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MATTHEW ARNOLD AND HIS WORK
IN EDUCATION

By
Madge L. Kesselring

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements
for the Degree of Master of Arts

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH
BUTLER UNIVERSITY
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1937
This survey of Matthew Arnold and his writings has been an attempt to express his ideas concerning education and his efforts to improve English schools through his work as an inspector. The study has been extremely interesting; yet at times Arnold's repetitions have become rather wearisome. I could not help but compare and contrast the educational conditions of the English of the nineteenth century with those found in America today; although that was not the purpose of this dissertation. When in his essay "Culture and Anarchy" page 188, Arnold speaks of seeing on the streets of London—"children eaten-up with disease, half-sized, half-fed, half-clothed, neglected by their parents, without health, without home, without hope," I could only breathe a prayer of thanksgiving for such men as Matthew Arnold who tried to prove to the parents of those children that "knowledge how to prevent their accumulating is necessary, even to give their moral life and growth a fair chance." I wonder how the English people could have been so passive and self-satisfied.

I wish to take this opportunity to express my appreciation to Mr. Leland R. Smith, Librarian of Butler University for his kindly assistance in obtaining reports and books needed for preparing this essay; to Miss Reba Herr and Miss Clara Beaver for giving so graciously and freely of their time for the typing of this thesis; to my sister and niece for their willing aid when needed; and above all to my mother whose cheerful and loving spirit has kept me encouraged and made possible the completion of this work.

M. K.

Castleton, 1937
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MATTHEW ARNOLD AND HIS WORK

IN EDUCATION

CHAPTER I

BRIEF BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH OF MATTHEW ARNOLD,
THE POET AND CRITIC, AND HIS WORK AS A SCHOOL INSPECTOR

Matthew Arnold who is better known to most people as a literary critic and as a poet is scarcely known to those people outside of schools and universities as a school official or as an advocate of better schools; yet it is with that phase of his work in the field of education that this research is concerned. No complete biography of his life has ever been written; for it was his request that his personal life remain a 'closed book' and that no biography be given to the public. Whether this request was wholly due to Arnold's modesty or whether it was indeed a Victorian trait is left for the individual to judge. Many of his letters might lead us to decide the former, and it is through his letters that we are best able to obtain important facts and especially the most intimate contacts with his life.

Matthew Arnold was born on Christmas Eve, 1822 at
Laleham, England. He was the eldest son of Thomas Arnold, that well-known master of Rugby, who has been made famous by Thomas Hughes in the story of "Tom Brown's School Days."

His mother was Mary Penrose, the daughter of the Reverend John Penrose, Vicar of Fledborough Nells. His education began at eight years under his uncle, the Reverend John Buckland. In 1836 he was sent to the preparatory school at Winchester under the guidance of Dr. Moberley, later the Bishop of Salisbury. Here he escaped "the austere system" of fagging and was removed to Rugby in 1837. He won in 1840 an open scholarship at Balliol with the poem "Alaric at Rome" and went to Oxford the next year. At Oxford he succeeded in winning the Hertford Scholarship, and his poem on Cromwell brought him the Newdigate Prize. An interesting statement by Dole says, "It (referring to the poem on Cromwell) was not delivered aloud, the students being too uproarious." There were seven hundred fifty copies of this poem published, and all were sold in a few days.

"One who knew him well, and was his constant companion at Oxford, said of him in those days: 'His perfect self-possession, the sallies of his ready wit, the humorous

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turn which he could give to any subject that he handled, his
gaiety, exuberance, versatility, audacity, and unflagging
command of words, made him one of the most popular and suc-
cessful undergraduates that Oxford has ever known."\(^{2}\)

He obtained a fellowship at Oriel in 1845. After
leaving Oxford he taught the classics for a short time in
the Fifth Form at Rugby. In 1847 he was appointed private
secretary to the Earl of Lansdowne, Lord President of the
Council. In 1849 he published "The Strayed Reveller and Other
Poems." Much could be said here concerning Matthew Arnold's
poetry, for he was indeed a great poet and critic, but it is
not his achievement as a poet or as a critic that this work
is particularly interested in, but it is that service ren-
dered as an educationist, or as we might speak of him today
his accomplishments as an educational expert.

In 1851 he was given an Inspectorship of schools un-
der the Privy Council by Lord Lansdowne. During this same
year, June 10, he married Francis Lucy the daughter of Mr.
Justice Wightman. The duties of his school-inspecting kept
him constantly on the move. He wrote to his wife in October
1851, "We shall certainly have a good deal of moving about;
but we both like that well enough, and we can always look

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2Sir Joshua Fitch, Thomas and Matthew Arnold and Their
Influence on English Education. 1st edition, p. 159. New
York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1897.
forward to retiring to Italy on 200 pounds a year."³

From the very beginning he found his work very oppressive, but he did not permit his feelings to interfere with his keen sense of duty. In the letter mentioned above he says, "I think I shall get interested in the schools after a little time; their effects on the children are so immense, and their future effects in civilising the next generation of the lower classes, who, as things are going, will have most of the political power of the country in their hands, may be so important. It is really a fine sight in Manchester to see the anxiety felt about them, and the time and money the heads of the cotton-manufacturing population are willing to give them. In arithmetic, geography, and history the excellence of the schools I have seen is quite wonderful, and almost all the children have an equal amount of information; it is not confined, as in schools of the richer classes, to the one or two cleverest boys."⁴

Mrs. Arnold often accompanied him on these inspection trips, and that was "the only thing that made this life anything but positive purgatory."⁵ It was no easy task for Matthew


Arnold with his high qualifications for statesmanship and literature and his intense love for writing to quench his heart's desires and settle down to that hum drum and comparatively unremunerative drudgery of examining sixty or more schoolboy compositions a day, and of his "being driven furious by seven hundred closely written grammar papers" to be looked over. Throughout his letters we find such statements as this one in his letter to his mother on December 2, 1851:

"I have had a hard day. Thirty pupil teachers to examine in an inconvenient room and nothing to eat except a biscuit, which a charitable lady gave me. I was asked to dinner, this time at five, but excused myself on the ground of work." The same note of weariness is in his letter to his wife February 28, 1853:

"I have had a long tiring day, and it certainly will be a relief when I get these Eastern Counties over. The worst of it is that invitations to go and see schools are rained upon me; and managers who have held out till now against the Government plan ask me on my father's account to come and


7Ibid., p. 21.
inspect them, and to refuse is hard."\(^8\) Again the same spirit of drudgery is seen in his letter to John F. B. Blackett, M. P. on November 26, 1853:

"I am worked to death just now, and have a horrid cold and cough; but at the end of next week I hope to get to town."\(^9\)

He was an untiring worker, and self-denial is shown throughout his life, but never does he make one complaint. Dole's biography of Matthew Arnold says:

"We catch glimpses of him examining half a dozen schools in a day, looking over scores of examination papers, putting his hand to the stores of his well-ordered mind to write reviews or essays for magazines, preparing his Oxford lectures; yet never, amid all the rush of his busy existence, did he neglect the claims of his dearly beloved family, his mother, or his sister, or (if he happened to be away from home) his wife; writing them the fullest, sweetest, happiest letters, giving himself in them as a child gives the typical cup of cold water to a thirsty traveller."\(^10\)

He held the Professorship of Poetry at Oxford from 1857 to 1867. In 1859 he was sent abroad as Foreign

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\(^8\) Ibid., p. 28.

\(^9\) Ibid., p. 37.

Commissioner to report on the Systems of Continental Education. At this time he wrote to his sister in a letter February 16, 1859:

"You know that I have no special interest in the subject of public education, but a mission like this appeals even to the general interest which every educated man cannot help feeling in such a subject. I shall for five months get free from the routine work of it, of which I sometimes get very sick, and be dealing with its history and principles!"  

In 1862 dissatisfaction in his work is again expressed in a letter to his mother:

"I sometimes grow impatient of getting old amidst a press of occupations and labour for which, after all, I was not born. Even my lectures are not work that I thoroughly like, and the work I do like is not very compatible with any other. But we are not here to have facilities found us for doing the work we like, but to make them."  

Sometimes there is a note of satirical humor when he mentions his drudgery and distaste for listening to lessons of students in the Training Colleges. In a letter to Lady De Rothschild on October 14, 1864, he writes:

"I must go back to my charming occupation of hearing students give lessons. Here is my programme for this afternoon: Avalanches - the Steam Engine - the Thames - Indian Rubber - Bricks - the Battle of Poictiers - Subtraction - The Reindeer - the Gunpowder Plot - The Jordan. Alluring, is it not? Twenty minutes each, and the days of one's life are only three-score years and ten!"13

Dean Boyle in his "Recollections" has spoken of Matthew Arnold in the following manner: "One of his pleasantest characteristics was his perfect readiness to discuss with complete command of temper, views and opinions of his own which he knew I did not share and thought dangerous. All who knew him constantly regretted that a man of such wonderful gifts should have to spend his life in the laborious duties of a School Inspector."14

It is doubtful whether Matthew Arnold, himself, realized the vast importance of the work which he was doing. It is true the first duty of an inspector is "to verify the conditions on which public aid is offered to schools, and to assure the Department that the nation is obtaining a good

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13Ibid., Letters. October 14, 1864. P. 281

Schools of various types are to be visited; various forms of good work must be recognized; merits and demerits of the school are to be noted. The inspector must have a sympathetic understanding of teachers and their difficulties; he must be able to give kindly suggestions or counsel to school managers which will stimulate the teachers and children to do their best, and thus secure better discipline and instruction.

