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THE SPELLING PROBLEM.

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The new education has transformed the methods of teaching spelling as of all other subjects. But the results obtained have been so unsatisfactory that a feeling has arisen that the methods demand revision. There has, in consequence, been a re-awakening of interest in the subject, and prominent educationists have begun to enquire into the cause of the bad spelling in our schools. I shall endeavour to bring before you some of the latest attempts that have been made to solve the spelling problem.

The new education has condemned oral spelling. Spelling is for writing, not for speaking, and is therefore to be learned through the eye, not the ear. With oral spelling has gone the spelling-match, which was such a prominent feature of the old schools. With oral spelling has disappeared also syllabication, and C-o-n s-t-a-n t-i n-o p-l-e, not to mention C-o-n, Con s-t-a-n, stan t-i, ti n-o, no p-l-e. Constantinople, is no longer heard. The alphabetic method of teaching reading has been relegated to an effete past, and cat is now *cat*, and not c-a-t, cat. The old-fashioned spelling-book with its columns of words without connection, and its long list of rules and longer list of exceptions has shared a similar fate. Words must be learned as parts of a sentence, for the sentence is the unit of thought, and dicta-

tion and incidental spelling have taken the place of the spelling-book.

One result has certainly been that spelling has been taught at hap-hazard, difficulties have been met, if met at all, as they happened to be encountered, and in no systematic and graded way, many teachers, not quite sure of what to teach, have been drifting and trusting to the pupils' reading, writing, composition and busy work incidentally to make them good spellers. To whatever cause it may be attributed, the fact is that spelling is the most unsatisfactory subject in our schools, a cry has arisen from those trained by the old methods, "Back to the Spelling-Book," and prominent educationists have begun to investigate. And instead of sitting down in their studies and evolving theories from the inner recesses of their consciousness, or making sweeping deductions from imperfectly understood psychological principles, the methods of modern inductive psychology are being brought into use, and a careful study is being made of the actual spelling of large numbers of pupils. Several statistical studies of the spelling problem have appeared. Dr. J. M. Rice, who made such a stir among the schools of the United States a few years ago by a series of articles based upon observations in the schools of nearly all the principal cities, and who is now engaged in a study of educational waste, has contributed two notable articles to the *Forum Magazine* on the "Spelling Grind." Dr. E. R. Shaw, of the New York University School of Pedagogy, has studied the question of oral and sight spelling, and Miss Adelaide E. Wyckoff has made a brief but very suggestive study of constitutionally bad spellers. While one must be very careful in estimating conclusions reached by these means, lest the evidence be vitiated, or misjudged, or seen through a preconceived theory, it is striking that the first two of these writers reach practically the same conclusion that many of the old methods had at least their place.

In the light of these studies, as well as in the light of some observations of my own and a careful study of methods, I shall consider the subject in three divisions:—

- (1) The Psychology of Spelling.
- (2) Methods of Teaching Spelling.
- (3) Constitutional Bad Spellers, or what may be termed,
The Pathology of Spelling.

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF SPELLING.

It is one of the discoveries of modern experimental psychology that some learn more quickly through the eye, others through the ear. In other words, some are eye-minded or visualizers, others ear-minded or audiles. While the number of visualizers is much greater than the number of audiles, the fact that a certain percentage of the pupils of any school are almost certainly ear-minded would suggest the employment of methods comprehensive enough to make appeal to both classes. There is, then, a psychological deduction to be made in favour of some form of oral spelling. There is also the obvious fact that the more sense avenues can be employed in building up a mental image, the stronger that image will be, and the more clues there will be to its revival. Though the ear-gate may in most people be narrower than the eye-gate, the impression made through both will, in all, be surely stronger than the impression made through one only. Here, then, is another *a priori* principle in favour of oral spelling. And the truth of these deductions will, I believe, be borne out by systematic observation of children, by systematic oral and written spelling tests, and by the examination of pupils' mistakes.

Dr. Shaw tested "over 2,000 children with nonsense combinations of from three to ten letters in length. In the first part of the investigation 140 visual presentations of these were made. From thirty to forty pupils were tested at a time, and the tests were so divided as to make no fatiguing demands upon the pupils. Each child wrote down what he could recall of the 140 printed cards which were held up before him for a given length of time. The pupils were requested not to move their lips when looking at the combinations; and although we impressed upon them as strongly as we could that they must not use their lips, we found that, though they started out with very commendable effort not to do so, they soon lapsed into the use of their lips. When another strong appeal not to use the lips was made, many cases came under observation of children who, while inhibiting the use of their lips, were moving their hands or a finger, as if telling off the letters silently. After repeated observations by those who assisted in making the tests, it was agreed that at least ninety per cent. of all the children tested lapsed into aiding themselves by using their lips—

unless strongly appealed to when each combination was held up. This lapsing, moreover, occurred in schools where the spelling had been taught almost wholly by appealing to the eye. So strong a tendency as this is significant and suggests that it be turned to use in learning to spell; not that it be repressed, thus making, I believe, additional difficulties not only for the pupil, but also for the teacher.

