, it is useful to point out that the same relationships which I have described appear even if different statistical measures are used. One different measure is the percentage of families in which more than half of the children aged 5-16 attended school (Table 2). Here, once again, the Irish and the Catholics score low, people with servants very high and the occupations present a mixed picture.

Likewise, with one or two important refinements, the same results emerge from the study of attendance among specific age groups '(Table 4). Catholics once more are the lowest of any group at each age: they sent their children to school later, they sent fewer at each age, and they removed them earliest. At the other extreme the Free Church Presbyterians still appear the most education conscious of any denomination. Similarly, among ethnic groups the Irish had the lowest percentage of attendance at every age, except the very youngest, a point to which I shall return. The people sending fewest very young children were the native Canadians, who more than compensated for this by keeping their children in school longer than men who had been born anywhere else, although the Americans were a reasonably close second. For most occupations the numbers, when children are divided into age groups, are too small to make very many meaningful statements. Nonetheless, children of laborers do appear at the bottom in every age group, except the very youngest. Merchants kept about two-thirds of their children in school through the age of fourteen, which was exceptionally high. Not surprisingly, people without
servants sent fewer of their chlldren to school at each age, with the exception of the very youngest, and removed them soonest. Among the very wealthy, it was, as in other measures, those men with the largest families who sent the most children at each age.

Some of these relations are puzzling. Why, for instance, did the poor Irish Cathofic laborers send a relatively high number of their youngest children to school when they sent so few of their older ones? Perhaps the explanation is si!mle; schools served as baby-sitting agencies for poor working mothers. It is likewise difficult to understand why, among the wealthy, a large family size promoted school attendance so sharply. Could it be that the relations between family size and school attendance represent random happenings, peculiar to that year and not to be trusted? One way to answer that question, quite obviously, is so examine the same relationships at another point in time.

III

A major change in social behavior occurred between 1851 and 1861, for school going increased dramatically. Within families the average percentage of children aged $5-16$ attending school rose $17 \%$, from $40.8 \%$ to $57.8 \%$ (Table 1). What was the source of this increase? Who was in school that had not bcen there a decade earlier? In the most general terms there are two possible answers to this question. First, the increase was disproprotional; one group of people increased their rate of school attendance very much more than the others. One variant of
this possibility is that the increase came from people who had not used the school very much before. In other words, it represented a mass invasion of tise common schools by the poor. Another variant is that the increase might represent a drive by a proup already education conscious. The middle class may have provided most of the increase, thereby extending its lead over the poor, simply by sending all rather than the majority of its childien to school. The second major possibility is that the increase was proportional; everybody sent more children'to school and the differences between groups remained as chey were before. Obvilously, the interpretation of the rise in school attendance depends upon which of these possibilities was in fact true.

The first fact of importance about the increase is that it spread itself quite evenly amonif all age groups (Table 3). There was a slight decline in the proportion of very young children, those aged 3-5, attending school, but by the age of seven the rise was marked. The age at which school attendance peaked was ten; nearly $80 \%$ of the ten year olds attended school during 1861, an increase of about $25 \%$ during the decade. In 1851 most children left school between the ages of 11 and 12; by 1861 the average school life had increased by about three years, for most students now left between the ages of 14 and 15. Likewise, the attendance of students older than 15 also increased sharply.

Despite the increase in the proportion and length of school attendance, differences between groups remalned mostly unaffected. Lach economic, religious and ethnic group sent proportionally more children to school, and the gaps between them remained about as wide
as ever (Table 1). For instance, the average percentage of children from families with no servants attending school rose about 20\%, from famdlies with one servant about 9\% and from families witis two or more scrvants, about $24 \%$. Similarly, although the mean percentage of Irish children attending rose from $31.3 \%$ to $40.1 \%$, and although the proportion of Catholic children rose in a like manner, both the Irish and the Catholics remained lowest because other groups also increased at such a sharp rate. Once more laborers sent fewer children than men in any other occupations, but, with that exception, relations between occupation and school attendance are as fuzzy as ever. Percentages of attendance continued to vary widely from one specific kind of.job to another.