There are few offices of public service which offer opportunities as far reaching for meeting with a vast number of people and for developing and putting into practice one's intellectual and moral power.

Sir Joshua Fitch says that an inspector should be a man "whose own attainments command respect, and who is qualified by insight, enthusiasm and breadth of sympathy to advise local authorities, and to form a just judgment both of the work of a school and of the spirit in which the work is done. He whose own thoughts and tastes move habitually on the higher plane is the best qualified to see in true perspective the business of the lower plane, and to recognize the real meaning and value of the humblest detail." 16

Such a man was Matthew Arnold.

15Ibid., p. 169.
16Ibid., p. 170.
Although Matthew Arnold despised the details of his official administration, we find that he is always interested in the principle or policy of any question as is shown when he speaks of his assistant to his mother:

"He has done his work very well and likes all the bustle and the business of communicating with school managers on all sorts of matters, and they also like much to be so communicated with. I like to set my man in motion, lay out for him the range of the information I want, suffer him to get it in his own way, and at whatever length best suits him and the managers, hear his story and often decide on the recommendation to be made. There are a few points of real difficulty sometimes in making a recommendation, and here I think I am useful. There is no difficulty in all the rest; others can do it quite as well as I can, and I am glad not to spend myself upon it. It is, however, what I have generally been spent upon for the last twenty years so far as public education is concerned."17

It is true that his work was a drudgery but "it is also true that his influence on the schools was in its own way

far more real and telling than he supposed. Indirectly, his fine taste, his gracious and kindly manner, his honest and generous recognition of any new form of excellence which he observed, all tended to raise the aims and the tone of the teachers with whom he came in contact, and to encourage in them self-respect and respect for their work."18

From the very beginning he formed a conception of his duty as Inspector and tried to abide by that duty as he understood it:

"An Inspector's first duty is that of a simple and faithful reporter to your Lordships; the knowledge that imperfections in a school have been occasioned, wholly or in part, by peculiar local difficulties, may very properly restrain him from recommending the refusal of grants to that school, but it ought not to restrain him from recording the imperfections."19 This passage taken from the Report to the Committee of Council, 1854 continues at some length to give his ideas concerning an inspector and his duties.

He was serious in all his work and always desirous of doing his best, regardless of his own feelings. But under all his seriousness as an inspector, we find "a fund of

19 Ibid., p. 179. Also Report 1854.
brightness, of radiant wit, of frank boyish, totally inoffensive self-satisfaction" which was known to his family and friends. Stuart P. Sherman says in his book concerning the life and works of Matthew Arnold:

"He was a model son to a mother who followed every step of his career and read every line of his writing with affection and intelligent interest." In another passage he says it was his desire always "to make a habitual war on depression and low spirits which in one's early youth is apt to indulge and be somewhat interested in is one of the things one learns as one gets older. They are noxious alike to body and mind, and already partake of the nature of death."

Arnold's ambition was to spend his years from forty to fifty writing poetry, but he was unable to so plan his life that he might escape that drudgery of school inspection. He was able to write some, but not as he so desired. In 1865 he published his "Essays in Criticism." He was the best of all English critics and on a level with Goethe in Germany and Saint Beuve in France. He was one of the greatest

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22Ibid., p. 4. Also in Letters Vol. I. p. 60.
intellectual and moral forces of the nineteenth century.

In 1870 he was made Doctor of Civil Law at Oxford. On three occasions he was detached from the regular duties of the inspectorship for special services and inquiries into the state of education in foreign countries. In 1882 he retired from his Inspectorship of Schools, for he felt that there would never be any promotion for him, and as he said he had "no wish to execute the Dance of Death in the elementary school." 23

In the year, 1883, he made a lecture tour to America. Only six years after his retirement from public service, on April 15, 1888, he died suddenly from an inherited heart affection.

Many of his expressions signified that he held contempt for all unintellectual people; yet he denied this assertion when made against him. He was prejudiced in many ways and the world judged him by these prejudices, but never did his feelings affect his love and kindness for his friends of all races. He was always doing good of some kind for his employees, school-teachers, or friends, but only those who lived in close contact with him knew this. He was "always gentle and patient with the children," 24 even though the school, itself, might be severely criticized.

Matthew Arnold hated "the vulgarity, the meddlesomeness and the grossness of the British multitude," the "Philistines" as he called them and desired to help them through the medium of the school. The middle and lower classes of England detested him because he called attention to so many of their weaknesses; for they could not realize that he was seeking to aid them. "What he strove to communicate to the great people which he loved was more abundant life, a more reasonable faith, a sweeter and more luminous view of God's action in the world."  

Never did he fail "to reiterate his persuasive assertion of the superiority of the intellectual life. If he failed at all, it was in carrying the virtue of fastidiousness to an extreme."  

We do not find in Arnold a system of education with definite methods and principles to follow; but because of his work as an inspector, he did much writing on education in which he presented facts as well as analyzed principles and theories. His thoughts concerning education seem illogical, disorderly and inconsistent. His work is sometimes wearisome.

26Ibid., p. XXI.
27Ibid., p. XXI.
and tedious because he so often repeats; yet we do notice a few consistent beliefs. It is some of those beliefs or ideas concerning schools, teachers, and the school work of his century and what he attempted to accomplish, as gleaned from his essays and his reports and writings concerning his school inspections on both the Continent and in England that this research will attempt to give. An effort will be made to express his definition of education; his ideas of the relationship of education to the needs of people in different communities; the value of administration and examination; and the training of teachers. It is not the purpose to cite statistics but to show the importance of this man, Matthew Arnold, and his work in education.
CHAPTER II

SOME EXISTING CONDITIONS
OF EDUCATION IN ENGLAND AS EXPRESSED IN
MATTHEW ARNOLD'S GENERAL REPORTS TO THE EDUCATION COMMISSION

Matthew Arnold realized that the education of the English people was the outstanding problem of his time. No doubt this realization helped to reconcile him to his work as an inspector and made him more determined than ever "to inculcate intelligence" upon his so called "Philistines," the middle class of England. The elementary schools did sufficiently educate the children of the wealthier class, but in his work as an inspector he saw little or nothing of the education of the masses. Probably one of the things which aided in excluding many from the English schools, as stated in Arnold's first General Report of 1852, was the school fee. In none of the schools the scholars paid a fee of less than two pence (presumably a week). These rates excluded the very poor; although these very poor were sometimes taken care of by a reduced rate, subscribers' tickets or recommendations of members of a school committee. Most of the Wesleyan schools existed for the children of farmers, tradesmen, or mechanics
of a higher class rather than for poor children.

He says in his first report, "I think it may well be a question for the managers of Wesleyan schools to consider whether it is not desirable for them to extend the basis of their educational operations, and to confer on a wider circle the benefits of their excellent schools. A lower rate of payments would in my opinion greatly extend their sphere to usefulness, while their present high character for respectability need in no degree be impaired."¹

He points out that: "The conveniences of the present system are a better and more instructed class of children frequenting these schools as compared with that frequenting the cheaper ones; the greater intelligence of their parents, and greater sense of the advantage of having their children educated, with consequently greater disposition, as well as greater means, to keep them longer at school. The inconveniences are the inconveniences of private schools in general, the disposition of parents to interfere, and the diminished independence of the teacher."²

He found that the parents who paid six pence a week


²Ibid., General Report for the Year 1852, p. 6.
were more given to criticism of the school. They were often unreasonable and would embarrass the teachers unjustly. By these fees then "teachers' independence is diminished, because when his salary is principally or entirely derived from the school pence, the favour of the parents becomes of the greatest importance to him; hence, it arises that the children of these schools, though disciplinable, are often not well disciplined, owing to the master's fear of offending parents by a strictness which may appear to them excessive. This is a most important matter. I am convinced there is no class of children so indulged, so generally brought up (at least at home) without discipline, that is, without habits of respect, exact obedience, and self-control, as the children of the lower middle class in this country. The children of very poor parents receive a kind of rude discipline from circumstances, if not from their parents; the children of the upper classes are generally brought up in habits of regular obedience, because these classes are sufficiently enlightened to know of what benefit such a training is to the children themselves; but children of the class I am alluding to receive no discipline from circumstances for they are brought up amidst comparative abundance, they receive none from their parents, who are only half educated themselves, and can understand no kindness except complete indulgence; and, in consequence, nowhere have I seen such insubordination, such wilfulness, and
such total want of respect for their parents and teachers as among these children. The teacher's hands cannot be too much strengthened in the schools which this class frequents; for, if they are not disciplined at school, they will, while young, be disciplined, nowhere; and a scale of fees is peculiarly undesirable, which makes the teacher dependent on the favour of their parents, and unwilling to risk that favour by introducing habits of discipline."  