Spelling is a very arbitrary matter, and yields to but slight extent to the logical and causal helps which are employed in teaching other subjects. Motor elements, it is well known, are important elements in association, and with so arbitrary a subject as English spelling, every aid in strengthening the association should be employed. From the experiments made, and the verification of the conclusions in actual school application, I am convinced that the motor apparatus used in speech should be employed, to a large extent, in teaching spelling. All preparation of words to be written should be oral preparation, and very careful preparation at that; particularly in the second, third, fourth, and fifth school years. Writing should be the final test, but only after careful preparation orally. And in that preparation the letters should be grouped into syllables, and the syllables pronounced according to the method of a generation ago. The poor results, now so common in spelling, would thereby be greatly bettered. In the end, time would be gained, and the pupil rendered better to help himself.

The method of leading the pupil to grasp the word as a whole through the eye has made confused spellers of large numbers of children. With some, however, it has produced excellent results. The tests show, that in the employment of this method many children seize the first and the last letters of the word, but leave out some of the middle letters or mix them. The naming of the three, four, or five letters, as the case may be, that constitute a syllable, and then attaching a name to these grouped letters, thus binding them into a small unity, aids the pupil to a remarkable degree in remembering the combination. And the putting of these small unities together into the larger word-unity gives the pupil a synthetic power to this end, and makes his progress more rapid and easy on the long road he must traverse in learning to spell. There is very little, if any, value in oral spelling which consists in naming one letter after another throughout the word; as, for instance, super-

intendent. The very demand in such practice inherently presupposes that the child can visualize the word. Such practice, therefore, affords little aid in strengthening the association of letters. "Shall we turn the hands back on the pedagogical clock?" it will be asked. Yes, if the hands have got ahead, and have been keeping false time.

It is surely a wonder that we have so long, so diligently and so unsuccessfully tried to repress the use of the lips, and have never thought to ask if it has any significance. Have we not been making the mistake here that we have made in so much of our teaching and discipline—inhibiting the motor activities, where we might regulate them, direct them to useful ends, and making them one of our strongest aids? Dr. F. Tracy, in his excellent work the "Psychology of Childhood," says:—

"A very interesting question in this connection (memory in children) is this: Which of the senses furnishes the most vivid and lasting memory-images? The first impulse would probably be to attribute the preeminence to sight, but in so doing we might make a mistake. It is probable, as M. Queyrat seems to think, that the muscular sense is of paramount importance here. Children are full of *action*, and their psychic life is bound up with movement. If they are to develop they must *do* something, and they remember what they do a thousand times better than what is told or shown to them. This is also true of adult life. Many persons study out loud. We remember what we *write* better than what we simply *read*. Pedagogy is now recognizing this as a great principle in education, and the whole kindergarten system is based upon it."*

A complete analysis of the powers employed in learning to spell would, I think, be (1) the eye, (2) the ear, (3) the speech apparatus, and (4) the muscular resistance of writing. The eye visualizes the general form of the word and the individual letters in their order, the ear also retains the succession of letters and forms, the sound image the voice and writing associate the mental image with muscular movement. It is necessary to establish not only an eye or ear image but a *muscle image* as well. It is here that we have the real argument for written spelling. The reason why pupils who are good oral spellers fail in the writing

* The Psychology of Childhood, p. 68.)

test is not that the ear is at fault but that the association of the letters with the muscular movement of writing has not been made. Spelling must be committed not only to the eye or ear but to the hand. "Let any one watch himself in writing slowly, and he will perceive that the words flow from the pen under the suggestive influence of a series of mental images. He will either hear the words mentally recited, or he will see them mentally in print or writing. Let him write more rapidly, and these images fade to mere suggestions of themselves, yet some clew remains, by means of which an automatic series of muscle memories is aroused, and the hand is guided in the correct motion. Knowing that the muscle images are linked to eye and ear images, we trace the maintenance of the sense images to physiological retentiveness, and their origin to the act of perception; while we find the results of this act determined by the way in which the attention is directed and by the conditions of sensation."‡

Even if English orthography were purely phonetic, mistakes in writing would still occur if continued practice were not given. Nor would, in this case, the argument for sight spelling entirely disappear. The eye would be subordinate to the ear, but visualization would still be a very important aid.