Some interesting patterns do emerge from a study of specific age groups (rable 4). Among the 7-13 year olds Catholics made the greatest gain; their proportion of attendance rose from $31.3 \%$ t.0 60.1\%, a greater increase than any other group. At the same time, amons ethnic groups, Americans now sent fewer of their 7-13 year old children to school than did the Irish, a shift reflected in other figures as well and one which may reflect an influx of ex-slaves into the city. As in 1851, wealthicr children stayed in school considerably longer than poorer ones, and at every age the children of laborers went to school least often. It is important to stress this point because the laborers sent fewer children to school than either the Catholics or the Irish. This points to two conclusions: first, it was probably the more prosperous Catholic families, ones in which the father was not a laborer, that accounted for the particularly pronounced increase

In Catholic school attendance. Perhaps the sett]ement of the separate school question in the 1850s removed a barrier between aspiring, upwardly mobile Catholic families and the schools. The first Roman Catholic separate school in Hamilton was established in 1854; by 1861 it enrolled 841 pupils (Table 7). ${ }^{12}$ The second and related conclusion is that class, defined here as wealth, counted more than either religion or ethnicity in school attendance. It was the poverty that accompanied. laboring status and not Catholicism or Irish birth that did most to keep children out of school.

The one factor that remains to be examined is family size. The relations between family size and attendance, interestingly, are even sharper in 1861 than in 1851, but their direction is similar (Tables 5 and 6). The fact that a large family size did nothing to inhibit, and to the contrary frequently promoted, school attendance is clear. One place where family size was of particular importance was among very young children. Of the children aged 3-5 from small families (1-2 children), 3.1\% attended school, compared to 6.5\% from families with three or four children and $10.0 \%$ from families with five or more. Controlling for wealth modifies the findings slightly, for it appears that the relation between early attendance and family size was most pronounced among families with no servants; large families of this rank sent nearly $19 \%$ of their young children to school. Among the more prosperous familes the relations between family size and attendance are sharpest for six year olds, for large families with servants were more likely than smaller ones to send children of that age to school.

These persistent patterns reinforce, first of all, my earlier suggestion that schooling played an important role for large poor families. It provided the mother with somenlace to send young children when she had to work. For large prosperous famflies schooling may have served a somewhat different but equally important role. Education conscious parents may have commonly begun their children's education at home at about the age of six as a way of preparing them for entry into school the next year. However, in very large families this may have been difficult to do because there would simply be too many distractions. In these circumstances parents might have felt that it was important to start their children in school a year earlier than usual if they were not to lag behind the children from smaller families.

With these relationships in mind, we may turn to the general question with which this section began: the significance and interpretation of the increase in school attendance between 1851 and 1861 . Consider the following hypothesis: the economic and occupational benefits that school provides come primarily from the differential, rather than the absolute, amount received. It is, very simply, an advantage to receive more schooling than someone else. It follows from this that for any group to gain an advaiatage from prolonged school attendance it must decrease the differential between itself and other groups. Its gain must be relative as well as absolute. In Hamilton this did not happen. Despite the dramatic rise in school attendance among every group, the affluent were as far ahead at the end of the decade as they had been at its beginning. Insofar as schooling affects
social mobility, the life-chances of a poor boy had not increased very much,if at all. Extensions of educational facilities (such as those suggested by Table 7) served primarily to enable the affluent to retain their favored position. The poor had to run harder than ever just to keep from falling farther behind. ${ }^{13}$

Some factors modificd the relations between wealth and school attendance. School going served important economic and psychological functions for large, poor families and important educational ones for large rich ones. At the same time men in some trades which relied peculiarly on formal learning encouraged their children to attend school more than other artisans did. Still, for the most part schooling reflected and reinforced the class structure of this mid-nineteenth century Caradian city.

NEAN PERCENTAGE OF CIILLDN:N AGF, 5-1.6 ATTENDING SCIIOOL
BY SELECTED VARIABLLES
HNIILTON, ONTARIO, 1851 AND 1861

| Number of Children 5-16 in Family | Children 5-16 Attending School |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 1851 |  | 1861 |  |
|  | \% | N | \% | N |
| One | 29.1 | 288 | 55.3 | 187 |
| Two | 41.9 | 318 | 53.2 | 339 |
| Three | 47.5 | 230 | 52.4 | 459 |
| Four | 66.7 | 155 | 59.8 | 339 |
| Five | 60.8 | 60 | 62.8 | 240 |
| Six | 58.1 | 22 | 66.2 | 157 |
| Seven | 61.7 | 18 | 68.7 | 68 |
| Eight | 66.7 | 1 | 73.8 | 32 |
| Nine | 80.0 | 1 | 70.1 | 23 |