Another inconvenience arising from payment of fees is "the instruction is disordered by it. This happens in the following way. Some children are admitted at a lower rate of payment than others; those who pay least are to be taught least; consequently, scholars perfectly capable of taking their place with the highest class, but unable to make the highest payment, are thrown back into the lower classes, and comparatively neglected."  

The same thing is true with those who pay highest fees. They are often found trying to do work they are incapable of doing. Arnold says: "A plan more calculated to derange and dislocate the instruction of a school it would be difficult to imagine; and

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5Ibid., p. 9.
the teacher who is responsible for that instruction ought in my opinion, always to decline to adopt it."

He says that farmers, tradesmen, and mechanics of the middle class desire their children to be educated; "they are willing to pay a considerable school fee; they often object as much as the classes above them to the contact, with their children, of children of the lowest class, of the class found in ragged schools, their wants create a peculiar kind of demand, and that demand is answered by the present schools and on the whole efficiently answered."6

The English people are suspicious of the cheap things, for usually to the poor the cheap is considered bad. Those things which are really desirable, all people will make great efforts and sacrifices to obtain. School fees differ in different parts of the country and prevent the masses in many instances from receiving an education, but Arnold believes:

"It is not the high rate of payments which deters parents from sending their children to a school, but their suspicion that the education they get there is not much worth having; that they would be willing, did they think more highly of that education, to make great sacrifices to secure it for their children."7

6Ibid., General Report for the Year 1853. P. 25.
7Ibid., p. 24.
Using every effort possible to make his people see and understand their weakness he says, "It is my firm conviction, that education will never, any more than vaccination, become universal in this country, until it is made compulsory." Irregular attendance was a problem throughout England. Children were kept at home to work or for various reasons; but the great demand for children to work in mills, mines, or factories was prevalent throughout England during this century. It was not unusual to see small children going to their day's work before daybreak. It is no wonder Arnold says: "As to compulsory schooling, I will only say that in no country is the text 'The bread of the needy is their life; he that depriveth them thereof is a man of blood,' felt with so much force as here; that a law of direct compulsion on the parent and child would therefore, probably, be every day violated in practice; and that, so long as this is the case, to a law levelled at the parent and child, a law levelled at the employer is preferable." To pass a compulsory school law would not be difficult, but to enforce it would be the problem.

During Arnold's early inspectorship, there were no

6Ibid., General Report for the Year 1853. P. 27.
7Ibid., General Report for the Year 1869. P. 150.
infant schools; but through his efforts his reports indicate that infant schools were organized; yet, children too young were often enrolled there. He makes little complaint concerning the primary schools; for he considered the English primary school superior to the foreign school because of the pupil-teachers.

"I said, after seeing the foreign schools, that our pupil-teachers were, in my opinion, 'the sinews of English public instruction;' and such in my opinion they, with the ardent and animated body of schoolmasters who taught and trained them, undoubtedly were."10 These very pupil-teachers suffered the most by the legislation of 1862. This was a damaging bit of work to education; the teacher's work was scarcely recognized; the number and pay of pupil-teachers were decreased. This legislation of 1862 reduced public expenditure, introduced a new mode of aid, "payment by results," and withdrew from teachers all character of salaried public servants. This law brought about a slackness, an indifference of pupil-teachers in the examinations they passed. Teaching became less interesting and more purely mechanical. The master of this pupil-teacher was discouraged; he was not highly recognized by the state through some pay or fee, as his work deserved; he was no longer rewarded for his services.

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10Ibid., General Report for the Year 1867. P. 111.
Looking upon a discouraged master made the pupil-teacher lose courage.

It is readily understood why Arnold said on his return to England after his second official visit to the schools of the continent:

"I cannot say that the impression made upon me by the English schools at this second return to them has been a hopeful one. I find in 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 from the Continent in 1859."\(^{11}\)

The educational movement of 1867 found England not ready for it; the teaching staff had lost its vigorous spirit, was "more slackly recruited, and with weaker recruits, it was weaker than a few years ago."\(^{12}\)

Arnold believed there was no higher rate of general intelligence in the schools and pupil-teachers than there was in the head master, and he hoped that all the young schoolmasters in his district would "matriculate at the London University." Concerning teachers' training in his Report of 1865,

\(^{11}\)Ibid., General Report for the Year 1867. P. 110.

\(^{12}\)Ibid., General Report for the Year 1867. P. 115.
he asserts,

"It is now sufficiently clear, that the teacher to whom you give only a drudge's training, will do only a drudge's work, and will do it in a drudge's spirit: that in order to ensure good instruction even within narrow limits in a school, you must provide it with a master whose own attainments reach beyond the limits within which those of his scholars may be bounded. To form a good teacher for the simplest elementary school, a period of regular training is requisite: this period must be filled with work: can the objectors themselves suggest a course of work for this period, which shall materially differ from that now pursued; or can they affirm that the attainments demanded by the certificate-examination exceed the limits of what may without over-work be acquired within the period of his training, by a man of twenty or twenty-one years of age, of fair intelligence, and of fair industry?"¹³

In his report of 1858 he stated that "almost every teacher under my inspection is now certificated. Through certification, teachers may receive a promotion of no less than three divisions."¹⁴ To gain award promotions the teacher should give proof of distinguished excellence of some sort; for example, staying in some school for the sake of the school,

¹³Ibid., General Report for the Year 1855. p. 56.
¹⁴Ibid., General Report for the Year 1858. p. 79.
when better opportunities were offered elsewhere.

In those higher class schools there was a greater demand for regularly trained secondary or assistant teachers, which was at that time most inadequately supplied. The poverty of the country schools rendered them unable to engage a well-trained teacher; "the indispensable requisite to enable them to obtain an efficient school; the indispensable requisite, also, to enable them to obtain Government Aid." These poor schools, hoping to obtain financial help to improve, are the kinds of schools which gladly invite inspection. For that inspection should offer better teachers and better schools. Among the teachers; especially, there was a desire to attain a better culture. This desire was shown by the teachers in his district desiring and trying to pass the examinations "which the London University, with a wise liberality, makes accessible to so large and various a class of candidates." 15

Arnold was glad that the Government certificate was beginning to be regarded as a mere indispensable guarantee of competency, and not as a literary distinction; "literary distinction should be sought for from other and larger sources." 16

There was some complaint saying that "the course of

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16 Ibid., General Report for the Year 1863. P. 108.
instruction in elementary schools generally embraces too many
subjects, or is carried on in any of these subjects too far,"¹⁸
but Arnold did not think this true. "I say, that the children
in those schools which I inspect belong to a class for which
the complainants themselves would allow that such an instruc­
tion as they receive was neither improper nor over-ambitious."¹⁹
He felt though that in school teaching the decline of in­
tellectual life caused by a more mechanical method of instruc­
tion showed itself in increasing weakness in even those very
matters which changes were designed to revive and foster.
Language, geography, and history had begun to fall to disuse
and neglect.

"In grammar, for instance, the system of almost all of them has its rationale capable of being comprehended by
the mind, if the mind is steadily kept to it, and of serving
as a clue to the facts; but under the present system, the
same person often uses one grammar as a scholar, another as
a student at a training school, another as a schoolmaster.
Every one of these grammars following a different system, he
masters the rationale of none of them; and, in consequence,
after all his labour, he often ends by possessing of the
science of grammar nothing but a heap of terms jumbled

¹⁸Ibid., General Report for the Year 1855. P. 53.
¹⁹Ibid., General Report for the Year 1855. P. 54.
together in inextricable confusion." This may have probably been the cause of the commonness of the failure in grammar and showed there were many shortcomings in taste and culture which were naturally shown in the students' grammar and composition papers more than any other. Grammar is important for Arnold says, it "is an exercise of the children's wits; all the rest of their work is in general but an exercise of their memory." 

In his Report for the Year 1878, he seemed to believe that handwriting had improved, but spelling had gone backward. There was a scantiness of vocabulary which was a signal feature of their mental condition, and constitutes the real inferiority of the mass to the children of the cultivated classes. The power of reading which was one of the important works of the elementary school was not always bestowed upon those children. "Recitation" was a special subject which in 1872 Arnold thought produced most good, yet in 1876 he advised that it be done away with as a subject. Music instruction was universal throughout the schools of England. Latin was taught but not always well taught. Religion or rather the Bible was taught by the different church schools of England, but in most instances there was a very narrow conception of this instruction.

Such English literature as learning by heart and reciting a hundred lines of standard English poetry was most popular at that time.