Oral spelling as a *final test of preparation* may be of little value, but as a *means of learning* it should not, I am convinced, be neglected, especially with young children. Oral spelling gives life and movement to a subject of little inherent interest, and in such a difficult matter as English orthography "the strongest possible complication of sensory elements" should be produced. Place yourself, as far as possible, in the position of the child. For you no combination of letters that spell a word is quite unfamiliar. Have a nonsense series of letters placed before you and observe yourself as you commit them to memory. You have learned to inhibit the motion of the lips, but do you not, unless you make an effort to check yourself, silently repeat, probably with slight motion of the head or tongue, the series? Even if you are sure you simply visualize, the question still remains, Is not pure visualization, like the inhibition

‡ Miss Wyckhoff, *Constitutional Bad Spellers*, Pedagogical Seminary, vol. II, No. 3.

of the motor, as, indeed, conditioned thereby, a power of the mature mind rather than of the child's? And if it be said that studying aloud is a bad habit, the reply is that education is progressive in the matter of motor inhibition as in everything else. Pupils in the higher grades may well be required to study silently. The forms of words have become familiar to them, their mental grasp has enlarged, the motor has become subordinate to the reflective. Indeed thought may be regarded as in a sense repressed muscle-action.

I have for some time been collecting and attempting to classify pupils' mistakes, my aim being to make myself familiar with the difficulties children experience, and also to discover, if possible, to what cause these mistakes might be attributed, and what, if any, remedy they suggested. The following groups are selected as the most suggestive:—

- (1) *Fisition (physician) stem, buro, nabour.*
- (2) *Skolars, peaseful; docter, seperate; plesant, parliment; ballance, emmigrant, excelent, oportunity; fascade, expatiate.*
- (3) *Examation, profienry, threating; prodiugious, prosodody.*
- (4) *Slodier, fruniture, phropet, smoe (some), panio (piano).*
- (5) *Decieve, beleive; conceed, excede; bundel, brakefast.*

Group (1) represents a class of words in which the sound is of little help. As between sight and sound these are pre-eminently eye-words. Group (2) represents a class of words which contain only one or two unnatural letters. Here again the sound cannot be followed. A strong visual impression of the unphonetic parts needs to be made. The mistakes of group (3) clearly suggest syllabication. They represent a large class of words which are difficult to visualize, because of their length, but which are easily spelled with the aid of syllabication and sound.

My attention was first drawn to this error by a pupil who almost invariably committed it. I found that he had good powers of visualization, but was very defective in sound-imaging. He was a stumbling reader. He had little idea of taking a word in parts and following the sound, and his powers of visualization did not seem equal to grasping the whole word. Dull in syllabication and sound greatly helped him. Mr. T. L. Bolton, in a study of the growth of memory in school children, which he made by dictating

number series, found that the memory span is strictly limited, the limit for pupils in the Public Schools being six. Some tests of my own, with nonsense combinations of letters exposed for a moment to the eye, indicate that the visual span is quite as limited as the auditory. Nine letters seemed to be the maximum number which pupils in the High School grades could span, when urged not to group. Nor does it necessarily follow, as Miss Wyckoff's tests seemed to show, that those who have the best visual grasp are the best spellers, but rather those who individualize the letters, take them in groups, recognize and pigeon-hole the fact that certain letters spell a word.

The errors of group (4) consist in a transposition of the order of letters. This transposition may occur when a word is quite well known for the reason that in writing the attention runs ahead of the hand. The fourth or fifth letter may be present in mind when the second or third is about to be written and may be put in its place. Then the omitted letter is recalled and is put in the wrong place. But these errors are probably due more frequently to defective mental image. How does this transposition of order occur? The explanation seems to be that the eye, in looking at a word, is not confined to one order, but may pass both backwards and forwards. It should, therefore, be carefully checked by the ear. It may be said that the pupil inevitably follows the sound, silently pronouncing the word as he spells, but this is by no means certain. This habit cannot be left to chance. The fact that so many pupils in our schools to-day have so little idea of aiding themselves by sound can only be attributed to the theory that spelling should be learned by sight and transcription and tested only in writing.

The errors of group (5) resemble those of group (4) in that they consist in a transposition of order; they differ in that the pronunciation is unchanged. They seem at first sight to be clearly the fault of the eye, but on closer examination this is by no means certain. They are probably due to an overlapping of visual images. The words have been seen in juxtaposition and confusion has arisen. The retina is like a photographic plate, and if a number of objects, differing only slightly in details, is presented in succession, the result is a blurred image or a composite photograph. Once this confusion has arisen it is very difficult