Age of Parent
$20-29$
$30-39$
$40-49$
$50-59$
$60 \&$ ove

| 36.5 | 78 | $\because$ | 40.6 | 106 |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 41.4 | 464 |  | 55.0 | 688 |
| 42.6 | 460 |  | 60.7 | 650 |
| 40.7 | 178 |  | 61.9 | 321 |
| 28.0 | 58 |  | 61.5 | 98 |

Birthplace of Parent
England
Scotland
Ireland
Canada West
United States

| 45.1 | 336 | 61.3 | 484 |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 51.6 | 184 | 68.5 | 342 |
| 31.3 | 519 | 49.1 | 694 |
| 53.3 | 90 | 65.8 | 134 |
| 45.9 | 88 | 55.3 | 102 |

Religion of Parent

| Anglican | 45.8 | 310 | 59.1 | 566 |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| Church of Scotland | 53.0 | 31 | 63.3 | 142 |
| Catholic | 29.8 | 334 | 42.6 | 483 |
| Free Church Presb. | 60.3 | 35 | 69.8 | 148 |
| "Presbyterian" | 47.4 | 119 | 62.8 | 100 |
| Wesleyan Methodist | 55.4 | 64 | 67.8 | 252 |
| "Methodist" | 41.3 | 113 | 49.7 | 15 |
| Baptist | 38.3 | 38 | 57.8 | 61 |
| "Protestant" | 38.3 | 115 | 60.0 | 1 |

TABLE 1 (2)

| Number of Servants | Children 5-16 Attending, School |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 18.51 |  | 1861 |  |
|  | \% | N | \% | N |
|  | - | - | - | - |
| None | 35.3 | 885 | 55.3 | 1481 |
| One | 51.1 | 255 | 60.2 | 281 |
| Two | 60.1 | 52 | 84.1 | 61 |
| Threc | 58.1 | 31 | 85.1 | 26 |
| Four | 105.3 | 11 | 78.5 | 11 |
| Five | 0.0 | 3 | 100.0 | 3 |
| Si\% | 100.0 | 1 | 100.0 | 6 |
| Seven | 100.0 | 1 | - | - |
| Eleven | - |  | 100.0 | 1 |
| Fourteen | - |  | 100.0 | 1 |

Occupations

| Baker | . | 40.6 | 8 | 63.9 | 18 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Lansyer |  | 28.6 | 7 | 58.0 | 22 |
| Blacksmith |  | 43.2 | 23 | 46.1 | 42 |
| Cabinet Maker |  | 53.9 | 15 | 56.1 | 20 |
| Carpenter |  | 45.8 | 46 | 62.4 | 128 |
| Clergyman |  | 85.7 | 7 | 86.8 | 12 |
| Clerk |  | 50.1 | 26 | 50.1 | 29 |
| Constable |  | 41.7 | 4 | 61.7 | 5 |
| Engineer |  | 25.0 | 11 | 73.1 | 12 |
| Innkeeper |  | 58.0 | 23 | 86.1 | 6 |
| Laborer |  | 24.0 | 261 | 40.0 | 378 |
| Merchant |  | 45.6 | 28 | 63.5 | 44 |
| Physician |  | 57.9 | 11 | 81.5 | 13 |
| Tailor |  | 31.0 | 39 | 56.5 | 42 |
| Teacier |  | 91.7 | 5 | 70.0 | 5 |
| Tinsmith | 4 | 84.7 | 10 | 67.6 | 15 |
| Gentleman |  | 64.8 | 29 | 90.5 | 27 |
| Shoemaker |  | 37.7 | 56 | 57.4 | 53 |
| Watchmaker |  | 41.7 | 7 | 86, 1 | 6 |

57.8

TABI,E 2

PERCENTAGE OF FAMLJIES WITH NORE THAN 50\%
OF CIILLDREN AGE 5-1.6 ATTENIILNG SCHOOL

- BY SELLECTED VARIABLLES.