"Perhaps it may be permitted to an ex-professor of poetry to remark that in general the choice of poetry in these books was especially bad; I print in a note a specimen of popular poetry from the Fifth Standard book of a series much in vogue.

*My Native Land*

She is a rich and rare land,
Oh! she is a fresh and fair land,
She is a dear and rare land,
This native land of mine.

No men than hers are braver,
The women's hearts ne'er waver;
I'd freely die to save her,
And think my lot divine.

She's not a dull or cold land,
No, she's a warm and bold land;
Oh! she's a true and old land,
This native land of mine.

Oh! she's a fresh and fair land,
Oh! she's a true and rare land.
Yes, she's a rare and fair land,
This native land of mine."

If this were typical of the literature found in the literature books of that century, it is not surprising that Arnold's poetic genius rebelled against such poetry and doubted the advisability of memorizing such. The Education

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Department should exercise some control over school books especially in aided schools, for this was often the only book of secular literature the child had; so this book should be a good one.

"Good poetry does undoubtedly tend to form the character; it tends to beget a love of beauty and of truth in alliance together, it suggests, however indirectly, high and noble principles of action, and it inspires the emotion so helpful in making principles operative." 23

The study of literature as a part of the regular course of instruction was neglected. In the efforts to teach some science many schoolmen of the time urged that natural science be substituted for literature and history as the more useful alternative. Domestic economy, art, callisthenics, and gymnastics were taught in a few of the colleges.

Since school books were not well selected, there was no real humanizing instruction at all because of the lack of these books; as has been stated literature books were of the very worst kind. Arnold believes that that which is "comprized under the word literature is in itself the greatest power available in education; of this power it is not too much to say in our elementary schools at present, no use is made at all." 24

In reference to the cleanliness of the schools, in his report of 1860 he says, "paint and white wash are doled out with a very sparing hand and walls and woodwork show this; yet it is especially in the poorer and crowded districts of London, with their want of good light and good air, that paint and white wash, the latter especially, are real blessings...........voluntary managers are apt to be satisfied with a standard of cleanliness for school premises which would by no means satisfy a Government or an efficient municipal body." 25 He believed if the managers were given liberty of action in fixing the standard of needful school cleanliness, the schools would become even dirtier than they were.

"Inspection" he says, "exists for the sake of finding out and reporting the truth, and for this above all. In England, inspection under the old system meant something like the following. The inspector took a school, class by class. He seldom heard each child in a class read, but he called out a certain number to read, picked at random as specimens of the rest; and when this was done he questioned the class with freedom, and in his own way, on the subjects of their instruction........The new examination groups the children by its standards, not by their classes; and however much we may strive

to make the standards correspond with the classes, we cannot
make them correspond at all exactly. The examiner, therefore,
does not take the children in their own classes. The life and
power of each class as a whole, the fitness of its composi-
tion, its handling by the teacher, he therefore does not test.
He hears every child in the group before him read, and so far
his examination is more complete than the old inspection."26

"The new examination is in itself a less exhausting
business than the old inspection to the person conducting it;
it does not make a call as that did upon his spirit and in-
ventiveness; but it takes up much more time, it throws upon
him a mass of minute detail, and severely tasks hand and eye
to avoid mistakes."27

"There is an advantage also in the same Inspector,
where it is possible, continuing to see the same school year
after year; he acquires in this way a knowledge of it which
he can never gain from a single visit, and he becomes ac-
quainted not with the instruction and discipline only of the
school, but also with its local circumstances and difficul-
ties."28

In England secondary and superior instruction are not

26Ibid., General Report for the Year 1863. P. 98.
28Ibid., General Report for the Year 1854. P. 33.
public services. They are left to be what they can, and to cost whatever they may happen to cost.

"If the Education Department would yearly name in its syllabus a short work of classical English poetry for the candidates for admission, this work might with great advantage be adopted for the recitation and literature-lesson in this school. Thus carefully studied it would have a good chance of being appropriated and assimilated by both pupils and pupil-teachers, and only thus can such a work produce its due effect. Its due effect, when produced, is invaluable, and is precisely that of which our elementary schools stand in need."29

From the foregoing reports Arnold reveals the unorganized and pathetic state of the English educational system. He knew that the Englishman loved his liberty and cared little for education only as he needed it. Matthew Arnold repeatedly said that public education in England would never be on a firm foundation until there was a man like Guizot or Humboldt at the head of it.

CHAPTER III

MATTHEW ARNOLD'S FOREIGN COMMISSIONS

During Matthew Arnold's work as an inspector, he was sent to the continent of Europe to make a survey of the schools there. As a result of his commissions, he prepared reports on the Continental systems of education and gave to the Education Commissioners. The most important of those reports are "The Popular Education of France with Notices of That of Holland and Switzerland, 1861;" "A French Eton;" or "Middle Class Education and the State, 1864;" "Schools and Universities on the Continent, 1866;" "Higher Schools and Universities in Germany, 1874;" and a "Special Report on Certain Points Connected with Elementary Education in Germany, Switzerland, and France, 1886."

The above named writings are not listed as great literature or great works of art but as reports are valuable for their clear cut style and simplicity of language which makes them very readable; but this is not their real value, for their real worth lies in the fact that they are carefully prepared and authentic. The statistical and other details of work have only a passing interest; and the school
organizations which he dwells upon have been so changed that that phase of his work is merely historical. No effort will be made to give a review of his work on education, but merely to point out what is considered some of the outstanding facts of his findings and think of them in connection with the English schools.

In 1859 he was sent as Foreign Assistant Commissioner to inquire and report concerning popular education in France, Holland, and Switzerland. He wrote to his wife on January 21, 1859, "I cannot tell you how much I like the errand, and above all, to have the French district." Arnold knew this would relieve him from his irksome task as inspector for five months. In 1865 he was sent as Assistant Commissioner to inquire and report on the systems of education of the middle and upper classes in France, Germany, Switzerland and Italy or to report on Secondary Education on the Continent. He wrote to his mother March 11, 1865:

"This morning I have sent in my formal letter of acceptance to the Commissioners. It is an eight months' affair—at least, the pay is to last eight months. I have got leave of absence for six months, and the report I must write while going on with my schools as usual. I start on the 3rd of April. Of course, I do not like leaving Flu and the

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children, but it is a great satisfaction to me, as you and Fan will well know, to be going on this errand. You know how deeply the Continent interests me, and I have here an opportunity of seeing at comparative leisure, and with all possible facilities given me, some of the most important concerns of the most powerful and interesting states of the Continent. It is exactly what I wanted. I did not want to be a Commissioner, I did not want to be Secretary, but I did want to go abroad, and to Germany as well as France."

In October 19, 1885 he wrote to his son, Dick:

"I am just back from the Office, where the authorities had sent for me to ask if I would go to Berlin and Paris to get information for them as to Free Schools. I should like it very much, because on one of these official tours one has the opportunity of learning so much."  

Therefore in November, 1885 he was sent for the third time on a foreign journey. This time the Education Department desired that he receive more detailed information from France, Germany, Switzerland, and Italy. He was to get information concerning these points: "free education; quality of education; training and pensioning of teachers; and compulsory

\[2\text{Ibid., F. 291}\]

\[3\text{Ibid., F. 333-334 (Vol. II.)}\]
attendance and release from school." This last official visit to the continent required less than two months of his time, yet one cannot help but notice the enthusiasm with which he received each commission.

In his survey of the Continental Systems, Arnold noticed the work of educational statesmanship everywhere. "In Germany, Frederick the Great and Humboldt, and in France, Napoleon and Guizot had grasped the immense potentialities of the imperfect instrument at hand, and with them had nationalized education and had brought the highest order of intelligence to its administration and organization."

From the very first France interested Arnold more than Germany. He seemed to feel that the English, because of their intense love of liberty, their history and genius, their love of literature, their moral ideals and their national desires were more like the French. The Germans had received valuable schools from their ruling classes and were a well disciplined people, but they had lacked the experiences of the English and French and had shown little spontaneity of national life.

4Matthew Arnold, Special Report on Certain Points Connected with Elementary Education in Germany, Switzerland, and France pp. 3-4. London: Eyre and Spottiswoode, 1886.

5Stuart P. Sherman, Matthew Arnold How to Know Him, p. 189. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co. 1917
"By its form and by its contents, by its letter and
by its spirit, by its treatment of reason and by its treat-
ment of prejudice, in what it respects and in what it does
not respect, the school-legislation of modern France fosters,
encourages, and educates the popular intelligence and the
popular equity. This is a national advantage. But there
are some national disadvantages which sometimes flow or seem
to flow, from national education: disadvantages, which those
who never inquire beyond the school itself are apt to over-
look, but which all those to whom schools are interesting
mainly as instruments of general civilization, will certainly
desire to find noticed by me. Some alleged disadvantages
there are, which, in France as in England, hardly merit dis-
cussion. Eminent personages complained to me that already
popular education in France was carried so far that society
began to be dislocated by it; that the labourer would no
longer stay in his field, nor the artizan in his workshop;
that every labourer would be an artizan, every artizan a
clerk."