to break up the association. Will the ear give any aid? The ear, as has already been said, not only forms the sound image but also retains the image of the succession of letters. When doubt has arisen as to the correctness of a visual image, no amount of thinking will clear it up, but if we are able to fall back upon the ear it may be able to tell us if "it sounds right." There are a few words of which I can never be sure until I have repeated the letters. There is, moreover, a rhythm in oral spelling which tends to fix the order of the letters just as the notes of a harmony are fixed. Rhythm is a great aid in committing to memory any list. Thus, such a series as *p d k q m t* is best remembered if taken as *p-d-k' q-m-t'*, the voice not only pausing at *k* and *t*, but resting upon them. In repeating the alphabet, I find that the majority take it in groups of three or four letters, slightly accenting the last syllable. In repeating backwards, I have found none who do not do this, e.g., *z y x'*, *w v'*, *u t s'*, *r q p'*, etc. What pupil of the old school will ever forget the spelling of Mississippi which he learned as *M-i-ss'* (double 's) *i-ss' ipp-i'*? Children delight in rhythm, and the effort to stamp it out because of its tendency to sing-song can only be regarded as another attempt on the part of the pedagogue to improve upon God's workmanship.

METHODS OF TEACHING SPELLING.

If the conclusions I have reached are correct, I have already indicated the basal methods of teaching spelling. Perhaps the most comprehensive conclusion is that of Dr. Rice, who, after testing the spelling of many schools and making particular enquiries into the methods pursued, says: "As to oral and written, column and sentence spelling, I shall say only this, that the wise teacher will acquaint herself with as many methods and devices as possible and change from one to the other in order to relieve the tedium and to meet the needs of individual children. Before all she will beware of running off at a tangent with any particular method, because none yet discovered has proved a panacea."*

I have said that under the new methods spelling has

* The Futility of the Spelling Grind II, *Forum*, June, 1897.

been taught incidentally or at haphazard. The words of the reading lesson, of the object lesson, and the various school branches have been learned. This method has the advantage that the words are seen in their connections and that the pupil is trained to observe closely the words he reads. The new methods are not to be criticised for what they do but for what they leave undone. The obvious defects of the dictation and incidental methods are that they violate the fundamental principle from the less to the more difficult, and that many words may never be met at all. Dr. Rice states that on his visit to a class that was taught by the so-called natural method he found the pupils about to write a composition on the Pine, on which they had just had an observation lesson. "In preparation," he says, "the spelling lesson of the day consisted of the following words: *Exogœn, erect, cylindrical, coniferal, irregular, indestructible, pins, resuions, whorls*. First, as for systematic progress in spelling—from the easy to the difficult—a more absurd combination could scarcely be devised. And, second, from the practical point of view, such words as *exogœn, coniferal, whorl*, are entirely out of place,—at least until perfection in common words has been reached."† He recommends that the words be carefully graded, not only in regard to orthographical difficulties, but in accordance with the vocabulary of the child as well. In this way the course in spelling might become as systematic as in other subjects.‡ He further recommends that "precedence should be given to common words, while technical and unusual words should be taught incidentally," and that the course should be further abridged by excluding words that contain no catch, *i.e.*, words that naturally spell themselves. "My researches on this point," he says, "would indicate that more than half the common words belong to this category, and consequently need not be studied. The ideal ground to be covered in spelling would be represented, therefore, by a carefully graded list of common words most liable to be misspelled. The number of words in this list, according to my estimate, would be between six and seven thousand."§

† *Forum*, June, 1897, p. 416.

‡ *Ibid.*

§ *Ibid.*

It will surely rejoice the teacher's heart to think that she can give a fairly complete spelling course consisting of six or seven thousand words. But Dr. Rice proposes means to still further reduce her work. He continues:—

“When the words have been selected, the next step will lie in a systematic treatment of the difficulties. And here again the course is open to simplification, by separating the words that may be learned collectively from those which must be mastered individually.

“The words that can be acquired collectively are those to which rules of spelling apply. While in some instances the exceptions are so numerous as to rob the rules of their value, a few of them, nevertheless, are very reliable, at least for all practical purposes. And as these few rules govern thousands of words, it would be much less burdensome to master them than to memorize such words individually. Among these rules, two are particularly comprehensive, and should be taught, year after year, until applied automatically. They are: First, the rule referring to the doubling of the consonant, as in *run-running*; and, second, the rule concerning the dropping of the final e, as in *bake-baking*. That so many children, even in the highest grammar grade, should spell *lose* with two o's does not necessarily throw discredit on the teacher; but that a child who has attended school four years or more, should write ‘While runing he slipped,’ or ‘She was bakeing cake,’ is as unpardonable as if he were unable to add 2 and 2. And yet, out of 252 pupils in the fourth school year, whose papers were examined with reference to this point, *running* was misspelled by 94, *slipped* by 126, and *baking* by 69.”