HAMLLTON, ONTARJ.O, 1851 AND 1861

| Number of Children 5-16 in Family | More Than llalf Attending |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 1851 |  | 1861 |  |
|  | \% | N | \% | N |
| One | 23.6 | 288 | 47.6 | 187 |
| Two | 35.2 | 318 | \% 45.7 | 339 |
| Three | 39.6 | 230 | 46.0 | 459 |
| Four | 57.4 | 155 | 53.6 | 339 |
| Five | 58.3 | 60 | 61.3 | 240 |
| Six | 50.0 | 22 | 64.4 | 157 |
| Seven | 66.7 | 18 | 70.6 | 68 |
| Eight | 100.0 | 1 | 68.8 | 32 |
| Nine | 100.0 | 1 | 82.6 | 23 |

Age of Parent

| $20-29$ | 27.0 | 78 | 35.9 | 106 |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $30-39$ | 36.2 | 464 | 49.9 | 688 |
| $40-49$ | 36.8 | 460 | 57.8 | 650 |
| $50-59$ | 32.0 | 178 | 54.9 | 321 |
| $60 \&$ over | 22.4 | 58 | 48.0 | 98 |

Birthplace of Parent

| England | 38.7 | 336 | 58.4 | 484 |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| Scotland | 45.2 | 184 | 64.0 | . |
| Ircland | 25.8 | 519 | 68.9 | 694 |
| Canada West | 42.3 | 90 | 60.7 | 134 |
| United States | 38.6 | 88 | 46.2 | 102 |

Religion of Parent

| Anglican | 38.4 | 310 | 54.1 | 566 |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| Church of Scotland | 61.5 | 31 | 59.8 | 142 |
| Catholic | 23.3 | 334 | 39.0 | 483 |
| Free Church Presb. | 48.6 | 35 | 64.1 | 148 |
| "Presbyterian" | 44.6 | 119 | 53.0 | 100 |
| Wesleyan Metiodist | 48.5 | 64 | 61.9 | 252 |
| "Methodist" | 32.8 | 113 | 66.7 | 15 |
| Baptist | 34.2 | 38 | 55.7 | 61 |
| "Protestant" | 31.2 | 115 | - | 1 |

TABIA 2 (2)

| Number of Servants | More Than half Attending |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 1851 |  | 1861 |  |
|  | \% | N | \% | N |
| None | 29.6 | 885 | 50.5 | 1481 |
| One | 44.4 | 255 | 56.2 | 281 |
| Two | 50.0 | 52 | 75.4 | 61 |
| Three | 51.6 | 31 | 61.5 | 26 |
| Four or More | 58.7 | 11 | 82.3 | 11 |

Occupations

| Baker | 25.0 | 8 | 66.7 | 18 |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| Lawyer | 28.6 | 7 | 50.0 | 22 |
| Blacksmith | 43.5 | 23 | 40.5 | 42 |
| Cabinct Maker | 46.6 | 15 | 55.0 | 20 |
| Carpenter | 39.2 | 46 | 61.8 | 128 |
| Clergyman | 57.1 | 7 | 91.7 | 12 |
| Clerk | 42.3 | 26 | 55.1 | 29 |
| Constable | 50.0 | 4 | 60.0 | 5 |
| Engincer | 18.2 | 11 | 75.0 | 12 |
| Innkeeper | 60.9 | 23 | 83.4 | 6 |
| Laborer | 21.5 | 261 | 35.2 | 378 |
| Merchant | 39.3 | 28 | 59.2 | 44 |
| Physician | 45.4 | 11 | 69.3 | 13 |
| Tailor | 25.6 | 39 | 57.1 | 42 |
| Teacher (male) | 80.0 | 5 | 40.0 | 5 |
| Tinsmith | 70.0 | 10 | 73.3 | 15 |
| Gentleman | 48.3 | 29 | 74.0 | 27 |
| Shoemaker | 28.6 | 56 | 56.6 | 53 |
| Watchmaker | 42.8 | 7 | 45.6 | 6 |

## TAUSLE 3

SCHOOL ATTENDANCE BY AGE
HAMILTON, ONTARIO, 1851. AND 1861

## Age

| 3 years old | 0.9 | 229 | 0.4 | 277 |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 4 years old | 3.5 | 170 | 2.7 | 291 |
| 5 years old | 22.7 | 211 | 19.1 | 257 |