The Prussian people, on the other hand, have become
a studious and docile people, well-informed but somewhat
pedantic, yet sophisticated under their elaborate system of

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6 Matthew Arnold, The Popular Education of France with
education. Under such a strict system the vital strength of the people, much of their genial natural character and their primitive vigour which are the great elementary force of nations, are lost.

The schools on the continent, especially France and Germany are superior to those of England, yet the school systems of these three countries are similar in some respects. In France "the state does not make itself denominational, they (the religious divisions) have to make themselves national.......State inspection represents the unity of the civil power, not the division of the rival sects. It takes care that children learn in the public schools, each the doctrines of their own religion, but it protects each in learning these from the intolerance of the other, and itself remains neutral that it may check intolerance the better.....

In England the state makes itself denominational with the denominations. It offers to them no example of civil unity in which religious divisions are lost; in which they meet as citizens, though estranged as sectaries. It makes its inspectors Anglican with the Anglicans, Roman Catholic with the Roman Catholic Orthodox, Presbyterian with the Old Church of Scotland, Free Church with the New. It does not hold itself aloof from the religious divisions of the population; it enters into them."7

7Ibid., Chap. XIII, pp. 147-148.
In Germany, or Prussia, "the two legally established forms of religion are the Protestant and the Catholic. All public schools must be either Protestant, Catholic, or mixed. The religious instruction, and the service follow the confession of the school. The ecclesiastical authorities, the consistories for Protestant schools, the bishops for Catholic schools, must concur with the school authorities in the appointment of those who give the religious instruction in the schools. In Protestant schools the religious instructor is usually a layman; in Catholic, an ecclesiastic." Both Protestant and Catholic schools employ a dogmatic religious teaching.

In Arnold's "Letters" we find several references to the pleasure and self satisfaction he derived from the writing of "A French Etun." In this essay he has given brief sketches of the school at Toulouse and the school at Soreze. It is in these schools that we see secondary education treated as a national interest, and an attempt made to make it commensurate with the numbers needing it and to make it of the best quality possible.

"The establishments of secondary instruction are attached to academies, local centres of the Department of Public Instruction at Paris, of which there are sixteen in France.

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The head of an academy is called its 'rector' and his chief ministers are called 'academy inspectors.' The superintendence of all public instruction is (under the general control of the Minister of Public Instruction at Paris)....The position of rector in France much resembles that of one of our heads of houses at Oxford or Cambridge."

"A French lyceum (in which Arnold was especially interested) is an institution founded and maintained by the State, with aid from the department and commune. The communal colleges are founded and maintained by the commune, with aid from the State."\(^9\)

The lyceum at Toulouse was a public school.

"The schoolrooms of the lyceum were much like our schoolrooms here; large bare rooms, looking as if they had seen much service, with their desks browned and battered, and inscribed with the various carvings of many generations of school-boys. The cleanliness, order, and neatness of the passages, dormitories, and sick-rooms were exemplary. The dormitories are vast rooms, with a teacher's bed at each end; a light is kept burning in them all the night through. In no English school have I seen any arrangements for the sick to


\(^10\)Ibid., P. 11
compare with those of the Toulouse Lyceum. The service of
the infirmary, as it is called, is performed by Sisters of
Charity. The aspect and manners of these nurses, the fresh-
ness and airiness of the rooms, the whiteness and fragrance
of the great stores of linen which one saw ranged in them,
made one almost envy the invalids who were being tended in
such a place of repose. "11

"The French schoolboy learns and practices gymnastics
more than our schoolboys do; and the court in which he
takes his recreation is somewhat more spacious and agreeable
than we English are apt to imagine a court to be; but it is
a poor place indeed—poor in itself, poor in its resources—
compared with the playing-fields of Eton, or the meads of Win-
chester, or the close of Rugby."12

The Programme is fixed by the Council of Public In-
struction in Paris, a body in which the State, the Church, the
French Academy and the scholastic profession, are all repre-
sented and of which the Minister of Public Instruction is pre-
sident. Every lyceum is bound to this programme.

"The lyceum has the scientific instruction and the
study of the mother-tongue which our school-course is without,

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12 Ibid., P. 14.
and is often blamed for being without." For this reason they really learn their French while the English schoolboy does not learn his English. There is probably just enough science taught to keep the child's taste for science alive.

Their school fees are all regulated by authority; the scale of charges in every lyceum and communal college must be seen and sanctioned by the academy-inspector in order to have legality. These fees ranged from 110 francs to 180 francs a year for tuition, and for boarding and instruction from 800 francs to 900 francs.

"Such may be the cheapness of public school education, when that education is treated as a matter of public economy, to be administered upon a great scale, with rigid system and exact superintendence in the interest of the pupil and not in the interest of the school-keeper."  

"The meals, though plain are good, and they are set out with a propriety and a regard for appearances which, when I was a boy, graced no school-dinners that I ever saw; just so, I must say, even in the normal schools for elementary teachers, the dinner-table in France contrasted strongly, by its clean cloth, arranged napkins, glass, and general neatness of service, with the stained cloth, napkinless, knives and

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\(^{13}\) Ibid., P. 17.

\(^{14}\) Ibid., P. 20.
forks, jacks and mugs, hacked joints of meat, and stumps of loaves of bread which I have seen on the dinner table of normal schools in England. With us it is always the individual that is filled, and the public that is sent empty away."  

It seems then that England's real question is, "Why cannot we have throughout England—as the French have throughout France, as the Germans have throughout Germany, as the Swiss have throughout Switzerland, as the Dutch have throughout Holland—schools where the children of our middle and professional classes may obtain at the rate of from 20 pounds to 50 pounds a year, if they are boarders, at the rate of 5 pounds to 15 pounds a year, if they are day-scholars, an education of as good quality, with as good guarantees, social character, and advantages for a future career in the world, as the education which French children of the corresponding class can obtain from institutions like that of Toulouse or Soreze?"  

"The English public school produces the finest boys in the world; the Toulouse Lyceum boy, the Soreze College boy, is not to be compared with them. Well, let me grant all that too. But then there are only some five or six schools in England to produce this specimen boy; and they cannot produce

him cheap. Rugby and Winchester produce him at 120 pounds a year; Eton and Harrow (and the Eton schoolboy is perhaps justly taken as the most perfect type of this highly-extolled class) cannot produce him for much less than 200 pounds a year. Tantae molis erat Romanam condere gentem—such a business is it to produce an article so superior. But for the common wear and tear of middling life, and at rates tolerable for middling people, what do we produce? What do we produce at 30 pounds a year? What is the character of the schools which undertake for us this humbler, but far more widely-interesting production? Are they as good as the Toulouse Lyceum and the Soreze College? That is the question.17

England has always depended on the principle of supply and demand and upon their moral security to give the proper education to its masses, but what has it given. The public schools "offer securities by their very publicity; by their wealth, importance, and connections, which attract general attention to them; by their old reputation, which they cannot forfeit without disgrace and danger. The appointment of the Public School Commission is a proof that to these moral securities for the efficiency of the great public schools may be added the material security of occasional

The schools on the Continent do not offer the same moral securities to the public as Eton and Harrow, but they offer far greater security of competent supervision. With them this supervision is not occasional and extraordinary, but periodic and regular; it is not explorative only; it is also, to a considerable extent, authoritative.

What makes the French school charge remain moderate while the English charge may be any price? "It is that the Toulouse Lyceum is a public institution administered in view of the general educational wants of France, and not of its own individual preponderance."19

Arnold said:

"What English secondary instruction wants are these two things; sufficiency of provision of fit schools, sufficiency of securities for their fitness. Good masters may be a security; the Oxford and Cambridge Middle Class Examinations are meant for securities; although these are good, they are not sufficient. The plan which hopes to reinforce the University examination by University inspection will give a far better security. Can the English University afford to take this responsibility? The French University did, but it

18Ibid., p. 44.
19Ibid., Pp. 46-47.
was a department of the State. If the English University can
do this there could be no better security; thus security for
these schools continuing good will be provided. But England
wants 'respected schools, as well as inspected schools.'
There seems only one outstanding way of developing respected
schools everywhere and that is by the public establishment of
schools for the middle class."20

"By public establishment they may be made cheap and
accessible to all. By public establishment they may give
securities for the culture offered in them being really good
and sound, and the best that our time knows. By public es-
establishment they may communicate to those reared in them the
sense of being brought in contact with their country, with
the national life, with the life of the world; and they will
expand and dignify their spirits by communicating this sense
to them. I can see no other mode of institution which will
offer the same advantages in the same degree. I cannot think
that the middle class will be much longer insensible to its
own evident interests."21

"Switzerland probably does not have the highest edu-
cational aim--la grande culture as the French say. The
grand merit of Switzerland is a spirit of intelligent

20Ibid., p. 53-61.
21Ibid., pp. 126-127.
industrialism but not quite intelligent enough to have cleared itself from vulgarity. But the grand merit of Swiss industrialism even though it may not rise to the conception of *la grande culture*, is that it has clearly seen that for genuine and secure industrial prosperity, more is required than capital, abundant labour, and manufactories; it is necessary to have a well-instructed population. So far as instruction and the intelligence developed by instruction are valuable commodities, the Swiss have thoroughly appreciated their market worth, and are thoroughly employing them."