Dr. Rice then presents a tabulated statement of errors to show that “as many errors were made on words governed by rules, as on those to which they did not apply,” and continues:—“The words that must be studied individually are those in which no clue is given either by sound or rules. The best to be done with such words, until our spelling is reformed, is to bring them to the notice of the child, and trust to chance for the results. The simple reform of dropping the silent letter in the last syllable of such words as *beggar*, *driver*, *doctor*, *mantel*, *bundle*, *metal*, would enable us to strike no less than 15 per cent of the words from the

described list. Again, in the long vowel sounds the difficulties are endless; the same sound being represented in so many different ways that it is a marvel to master them at all. To illustrate: *Blue, to, too, two, who, shoe, you, ewe; lieu, view, new (knew); no (know), sew, beau, toe, owe, oh, dough, goat.* Again, the choice between *ee* and *ea*, as in *feed, read*, is extremely puzzling. What a boon to our children it would be, to rid spelling of such peculiarities as these!

"Finally," he says, "I would suggest a separate list of those puzzling small words, which though constantly used in writing are yet so frequently misspelled. Among these may be mentioned *to, too, there, their, hear, here, any, many, much, such, which, those, whose, and does.* In all such a list need not include more than 150 or 200 words. As these words cannot be too often brought to the notice of the child, the drill should be begun as early as possible, and continued throughout the entire course."*

Can these ideas be applied practically? We find three fundamental principles underlying the methods of teaching spelling:—(1) The principle emphasized by the new education, that words must be learned in connection with their use as expressing thought, (2), the principle that words should be graded according to difficulty, and (3), that waste of time should be eliminated. Let us begin with the third. How is waste of time to be eliminated? Can we be sure that a very large percentage of words will spell themselves? I believe the key to this lies in teaching reading by the phonic method. It has been charged that the phonic method makes poor spellers. Dr. Rice found that some of the best results were obtained "where the phonic method had been employed; that, in fact, the phonic method had long formed a feature in the cities where the highest averages were made." Pupils taught by the phonic method acquire principles which are applicable to a very large number of words, unphonetic as the English language is. They are taught not only to perceive, but to apperceive, and "it is what is apperceived rather than what is perceived that educates." They are at the same time gradually introduced to words that are not phonetic, and by the time they have reached the age when spelling may be taken up

* *Forum*, June, 1896, p. 419.

formally, are ready for Dr. Rice's graded, inclusive and exclusive lists.

The question that arises in connection with these lists is: Would they not be bringing back the worst features of the old spelling book? While they conserve the principle "from the less to the more difficult," do they not violate the principle that words should be learned in connection with the thought which they express? If there really is a conflict of principles here, it would be necessary to decide, before answering in the affirmative, which principle is of greater importance. In this connection, I have examined several spellers and will venture a few criticisms upon them. Grafton's Speller, I need not tell you, is an excellent one in many respects. It is prepared from the standpoint of phonics; it groups words that have affinity; it gives connected narratives employing these words with many gems of literature and moral precepts. It is, in a word, not only a speller, but a language lesson book in the highest sense of the word. The different steps in the spelling lesson are excellently set forth in the preface, and due place is given to oral spelling. Its defect is that, from the nature of the case, the grading is imperfect, the difficulties of English orthography are imperfectly presented, and little attempt is made to eliminate waste. Gage's Speller, while to be compared with Grafton's in hardly any respect, has a more complete list of difficult words, and in the revised edition there is a special list of difficult words compiled from pupils' mistakes.

The best classification of difficult words that I have been able to find is a little book entitled "Common Words Difficult to Spell," by James H. Panniman, published by D. C. Heath & Co. It excludes technical words and words that spell themselves, and it passes by easy stages from the slightest to the most serious difficulties. It contains about 3,500 words. Combined with suitable dictation exercises, it should make an excellent systematic course in spelling. We should not, however, leave it entirely to others to do the work of classification for us. We should make ourselves familiar with the difficulties words present. Dr. Rice has pointed out some of these difficulties. Try your hand at classification, make a list of your pupils' mistakes and study them. The increased power that will be given you will well repay the effort.