6 years old
7 years old 8 years old 9 years old 10 years old 11 years old 12 years old 13 years old 14 years old 15 years old 16 years old 17 years old
18 years old 19 years old 20 years old

| Males in School |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 185 |  | 1861 |  |
| \% | N |  |  |
| 0.9 | 229 | 0.4 | 277 |
| 3.5 | 170 | 2.7 | 291 |
| 22.7 | 211 | 19.1 | 257 |
| 32.9 | 149 | 41.1 | 231 |
| 52.2 | 186 | 65.0 | 186 |
| 53.9 | 154 | 71.2 | 205 |
| 61.5 | 161 | 72.8 | 169 |
| 47.8 | 138 | 79.5 | 200 |
| 58.3 | 132 | 75.9 | $170^{\circ}$ |
| 46.8 | 126 | 75.0 | 176 |
| 41.3 | 138 | 80.3 | 142 |
| 30.3 | 122 | 57.6 | 144 |
| 22.0 | 91 | 40.5 | 153 |
| 16.9 | 89 | 28.9 | 142 |
| 6.9 | 72 | 23.1 | 108 |
| 6.4 | 63 | 13.5 | 104 |
| 6.6 | 61 | 4.2 | 95 |
| 7.1 | 42 | 3.6 | 83 |


| Females in School |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1851 |  | 1861 |  |
| \% | $\cdots$ | \% | $\underline{N}$ |
| 0.0 | 226 | 0.7 | 295 |
| 4.2 | 192 | 1.8 | 271 |
| 11.4 | 167 | 14.0 | 271 |
| 32.6 | 138 | 41.8 | 227 |
| 45.9 | 135 | 58.4 | 226 |
| 42.4 | 165 | 73.3 | 176 |
| 46.8 | 154. | 75.5 | 188 |
| 54.9 | 152 | 77.7 | 166 |
| 50.9 | 106 | 72.3 | 137 |
| 40.6 | 138 | 72.1 | 172 |
| 38.5 | 109 | 69.2 | 130 |
| 27.2 | 113 | 65.9 | 126 |
| 22.0 | 100 | 42.3 | 111 |
| 12.5 | 104 | 29.7 | 118 |
| 10.1 | 89 | 19.1 | 115 |
| 11.2 | 85 | 6.1 | 115 |
| 3.1 | . 68 | 4.9 | 82 |
| 0.0 | 48 | 0.0 | 91 |


| Males \& Females in School |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1851 |  | 1861 |  |
| \% . |  | \% | N |
| 0.4 | 455 | 0.5 | 572 |
| 3.9 |  | 2.3 | 562 |
| 17.7 . | 378 | 16.5 | 528 |
| 32.6 | 287 | 42.2 | 458 |
| 49.5 | 321 | 61.4 | 412 |
| 48.0 | 319 | 72.2 | 381 |
| 54.3 | 315 | 74.4 | 357 |
| 45.1 | 290 | 78.7 | 366 |
| 55.0 | 238 | 74.3 | 307 |
| 43.6 | 264 | 73.6 | 348 |
| 40.1 | 247 | 75.0 | 272 |
| 28.9 | 235 | 61.5 | 270 |
| 19.2 | 191 | 41.3 | 264 |
| 14.5 | 193 | 29.2 | 260 |
| 8.7 | 161 | 21.2 | 223 |
| 3.5 | 148 | 9.6 | 219 |
| 5.0 | 156 | 4.5 | 177 |
| 3.3 | 90 | 1.7 | 174 |

[^1]
## 

ATTE:MDTNG SC.HOOL.
BY SBISECTED CATFGORIES
MAMTITTON, OENCARIO, 1.851 ABII 186].