Arnold believes that in Italy education needs to be reconstructed from the very bottom. Such statements as this, "Good building, bad smells, unsatisfactory proviseur, weak professors, and inaccurate Latin and Greek" could apply to all schools.

There is a growing disbelief in Greek and Latin, at any rate as at present taught; a growing disposition to make modern languages and the natural sciences take their place, both in Germany and France. He says, "I cannot but think that the French might with advantage write less, and adopt our plan of making the boys learn and say their lesson out of a book. In our elementary schools, I have often regretted that the


23Ibid., Chap. XIII, p. 149.
master teaches the lessons so much, instead of making the boys, as in our classical schools learn it beforehand."\textsuperscript{24}

Poverty is not so discernible in the foreign schools as in England. "No specially poor quarter of Berlin like the East End of London is seen; of course there is poverty, but the working classes live in the basement stories of houses in all quarters of Berlin, and are numerous in the quarters inhabited by the court and rich people, as well as others. They are equally distributed through the schools, and certainly I found no groups of dirty and miserable looking children in the schools which I visited. All the children were decently clad, and I was told that in all the Berlin schools I should find them so. But then they were no more dirty and ragged looking in a poor school for Catholics which I visited at Cologne than in the Berlin schools."\textsuperscript{25}

The ten minute recess which Arnold saw in Germany seemed very strange to him, yet he approved of this plan. He said:

"At the end of each hour the class disperses to the corridors and playground, and the teachers to the teachers' meeting room. In ten minutes a bell rings and the classes

\textsuperscript{24}\textit{Ibid.}, Chap. VIII.

\textsuperscript{25}\textbf{Matthew Arnold, \textit{Special Report on Certain Points Connected with Elementary Education in Germany, Switzerland, and France. P. 7. London: Eyre and Spottiswoode}, 1886.}
and teachers reassemble refreshed. How much the work of a long morning is lightened by this simple plan may be observed by any one of school experience who will pass a morning in a German or Swiss school.”26

"Methods of teaching in foreign schools are more gradual, more natural, more rational than in ours; and in speaking of foreign schools I include Swiss and French schools as well as German. I often asked myself why, with such large classes, the order in general was so thoroughly good, and why with such long hours, the children had in general so little look of exhaustion or fatigue; and the answer I could not help making to myself was, that the cause lay in the children being taught less mechanically and more naturally than with us, and being more interested.”27

"To release a child, as we do, from school at ten or eleven, because he can pass the Fifth Standard, would be thought in Germany absurd and most injurious. It cannot be seriously supposed that to be able to pass a certain examination in reading, writing, and arithmetic is the same thing to a child as a year or two of schooling, or an adequate substitute for it. To put the thing on no higher ground, the matters required for examination may so rapidly be forgotten and

26 Ibid., p. 11.
lost! Whereas if the child remains at school he is still securing his hold on what he has already learnt and also more.\textsuperscript{28}

In Switzerland, instruction was compulsory by law from the age of seven to sixteen years, in all of the five Cantons except Geneva. If the children were not sent to school the children's parents were punished and fined. In Valais five months of school are required. In other cantons the child may be excused for work, yet one report says, "There is a great number of children who attend no school in the Government of the canton; so the fact that school is compulsory has not aided in the prosperity of the cantons, but this prosperity is more probably due to the intelligence of the population."\textsuperscript{29}

In France education is not compulsory. "Perhaps for a government to be able to force its people to school, that people must either be generally well-off, as in America; or placid and docile as in Germany; or ardently desirous of knowledge, as in Greece. But the masses in France like the masses in England, are by no means well off, are stirring and self-willed, are not the least in the world bookish. The gradual rise in their wealth and comfort is the only obligation which can be safely relied on to draw such people to school."

\textsuperscript{28}Ibid., pp. 13-14.

What Government can do, is to provide sufficient and proper schools to receive them as they arrive."\(^30\) Arnold says that in the towns without great manufactures, and in the agricultural districts, more children attended school than in similar places in England. They attended very irregularly and were easily withdrawn in summer and autumn for work. School legislation in France tends to impart culture and develop national intelligence.

"On certain points the State in France has by its legislation and administration exercised a directly educative influence upon the reason and equity of its people and that this influence the mental temper of the French people does actually show the fruits."\(^31\)

Teachers in Holland were well trained. "The Dutch regulation instructing the examiners to admit to the highest schools those candidates only who gave signs of distinguished culture, assigned to the schoolmaster's training a humanizing and educating direction, which is precisely what we, with our exaggerated demand for masses of hard information, have completely missed."\(^32\) School methods, also, and pedagogic aptitude

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\(^31\) Ibid., Chap. XIV, Pp. 161-162.

\(^32\) Ibid., Chap. XVI, Pp. 196-197.
occupied more space, in the Dutch examination than in the French or the English.

After a teacher was given a general admission he must then pass a competitive examination for the position he wanted. If passed he was given a special admission.

In France and Germany a superior instruction to that of England existed. Matthew Arnold says, "The best feature of those schools seems to me to be their thoroughly trained and tested staff of professors. They are far better paid than the corresponding body of teachers in Italy; they have a far more recognized and satisfactory position than the corresponding body of teachers in England. They are better paid in England but have no position. They are saddled, to balance their being better paid, with boarding house cares, have little or no time for study, and no career before them. A French professor has his three, four, or five hours work a day in lessons and conferences, and then he is free, no discipline, no religious training.

Accordingly the service of public instruction in France attracts a far greater proportion of the intellectual force of the country in England. The salary of a professor is composed of two parts, the fixed part and the eventual part, as they are called. His salary and part fees from other.

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Arnold's preparation and writing of his reports concerning education in the foreign countries and his association with foreign educators gave him a keen insight into the many excellent qualities and also inferior qualities of education in all countries visited and in England. He sums up England's weaknesses as follows:

"If I were asked to name the four deficiencies most unanimously remarked in our system by the most competent foreign judges whom I met, they would be these; first, the want of district-centres for managing the current details of school business, and the consequent inundation of our London office with the whole of them; secondly, the inconceivable prohibition to our primary inspectors to inspect without previous notice; thirdly, the denial of access into the ranks of the primary inspectors to the most capable public school-masters; fourthly, and above all the want of inspectors-general."

CHAPTER IV

ARNOLD’S OWN IDEAS AS EXPRESSED IN VARYING REPORTS AND ESSAYS. THE CONCLUSION.

There is much inconsistency in the ideas expressed in the varied writings of Matthew Arnold, but doubtless some of this discrepancy is due to the fact that his reports and essays cover a period of more than thirty-five years. In so vast a period of years, it is only natural to find some lack of uniformity in the thought and work of all human beings. An effort will be made to express the most consistent ideas found in his writings. Probably the first thing he desired above all to do to help the social condition of his people was to make elementary education sound and uniform, public and universal; for he believed that if the intelligent people did not wish to be governed by the ignorant masses they must educate those masses. To plan a program for doing this was not difficult; but to convince the self-satisfied Englishman that he was in need of a new program for improve­ment or for an educational reform was a difficult work.

Arnold delighted in taking a thrust at English so­ciety. In his essay, “Culture and Anarchy,” he playfully
characterizes the aristocrats as "Barberians," the middle class as the "Philistines," and the poorest class as the "Populace."¹ It is the "Philistines" and the "Populace" whom Arnold desired to help. He realized that much of the weakness in the English system of Education lay in the fact that the Englishman feared state control. Arnold recognized the value of local and voluntary institutions but the organized State systems of the foreign lands he believed to be far superior, especially the French Lyceum. The fact that children in France were better educated at a smaller cost was one of the actualities he desired to impress upon the Englishman.

Such foreign institutions as the French Academy, he brought to the attention of the English people. In the essay, "The Literary Influence of Academies" Arnold reflects upon the causes and results of no institution in England like the French Academy, but he says,

"What I want the reader to see is, that the question as to the utility of academies to the intellectual life of a nation is not settled when we say, for instance: 'Oh, we have never had an academy and yet we have, confessedly, a very great literature.' It still remains to be asked: 'What sort of a great literature? a literature great in the special

qualities of genius, or great in the special qualities of intelligence? If in the former, it is by no means sure that either our literature, or the general intellectual life of our nation, has got already, without academies, all that academies can give....