How is spelling to be made intelligible and interesting? For if we fail here we must fail utterly, whatever our methods. Our aim must be not to get into our pupils' heads, *volens volens*, the spelling of a certain number of words. Here, as everywhere, the secret is to stimulate the pupils' own activities, to make him his own best teacher. The most natural way to secure an interest in the form of words is through the reading lesson. The child reads long before he expresses his own thoughts in writing. He must be led to take an interest in the thought and to aim to express it. Though the maxim that the good reader is the good speller requires more than its epigrammatic character to establish its truth, there is no doubt that the thoughtful reader is generally a careful observer of the form of words. The meaning of words should be associated with their spelling. We must recognize a word in order to be able to spell it, and we cannot fully recognize a word if we have no idea of its meaning or use. The dictionary, then, should be the constant companion of the reading and spelling lesson, and careful instruction should be given in its use. I am led to ask here, should we attempt to make the pupil understand the meaning of every word, phrase or passage he reads? I am inclined to think that the modern pedagogical maxims that a child must not be left with vague ideas, and that he must be trained to give back in words all the ideas we attempt to make clear to him as practice in expression and as the surest test that the ideas are grasped, is apt to cover a fallacy. Can we not recall, in looking back upon our own childhood, that some of the most profound impressions were made by words into whose meaning we merely had a glimmer? Were not some of our deepest feelings, feelings which we could not analyze? If the seed has been sown, can we not be satisfied to let it alone and wait for the harvest? Must we, like children, dig it up every day to make sure it is growing?

In connection with the meaning of words I think we should teach derivation a great deal more than we do. Derivations may be made very interesting to pupils who know nothing of Latin, Greek or Anglo-Saxon. Do we not remember what a revelation and a delight it was to us when we saw the precise meaning of such words as subjugate, satisfaction, sincere, &c. By grouping words containing the same root the meaning of the root may be indelibly

stamped on the mind. The caution to be observed here is that the root be accurately learned. We must be careful to give the correct word; otherwise we shall be laying broad and deep a foundation of inaccurate scholarship. A very useful exercise in derivation is to have pupils find words containing a given root. Then the difference of meaning expressed by the prefixes or suffixes may be brought out. A knowledge of prefixes is also a distinct aid to spelling. A pupil who knows the meaning of *im* and *e* will not be troubled to know whether immigrate or emigrate, e.g., is spelled with one *m* or two. Derivation gives synthetic power; as was said of phonics, it teaches not only to perceive but to apperceive.

When a pupil has learned the pronunciation, orthography and derivation of a word he should be required to frame a sentence employing it. There is, however, a caution to be observed in this exercise. There are many words whose meaning children can only imperfectly understand at best. I often find it very difficult to frame a sentence to bring out the meaning of a word, whereas if I required the word to express a thought it would immediately present itself. Do not strain after sentences in the hope of illustrating the meaning of words. Take care that you do not fix in the minds of your pupils wrong associations.

This brings me to the principle of association as an aid to spelling. From careful observation of the effects of association both in myself and others, I have come to the conclusion that it needs to be employed with great care. There are helpful associations and there are harmful ones. It goes without saying that the association of a word with the expression of thought is a great aid. The association of synonyms is not only a valuable aid in spelling, but also in the exact use of words. There is no more pleasant or profitable exercise than comparing and contrasting words that have fine shades of difference in meaning. I have some doubt, however, about the advantage of associating homonyms. Should we bring *to*, *too*, *two*; *their*, *there*, &c., together, or rather should we not keep them as far apart as possible. Are we not in danger of making the one image overlap the other and producing a blurred image or at best a composite photograph. Should we not aim to associate these words with their use only? In the sentence "There are four of us," the possibility of using *their* should not be

allowed to occur to the child if it can be prevented. This is a subject, I think, for careful observation. There are many other helpful associations. A friend told me a few days ago that he was so mortified at misspelling parliament without the silent a that he never forgot it. If we could impress upon our pupils that misspelling is a disgrace, we could establish the most effective kind of association. If one has trouble with oblige, he may, if he is quite sure of knowledge, remember by contrast, that oblige has no *d*. Brooks gives the case of a lady who was enabled to remember that agreeable had two ee's by thinking of *two* agreeable gentlemen. Whether the time spent in acquiring facility in making such associations as this is well spent, I shall leave each one to decide for himself.

There are some associations, which, I am convinced, should never be made. We are all agreed, I think, that the wrong form should not be associated with the correct one and that for this reason pupils should be trained not to attempt to spell a word of which they are doubtful. Just as surely as that there is not a pin let fall upon the floor but the deepest base of the Rockies feels the shock, so there is not a picture presented to the mind that does not leave its impress. If we write a word incorrectly, the wrong form is apt to fix itself so firmly that it will constantly present itself, and we shall hesitate between it and the correct form. The same is true of associating such words as receive, believe; exceed, concede. After seeing them together we are apt to find ourselves in the position of the poor centipede depicted in the following rhyme:—

The centipede was happy quite,
 Until the toad, for fun,
 Said, bray, which leg comes after which?
 This worked his mind to such a pitch,
 He lay distracted in the ditch,
 Considering how to run.

In spelling, as in other school matters, there are things about which the wise teacher will be silent. It is well for her to know where the difficulties lie, but she will not tell her pupils all she knows.