TABLE 4 (2)

| Catcrory | Are. Grouns |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 3-5 | 6 | 7-1.3 | 14 | 15-16 | 17-20 |
| Number of Children in Fanily | $\%$ | $\%$ | \% | \% | \% | \% |
|  | 18511861 | 185] 1861 | 1851 186] | 18511861 | 1851 1861 | 1851. 1861 |
| One | 3.82 .3 | 18.? 38.9 | 52.9,57.9 | 55.647 .4 | 8.341 .4 | 9.41 .2 .2 |
| Two | 3.23 .3 | 28.6.50.9 | 54.9:69.8 | 30.355 .6 | 1.7.5 18.3 | 4.88 .8 |
| Three | 6.14 .6 | 27.4.40.2 | 43.973 .8 | 24.1. 68.3 | 12.836 .4 | 1.59 .2 |
| Four | 6.88 .3 | 42. $3_{\text {: }}$ 37.6 | 46.972 .9 | 19.555 .6 | 21. 535.1 | 4.711 .5 |
| Five | 9.510 .0 | 31.0146 .7 | 52.769 .7 | 34.863 .4 | 22.840 .2 | 7.68 .3 |
| Six | 13.68 .5 | 23.835 .4 | 42.7173 .9 | 19.259 .1 | 12.832 .1 | 4.37 .8 |
| Seven | 8.67 .3 | 44.048 .3 | 52.5:78.4 | 25.063 .0 | 16.335 .4 | 4.58 .7 |
| Eifght | 13.061 .1 | 75.025 .0 | 61.780 .5 | 85.783 .3 | 25.0 50.0 | 4.217 .6 |
| Nine | 8.311 .8 | 40.033 .3 | 61.888 .8 | 42.981 .8 | 22.244 .4 | 21.43 .6 |
| Ten | 0.0; 0.0 | 0.0: 0.0 | 23.140.0 | 50.0 0.0 | 0.050 .0 | 0.1 .0 .0 |
| Eleven | - : - | $0.01-$ | 37.5 - | 0.0 | 50.0 | $0.0 \quad 50.0$ |
| Thelve | - 0.0 | - - | 0.0100 .0 | 0.0 - | 0.0 | - ' |
| Occupation |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Baker | 0.0 ¢ 6.7 | 100.040 .0 | 63.686 .7 | 0.066 .7 | 0.0:50.0 | 0.0 .28 .6 |
| Lawyer | 0.0 12.5 | 16.7:25.0 | 44.4180 .6 | ${ }^{1} 100.0$ | - 110.0 | 0.0'1.1.1 |
| Blacksmith | 13.3:2.5 | $40.0 \div 41.7$ | 57.967 .2 | 50.050 .0 | 0.023 .5 | $0.0 \cdot 0.0$ |
| Cabinet Iaker | 0.0:0.0 | 0.050 .0 | 65.6183 .9 | 75.0 75.0 | 0.060 .0 | 12.50 .0 |
| Carpenter | 8.5:8.1 | 42.9.44.1 | 54.0) 75.0 | 27.880 .0 | 26.940 .0 | 7.7. 7.8 |
| Clergyman | 0.00 .0 | 50.066 .7 | 35.3:93.8 | $0.0 \cdot 100.0$ | 50.066 .7 | 0.0 :40.0 |
| Clerk | 16.7 5.4 | 50.042 .9 | 63.6176 .2 | 0.080 .0 | 0.060 .0 | 0.0 0.0 |
| Constable | 0.00 | : 50.0 | 42.9100 .0 | 0.0 .100 .0 | 0.050 .0 | 0.0 : 0.0 |
| Engineer | 0.0 20.0 | 20.0;50.0 | 40.0175 .0 | 0.0 | $0.0 \div 33.3$ | 0.030 .0 |
| Innkeeper | $8.7 ; 0.0$ | 100.0:100.0 | 84.275 .0 | 20.0 100.0 | 25.050 .0 | 16.733 .3 |
| Laborer | 4.74 .4 | 17.926 .9 | 30.556 .4 | $11.8: 43.4$ | 9.515 .8 | $4.2 \vdots 0.0$ |
| Merchant | 6.56 .3 | 33.340 .1 | 62.773 .1 | 66.744 .4 | 16.744 .4 | $25.0 \cdot 33.3$ |
| Physician | 0.023 .1 | - 100.0 | 47.685 .2 | 0.0 ¢50.0 | 75.0100 .0 | 50.016 .7 |
| Tailor | 4.311 .8 | $0.0 \cdot 40.0$ | 40.888 .5 | 25.0 11.4 | 0.060 .0 | 0.0 10.0 |
| Teacher (male) | 20.010 .0 | 120.0:50.0 | 83.375 .0 | 100.0 100.0 | 66.7 | 25.0 |
| Tinsmith | 22.2.0.0 | 0.0:25.0 | 69.2.92.6 | 100.0.100.0 | 66.750 .0 | 0.0 .0 .0 |
| Gent J.eman | 6.30 .0 | 0.0.44.4 | 57.194 .9 | 57.1 \% 60.0 | 33.3 44.4 | 7.715 .2 |
| Shoemaker | 2.0 6.3 | 15.0.44.? | 40.3: 72.4 | 33.3 87.5 | 18.8 35.3 | 8.0 :11.5 |
| Watchmaker | 0.025 .0 | 33.3 - | 40.0190 .9 | - - | 0.050 .0 | $0.0 \cdot 0.0$ |
| Widow | $6.3!8.0$ | $20.0,35.7$ | 43.6163 .7 | 29.4143 .3 | 15.423 .2 | 2.8: 2.8 |
| TOTAL NUMBER | 11951662 | 287458 | 19942443 | 235270 | 384524 | 555793 |