"Our literature, in spite of the genius manifested in it, may fall short in form, method, precision, proportions, arrangements,—all of them, I have said, things where intelligence proper comes in. It may be comparatively weak in prose, that branch of literature where intelligence proper is, so to speak, all in all. In this branch it may show many grave faults to which the want of a quick, flexible intelligence, and of the strict standard which such an intelligence tends to impose, makes it liable; it may be full of haphazard, crudeness, provincialism, eccentricity, violence, blundering."2

Journey-man-work was worse done in England than France.

"Think of the difference between our books of reference and those of the French, between our biographical dictionaries (to take a striking instance) and their's; think of the difference between the translations of the classics turned out for Mr. Bohn's library and those turned out for M. Nisard's collection! As a general rule, hardly any one amongst us, who knows French and German well, would use an English book of

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reference when he could get a French or German one; or would look at an English prose translation of an ancient author when he could get a French or German one."

"I think academies with a limited, scientific scope, in the various lines of intellectual work, --academies like that of Berlin, for instance, --we with time may, and probably shall, establish. And no doubt they will do good; no doubt the presence of such influential centres of correct information will tend to raise the standard amongst us for what I have called the journey-man-work of literature and to free us from the scandal of such biographical dictionaries as Chalmers's, or such translations as a recent one of Spinoza, or perhaps, such philological freaks as Mr. Forster's about the one primordial language." 4

In "Discourses in America," the essay on "Literature and Science," is an argument against science as the chief instrument in education, "literature being understood to include law, military, history, and the results of scientific study, but not their processes." 5 Professor Huxley and Matthew Arnold entered upon many heated discussions concerning the subject

3Ibid., p. 47.
4Ibid., p. 62.
of science. Arnold says,

"'I call all teaching scientific,' says Wolf, the critic of Homer, which is systematically laid out and followed up to its original sources:...There can be no doubt that Wolf is perfectly right; that all learning is scientific which is systematically laid out and followed up to its original sources, and that a genuine humanism is scientific." 6

"I talk of knowing the best which has been thought and uttered in the world; Professor Huxley says this means knowing literature. Literature is a large word; it may mean everything written with letters or printed in a book. Euclid’s "Elements" and Newton's "Principia" are thus literature. All knowledge that reaches us through books is literature." 7 He did not believe in making natural science the main part of education. Those who believed such did not take into consideration the constitution of human nature. He says,

"He can hardly deny, that when we set ourselves to enumerate the powers which go to the building up of human life, and say that they are the power of conduct, the power of intellect and knowledge, the power of beauty, and the power of social life and manners,—he can hardly deny that this scheme,

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7Ibid., p. 80.
though drawn in rough and plain lines enough, and not pretending to scientific exactness, does yet give a fairly true representation of the matter."

In the past, predominance has been given to letters in education. Should this now pass from letters to science? Should we now abase mere literary instruction and education, exalt sound, extensive, and practical scientific knowledge? Shall we oust letters and transfer the predominance in education to natural sciences? "An observation to the effect that in our culture, the aim being to know ourselves and the world, we have, as the means to this end, to know the best which has been thought and said in the world." Since this was true, Arnold firmly believed that letters should hold first place, yet he did believe that some science should also be taught. He does not desire to exclude scientific study from his program for all should receive some knowledge of the natural world; he believes that something of the thorough-going and systematic spirit of science should be introduced into the work of Belles-lettres. He says, "there is no question between Professor Huxley and me as to whether knowing the great results of the modern scientific study of nature is not required as part of our culture, as well as knowing the

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8Ibid., pp. 101-102.
9Ibid., p. 82.
products of literature and art.--- All knowledge (he says) is interesting to wise man, and the knowledge of nature is interesting to all men.--- We must all admit that in natural science the habit gained of dealing with facts is a most valuable discipline, and that every one should have some experience of it. More than this, however, is demanded by the reformers. It is proposed to make the training in natural science the main part of education, for the great majority of mankind at any rate. And here, I confess, I part company with the friends of physical science, with whom up to this point I have been agreeing.\textsuperscript{10}

But Arnold realized that he was living in a barren age of English literature and that not much of current English literature came into this "best that is known and thought in the world." He lamented the selections found in the textbooks and urged uniformity and a more careful choice of the material placed in all textbooks. Throughout his writing we find many references to the literature of his period. He says:

"We in England, in our burst of literature during the first thirty years of the present century, had no manifestation of the modern spirit, as this spirit manifests itself in Goethe's works or Heine's. And the reason is not far to seek.

\textsuperscript{10}Ibid., p. 94-99.
We had neither the German wealth of ideas, nor the French enthusiasm for applying ideas. There reigned in the mass of the nation that inveterate inaccessibility to ideas, that Philistinism,—to use the German nick-name,—which reacts even on the individual genius that is exempt from it. In our greatest literary epoch, that of the Elizabethan age, English society at large was accessible to ideas, was permeated by them, was vivified by them to a degree which has never been reached in England since. Hence the unique greatness in English literature of Shakespeare and his contemporaries; they were powerfully upheld by the intellectual life of their nation; they applied freely in literature the then modern ideas,—the ideas of the Renaissance and the Reformation. A few years afterwards the great English middle class, the kernel of the nation, the class whose intelligent sympathy had upheld a Shakespeare, entered the prison of Puritanism, and had the key turned on its spirit there for two hundred years.11

One defect in the character of the English people was their great antipathy to compulsion and supervision. In every possible way he attempts in his essays and reports on education to point out the advantages or disadvantages of compulsory education. In "Friendship's Garland" Arnold gives

a good-natured yet biting satire on the educational conditions in all classes of English society. In these skits, Arminius, a young Prussian and a friend of Arnold's criticises the British institutions, and Arnold becomes the defender of the British. Through these criticisms of Arminius and the stanch defense of Arnold, a very delightful account of actual conditions in England results. Arnold says in relating the story:

"We were going out the other morning on one of our walks, as I said, when we saw a crowd before the inn of the country town where we have been staying. It was the magistrate's day for sitting, and I was glad of an opportunity to show off our local self government to a bureaucracy-ridden Prussian like Arminius. So I stopped in the crowd, and there we saw an old fellow in a smock-frock, with a white head, a low forehead, a red nose, and a foxy expression of countenance, being taken along to the justice-room. Seeing among the bystanders a contributor to the Daily Telegraph, whom I formerly knew well enough—for he had the drawing-room floor underneath me in Grub Street, but the magnificent circulation of that journal has long since carried him, like the course of an empire, westward.—I asked him if he could tell me what the prisoner was charged with. I found it was a hardened old poacher, called Diggs,--Zephaniah Diggs,—and that he was had up for snaring a hare,—probably his ten-thousandth. The worst of the story, to my mind, was that the old
rogue had a heap of young children by a second wife whom he
had married late in life, and that not one of these children
would he send to school, but persisted in letting them all
run wild, and grow up in utter barbarism......

"Such a peasant as that wretched old creature," he
said at last, "is peculiar, my dear friend, to your country.
Only look at that countenance! Centuries of feudalism have
effaced in it every gleam of human life."......"Centuries of
fiddlesticks!" interrupted I (for I assure you, I can stand
up to Arminius well enough on proper occasion). "My dear
Arminius, how can you allow yourself to talk such rubbish?
Gleam of humane life, indeed! do but look at the twinkle
in the old rogue's eye. He has plenty of life and wits about
him, has old Diggs, I can assure you; you just try and come
round him about a pot of beer!" "The mere cunning of an
animal:" retorted Arminius. "For my part," pursued I, "it
is his children I think most about; I am told not one of
them has ever seen the inside of a school. Do you know,
Arminius, I begin to think, and many people in this country
begin to think, that the time has almost come for taking a
leaf out of your Prussian book, and applying, in the ed-
ucation of children of this class, what the great Kant calls
the categorical imperative. The gap between them and our
educated and intelligent classes is really too frightful."
"Your educated and intelligent classes!" sneered Arminius,
in his very most offensive manner; "where are they? I should like to see them." 12

"But," continued Arminius, "you were talking of compulsory education, and your common people's want of it. Now, my dear friend, I want you to understand what this principle of compulsory education really means. It means that to ensure, as far as you can, every man's being fit for his business in life, you put education as a bar, or condition, between him and what he aims at. The principle is just as good for one class as another, and it is only by applying it impartially that you save its application from being insolent and invidious. Our Prussian peasant stands our compelling him to instruct himself before he may go about his calling, because he sees we believe in instruction, and compel our own class, too, in a way to make it really feel the pressure, to instruct itself before it may go about its calling. Now you propose to make old Biggs's boys instruct themselves before they may go bird-scaring or sheep-tending. I want to know what you do to make those three worthies in that justice-room instruct themselves before they may go acting as magistrates and judges." "Do?" said I; "why, just look what they have done all of themselves, Lumpington and Hittall have had

a public-school and university education; Bottles has had Dr. Silverpump's, and the practical training of business. What on earth would you have us make them do more?" "Qualify themselves for administrative or judicial functions, if they exercise them," said Arminius.  