Another association which is both harmful and deceptive is that of words of the same combination. On this point, Dr. W. T. Harris, U.S. Commissioner of Education, says that words should be arranged "so as not to bring together a num-

ber of words of the same combination, and thereby paralyze the memory, as is too frequently the case in the lists given in spelling books, which, for example, collect in one lesson the words ending in *tion* or *tain* or *ture* or *cious*, etc., thus giving the pupil by the first word that is spelled a key to all that follow." This criticism applies, I think, to a great deal of the so-called word building. The repetition of a-t at, c-a-t cat, m-a-t mat, &c., may be useful to teach sound, but if carried to any length, becomes a great farce. At the same time, there are, no doubt, many useful exercises in word building.

Time does not permit me to discuss the methods of conducting the spelling lesson. They are fully given in Brooks' "Methods of Teaching," a book which, I think, is in the hands of most of our teachers. I shall emphasize only a few points: (1.) What time should be devoted to the spelling lesson? Dr. Rice found that there was what might be called a point of diminishing returns in spelling, *i.e.*, a point beyond which time devoted to the subject does not yield a corresponding progress. The time that may be profitably devoted to the subject he estimates at fifteen minutes daily. Whether the point of fatigue can be determined with such mathematical precision I do not know, but it is my experience that with such a subject as spelling, it is better to take a few words daily rather than several columns once or twice a week. A few difficulties mastered each day will work wonders.

(2.) Do not let a pupil attempt to spell a word he knows he cannot spell. Our aim is to prevent mistakes, not to correct them.

(3.) Do not give a second chance. A child either knows a word or he does not know it; do not permit guessing.

(4.) If you cannot correct each pupil's exercise yourself, I think it is best that he should correct his own. It is bad enough for him to see his own mistakes without those of others. A good plan is to take yourself for correction one pupil's exercise, and a different one's, each day. This will enable you to keep in touch with all the class.

(5.) Have the pupils keep a list of misspelled words. But instead of dulling, drilling upon them, let the pupil's motto be, "Never make a mistake without correcting it in such a way that you never make it again." What is learned to-day should be known to-morrow. Take for granted that it

is, and give good-natured tests from time to time and quick reproof to those who have failed to live up to the motto. This, I am persuaded, is much more effective than endless repetition. The pupil ceases to pay any attention to what is continually dinned into his ears.

CONSTITUTIONAL BAD SPELLERS OR THE PATHOLOGY OF SPELLING.

The majority of constitutional bad spellers are probably dull. Dr. Rice, who noted in connection with his spelling tests the age, nationality, heredity and environment of the pupils, finds that intellect is of much more importance than age. Dr. Shaw found "that the poor spellers, in their power to learn to spell new words, were from a year to a year and a half behind the good spellers, taking, of course, children of the same age."*

All constitutional bad spellers, however, are not dull. Many are of average, some of exceptional ability as students and thinkers. While every dull pupil should be an object of solicitude to the teacher, from the point of view of spelling it is this class that demands his special study. Miss Wyckoff made observations upon five young women who were able and faithful students but "incorrigible bad spellers, whose early training and experience seemed to offer no adequate explanation of the difficulty." For the sake of comparison she made tests at the same time of two good spellers. She found that these seven students possessed three modes of attention corresponding with three types of mind. The bad spellers of the first type were two students who always sought out the general principle and remembered by means of it. "Conspicuous as thinkers they were comparatively slow readers, having the habit of reading one word at a time." They had "good powers of visualization and sound imaging and fair retention, but were gifted with a natural mode of attention unsuited to purposes of spelling." The second mode of attention was represented by one young woman whose powers of mind were analytic. She could perceive relations, but could not visualize and retain. She could notice quickly points of relation in "words and irregular geometric figures, variously marked," but "could not write fast enough to get the points on paper

* Teachers' Institute.

before they were forgotten." The third mode of attention represented by the good spellers corresponded to good all-round ability and the appreciation of facts as facts." The best natural speller perceived long words in two or more groups of letters (syllabication); none of the poor spellers having this habit. "Comparison of eye and ear series of tests brought out the fact that one of the poor spellers was an audile." "The tests for optical defects showed astigmatism in four of the poor spellers, short sight in one, normal vision in one only of the five."

Miss Wyckoff emphasizes the following points:—

"1. Many constitutional bad spellers have defective sight; some defective hearing.

"2. The same causes that have operated to impair the sight or the hearing have frequently impaired the retentive power.

"3. Constitutional bad spelling may in part be the result of a strong natural bent towards selective attention.

"In such cases, where the syllable method of teaching might be especially ineffective, the mechanical memory would be helped by assisting attention in its selection. For example, above the word *separate* might be written, as an invitation to the eye, the syllable p-a-r.

"5. Apperceptive methods should be employed from the outset in the teaching of spelling. For the class of students just mentioned they are a necessity; for all they are an economy."