## TABLE 5

## NUMBER OF CHILDREN IS FAMILY

AND PERCENTAGE OF CIIILDREN ATTENDING SCIOOOL

HAMILTON, ONTARIO, 1861

Number of Children in Family

1. -2 children

3-4 children

5-12 children

| Age Group |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $3-5$ | 6 | $7-13$ | 14 | $15-16$ | $17-20$ |
|  | - |  |  |  |  |

$\begin{array}{llllll}3.1 & 47.9 & 66.2 & 52.2 & 33.8 & 10.4\end{array}$
$\begin{array}{llllll}6.5 & 39.1 & 73.3 & 61.6 & 35.8 & 10.4\end{array}$
10.0
41.6
73.8
65.2
38.2
9.8

| Age 3-5 | Age | 6 | Age 7-13 |  | Age 14 |  | Age 15-16 |  | Age 17-20 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 18511861 | 1851 | 1861 | 1851 | 1861 | 1851 | 1861 | 1851 | 1861 | 1851 | 1861 |
| 7.05 .3 | 24.7 | 41.0 | 43.2 | 65.2 | 17.4 | 51.8 | 15.9 | 29.8 | 4.9 | 8.3 |
| 227459 | 77 | 178 | 326 | 607 | 46 | 85 | 82 | 188 | 89 | 221 |
| 8.77 .6 | 25.9 | 42.9 | 45.1 | 72.6 | 26.6 | 65.3 | 19. 2 | 35.1 | 5.6 | 6.4 |
| 157268 |  | 134 | 283 | 454 | 64 | 95 | 85 | 178 | 90 | 181 |
| 5.518 .6 | 44.4 | 26.3 | 38.8 | 71.6 | 24.4 | 61.7 | 10.0 | 36.9 | 0.0 | 15.8 |
| 7374 | 27 | 38 | 111 | 98 | 45 | 47 | 75 | 65 | 48 | 38 |
| 8.03 .3 | 30.3 | 36.3 | 65.8 | 69.4 | 57.1 | 69.2 | 21.7 | 29.2 | 4.0 | 27.9 |
| 79105 | 33 | 51 | 95 | 108 | 7 | 13 | 30 | 24 | 25 | 34 |
| 17.015 .2 | 33.3 | 50.0 | 62.4 | 78.5 | 41.2 | 60.0 | 26.1 | 41.7 | 20.0 | 23.5 |
| 4956 | 18 | 20 | 75 | 79 | 17 | 10 | 23 | 24 | 15 | 17 |
| 5.36 .3 | 40.0 | 53.8 | 46.9 | 78.8 | 40.0 | 58.3 | 15.4 | 50.0 | 0.0 | 7.9 |
| $19 \quad 16$ | 5 | 13 | 24 | 22 | 10 | 12 | 13 | 18 | 10 | 13 |
| 7.422 .0 | 44.4 | 60.0 | 67.4 | 84.7 | 50.0 | 66.7 | 12.5 | 60.0 | 18.2 | 15.7 |
| $27 \quad 25$ | 9 | 10 | 23 | 36 | 4 | 9 | 8 | 10 | 11 | 18 |
| 6.27 .9 | 80.0 | 42.1 | 66.4 | 84.4 | 50.0 | 100. | 62.5 | 50.0 | 30.0 | 50.0 |
| $24 \quad 38$ | 5 | 19 | 36 | 48 | 6 | 5 | 11 | 18 | 10 | 11 |
| 33.318 .8 | 50.0 | 71.4 | 85.0 | 100. | 90.0 | 100. | 62.5 | 50.0 |  | 50.0 |
| 98 | 4 | 7 | 15 | 9 | 5 |  | 8 | 4 | 5 | 4 |