Whatever Arminius may say, I am still for going straight, with all our heart and soul, at compulsory education for the lower orders.13

Arnold said 'the opponents of compulsory attendance contend that 'it is a matter which produces comparatively little practical results.' These people quote from a report of his, to show that in French Switzerland 'the making popular education compulsory by law has not added one iota to its prosperity.' But yet------ where popular education is most prosperous, there it is also compulsory. The compulsoriness is, in general, found to go along with the prosperity, though, it cannot be said to cause it."14

When the question of the "choice of subjects" came before the English people, Arnold was very emphatic. He believed in some industrial subjects, such as sewing. Writing, spelling, and calculating are not formative subjects but very

useful. Literature as taught had no value to the pupil. "Open their minds," he would say, "take them into the world of Shakespeare, and try to make them feel that there is no book so full of poetry and beauty as the Bible."¹⁵

Arnold was a man who liked his Bible and made use of it. In respect to the content of education, Mr. Arnold again and again refers to the worth of the Bible; he believed in the educative value of the English Bible. In a letter to William Steward, a working man at Bedford, May 8, 1872 he writes:

"I am sending you a little book, (note tells us the book was "A Bible-Reading for Schools") which will show you that I am trying to help popular education in an untried, but, as I think, an important sort of a way. Do not trouble to thank me for the book, unless anything occurs to you with respect to its design."¹⁶ In this little book referred to, he says: "Only one literature there is, one great literature"¹⁷ and that great literature is found in the Bible. He

¹⁷Sir Joshua Fitch, Thomas and Matthew Arnold and Their Influence on English Education. P. 196. (Quotation from Bible Reading for Schools P. 10). New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1897.
did not believe much in the compulsory enforcements of dogms, but the moral lessons and the intellectual ideals obtained from the Bible should not be neglected.

Grammar is a subject which has been very much criticised—no doubt justly—but nevertheless Arnold attaches great importance to it and firmly believes that correct use of words should be taught. During the nineteenth century there was much difference of opinion concerning the value of Latin and French. Many people had lost their enthusiasm for these languages, but not so with Arnold. He firmly believed that children should be taught other languages so they would know there were languages other than their own. If the child goes beyond the elementary grades into the secondary schools, he will find great need of his Latin and French.

In commenting upon examinations, Arnold thinks the French place their examinations at a proper age—between the age of fifteen and twenty-five, when the candidate is neither too old nor too young to be examined with advantage.

"To put upon little boys of nine or ten the pressure of a competitive examination for an object of the greatest value to their parents is to offer a premium for the violation of nature's elementary laws, and to sacrifice, as in the poor geese fattened for Strasburg pies, the due development of all the organs of life to the premature hypertrophy of one. It is well known that the cramming of the little human victims
for their ordeal of competition tends more and more to become an industry with a certain class of small schoolmasters, who know the secrets of the process, and who are led by self-interest to select in the first instance their own children for it. The foundations are no gainers, and nervous exhaustion at fifteen is the price which many a clever boy pays for over-stimulation at ten; and the nervous exhaustion of a number of clever boys tends to create a broad reign of intellectual deafness in the mass of youths from fifteen to twenty, whom the clever boys, had they been rightly developed and not unnaturally forced, ought to have learned. You can hardly put too great a pressure on a healthy youth to make him work between fifteen and twenty-five; Healthy or unhealthy, you can hardly put on him too light a pressure of this kind before twelve. 16

"Examinations preceded by preparation in a first-rate superior school, with first-rate professors, give you a formed man; examinations preceded by preparation under a crammer give you a crammed man, but not a formed one. I once bore part in the examinations for the Indian Civil Service, and I can truly say that the candidates to whom I gave the highest marks were almost without exception the candidates whom I

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would not have appointed. They were crammed men not formed men; the formed men were the public school men, but they were ignorant on the special matter of examination,—English literature.19

Arnold believed the English discipline entirely too lax; to his mind there was only one real cure—increased interest which can be obtained only through better instruction and better schools. In our English schools he says, "Rich endowments were wasted; parents were giving large sums to have their children taught, and were getting a most inadequate return for their outlay. Science, among those venerable towers in the vale of the Thames, still adored her Henry's holy shade; but she did very little else."20

Matthew Arnold was not much impressed by theory and pedagogy of education. He believed that each teacher in his own individual school would have his own individual problems. His problem is to awaken the minds, souls, and imaginations of those children of varying ages. No theory or pedagogy in his mind will be of great assistance to the teacher but the cultivation of the teacher's mind and soul is the great need. In his official reports he was always insistent that "The

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19Ibid., Chap. VIII, p. 104

teacher will open the children's soul and imagination the better, the more he has opened his own; so he will also clear their understanding the better, the more he has cleared his own."21 Apprehending this belief of Arnold we can readily con­ceive why Arnold was so insistent that his teachers study and obtain more literary culture than the government required of its teachers for a diploma.

"We have to regard the condition of classes, in dealing with education; but it is right to take into account not their immediate condition only, but their wants, their des­tination—above all, their evident pressing wants, their evi­dent proximate destination."22 He says: "The grand aim of edu­cation for Eton scholars should be to give them those good things which their birth and rearing are least likely to give them; to give them (besides mere book-learning) the notion of a sort of republican fellowship, the practice of a plain life in common, the habit of self-help. To the middle class, the grand aim of education should be to give largeness of soul and personal dignity; to the lower class, feeling, gentleness, humanity."23

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23 Ibid., pp. 82-83.
The middle class must demand those things which the aristocratic class have. "They must leave off being frightened at shadows. They may keep (I hope they always will keep) the maxim that self-reliance and independence are the most invaluable of blessings, that the great end of society is the perfecting of the individual, the fullest, freest, and worthiest development of the individual's activity."\(^\text{24}\)

"In this country we do not move fast; we do not organize great wholes all in a day. But if the State only granted for secondary instruction the sum which it originally granted for primary--20,000 pounds a year--and employed this sum in founding scholarships for secondary schools, with the stipulation that all the schools which sent pupils to compete for these scholarships should admit inspection, a beginning would have been made; a beginning which I truly believe would, at the end of ten years' time, be found to have raised the character of secondary instruction all through England."\(^\text{25}\)

"From the official point of view, Arnold was not, it must be owned, an exacting Inspector. If he saw little children looking good and happy, and under the care of a kindly and sympathetic teacher, he would give a favourable report, without inquiring too curiously into the percentage of

\(^{24}\text{Ibid., pp. 105-106.}\)

\(^{25}\text{Ibid., pp. 69-70.}\)
scholars who could pass the "standard" examination. He valued the elementary schools rather as centres of civilization and refining influence than as places for enabling the maximum number of children to spell and write, and to do a given number of sums without a mistake.\(^{26}\)

In conclusion, it may be said that Matthew Arnold never realized just what his work in education meant to England. As a poet he had an entirely different attitude toward life and learning than he, lacking poetic genius, otherwise would have had. The poet and philosopher looked upon the children as "human beings." He detested to be called an "educationist." He disliked all subjects such as child-psychology, pedagogy, and method which would come under the course of an 'educational expert.' He was interested in the social conditions and literature, and no one knew better than he that the education of the masses was the big problem for his country. He believed that the middle and lower classes would eventually gain the power in England. As inspector of the schools of England he prepared accurate reports concerning—"The training of teachers, the proficiency of pupils,


the text-books and methods in vogue, the effect of government grants to local boards, and kindred matters."27 Probably no inspector of schools ever had greater influence upon all with whom he came in contact than Arnold. His colleagues, teachers, and pupils looked upon him with admiration. He was more interested in the child and his behavior than in his knowledge. He believed in religious and moral training; he held letters, language, and discipline of thought as of greatest importance.

Whatever advancement has been made in teacher training, instruction, attendance, text-books, and literary studies at the present time, much is due to the efforts of Matthew Arnold in the nineteenth century. Whatever improvement in buildings and the life of the "Philistines" and "Populace" of England, credit for earnest and sincere work must be given to that early writer. As one reads the letters and carefully prepared reports of that poet inspector, he cannot help but believe that Arnold had learned to love his work, and it was no longer the drudgery which he so often spoke of in his early task as an inspector. His accuracy, thoroughness, honesty, and desire to do the work set before him in the best possible manner along with his poetic influence has left a mark upon the educational institutions and life of England which will never be erased, nor will the kindly personal touch of this man soon be forgotten.
One lesson, Nature, let me learn of thes,
One lesson, that in every wind is blown,
One lesson of two duties serv'd in one,
Though the loud world proclaim their enmity——

Of Toil unsever'd from Tranquillity:

Of Labour, that in still advance outgrows
Far noisier schemes, accomplish'd in Repose,
Too great for haste, too high for rivalry.
Yes, while on earth a thousand discords ring,
Man's senseless uproar mingling with his toil,
Still do thy sleepless ministers move on,
Their glorious tasks in silence perfecting:
Still working, blaming still our vain turmoil:
Labourers that shall not fail, when man is gone. 28