TABLE 7
EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS
HARIITTON，ONTARIO， 1351 AND 1861

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\begin{array}{l}
\text { Total } \\
\text { Attending } \\
\text { School }
\end{array} & \begin{array}{l}
\text { Total } \\
\text { Number of } \\
\text { Teachers }
\end{array} & \begin{array}{l}
\text { Trained } \\
\text { in ミormal } \\
\text { Schools }
\end{array} \\
\hline & \begin{array}{ll}
M & F
\end{array} \\
1290 & 7 & 0 & 0 \\
3963 & 7 & 30 & 19
\end{array}
$$

| 901 | V／N | Lع6દ | 0027 | 0 | 8 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $9 \varepsilon$ | 61 | TLIT | T＜6\％ | 0 | $L$ |
| stitdna zuәริ下puI | 91 дəィ0 stfdnd | I |  | stooujs 20コ⿺廴 xəqunn | sT00ب̧S <br>  |

Source：Chief Superintendent of Schools，Annual Report of the Normal，Model and Common Schools

| Roman Catholic Separate Schools |  |  | Grammar Schools |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Number of } \\ & \text { Schools } \end{aligned}$ | Number of Teachers | Number of Pupils | Number of Scnools | Number of <br> Students |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 93 |
| 1 | 7 | 841 | 1 | 80 （appr |

Chief Superintendent of Schools，Annual Report of the Normal，Model and Comon Schools
in Uipper Canada for the Year 1861 （Quebec，1862）
1852
1861

## NOTES

${ }^{1}$ Journal of Education (May, 1861) p. 68
${ }^{2}$ Quoted ibid., (July, 1854) P. 198
${ }^{3}$ Ibid. (April, 1860) p. 56.
4David Rubinstein, Schonl Attendance in London 1870-1904: A Social
History, University of Hull, Occasional Papers in Economics and
Social History No. 1 (University of Hull, Hull, England, 1969).
II have dealt with some of these problems in The Irony of Early school
Reform (Harvard University Press, Cambridge, 1968, reprinted in
paperback by Beacon Press) and in Class, Bureaucracy and Schools
The Illusion of Educational Change in America (Praeger, New York, 1971); I have collected some 19th century documents which bear on the topic in School Reform: Past and Present (Little, Brown, Boston, 1971)
${ }^{6}$ The Canadian Social History Project is described in my The Canadian Social History Project Interim Report No. 3, an informal publication of the Department of History and Philosophy of Education, The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, November 1971 and in two carlier interim reports.
${ }^{7}$ See "llow 'Representative' was Hamilton?" working paper number 23 in Interim Report No. 3.
${ }^{\text {Eric }}$ Hobshawm, Industry and Empire (Penguin, London, 1969) P. 157; John Foster, "Nineteenth-Century Towns - A Class Dimension," in H.J. Dyos, ed., The Study of Urban History (Arnold, London, 1968), p. 299.
Notes (2)
${ }^{9}$ See "Conspicuous Consumption", Working Paper No. 5, Interim Report No. 2, November 1969.
${ }^{10}$ By my calculations, in $1851,25 \%$ of tinsmiths were reasonably well-todo, compared to $11 \%$ of clerks.
${ }^{11}$ E.P. Thompson \& Eileen Yco, eds., The Unknown Nayhew (Merlin Press, London, 1971), pp. 338 and 367.
${ }^{12}$ The separate school issue refers to the settlement of the Catholic demand for a share of public money to run Catholic schools. See Renort of the Royal Comuission on Education in Ontario (1950)
${ }^{13}$ The 1850 's was a decade of educational reform in general throughout the province. In Hamilton it was most notable for the establishment of the Central School but evident in other respects, too (Table 7).


[^0]:    January, 1972

[^1]:    $\mathrm{N}=$ Total Number in School and Out