In this connection she gives this excellent suggestion:—

"The children could use a set of cards, each containing a word so chosen as to furnish material for induction in the finding of root, prefix and suffix, and the meaning of each. Then, using these as tracers, they could notice in reading and blackboard exercise such new words as contained the familiar elements. The words *separate*, *preparatory*, and *reparation* could form the nucleus of such a group for the use of children old enough to understand their meaning."

"6. It might be well to devise some exercises for perfecting the automatic circuit (*i. e.*, to train to write without thinking consciously of the spelling.) Possibly practice in writing with the hand concealed might be of service, use being made of selections that had been memorized."

In conclusion I cannot do better than quote the words of Dr. Rice:—"Although a liberal admixture of methods and

a judicious selection of words would be of material assistance, nothing can take the place of that personal power which distinguishes the successful from the unsuccessful teacher." "Methods and devices play only a subordinate part."

CORRELATION OF STUDIES OR THE NEW IDEA IN EDUCATION—(Continued.)

THE FIVE FORMAL STEPS OF INSTRUCTION.—Last month we considered the *correlation of subjects* in the school course to bring about *assimilation* or *digestion* of knowledge. We may now examine the five formal steps by which this end is reached in the case of individual lessons. In relation to the physical life, complete assimilation has taken place when the food, having been acted upon by many forces, at last finds its way into the blood and mixes with it. So when new knowledge finds its relation to previous knowledge in the mind, mental assimilation has taken place and the child has *apperceived*.

THE AIM OF THE LESSON.—The lessons of the day are divided up so as to devote half an hour or twenty minutes, as the case may be, to individual lessons in reading, history, spelling, writing, geography, etc., though in certain schools these subjects are all based upon the same topic. The Herbartians advocate giving to the child the aim of each lesson or group of lessons as an aid to definite knowledge. For instance the teacher might say, "We are going to learn all we can about bees to-day," or, "The lesson to-day is on nouns." The reason assigned, for presenting the aim of the lesson first, is that in this way the child prepares his own mind to some extent for the coming work, he shuts out irrelevant matter and brings on all that bears on the subject. This method is known to us as the topical method of teaching and is invaluable in teaching history and the higher branches of all school and college work. The aim of the lesson may be written on the black-board.

FIRST STEP. THE REVIEW OR PREPARATION FOR THE LESSON.—This is to provide a friendly greeting for the new matter when presented. It is an invitation to all older ideas interested in the new comers to step forward and be arranged in an orderly manner so that the new material of thought may readily find its resting place in the mind.

Sometimes in a so-called review, matter not bearing on the subject to be presented is brought forward, or, though bearing directly on the subject is not well arranged. In these cases assimilation cannot be perfect.

SECOND STEP. PRESENTATION OF THE NEW LESSON.—The material of the lesson should be presented in a logical orderly manner. Question and answer may be the form of presentation.

THIRD STEP. COMPARISON AND UNION OF IDEAS.—The new ideas must be compared with one another and with older ideas, and resemblances and differences noted. What is common and necessary to all must be made to stand out prominently by repetition and little differences to sink into obscurity. The fourth step is made possible in this way.

FOURTH STEP. GENERALIZATION.—This is the severance of the abstract idea from the concrete things by which the abstract was reached. It is the formulation of general rules from the particular facts presented. The child should make his own generalization and frame his own rules, which will have an exact correspondence to his knowledge at the time, though they may not be as broad generalization as the text-books would give. The teacher must aid the child to put his generalizations into choice English. The fourth step must be clinched by repetition of the generalization or rule.

FIFTH STEP. APPLICATION OF KNOWLEDGE TO LIFE.—Here the child passes from knowing to doing. The child is a social unit, he must use his knowledge for society.

A LESSON IN ENGLISH GRAMMAR. AIM OF THE LESSON.—The aim of the lesson is to show how adverbs may be classified. (This is an elementary lesson.)

FIRST STEP. REVIEW.—The child has already classified in several ways nouns, verbs and adjectives. Recall to his mind that of the adjective by numerous examples. Question him upon the *use* of the adverb in the sentence through a series of examples. I talk. I talk quickly. You listen. You listen attentively. Joe is writing. Joe is writing rapidly. Jennie speaks. Jennie speaks politely. Time flies. Time flies swiftly. Next take sentences with adverbs, modifying adjectives or adverbs. Ask the children to suggest sentences containing adverbs. The teacher must be careful to eliminate non-essentials in the answers given,

without discouraging the suggestors. Unless he does so, when two complex sentences are given, he will find it impossible to concentrate attention upon the essential facts of the lesson.

SECOND STEP. PRESENTATION.—Sentences containing adverbs of manner, of place, of time and of degree may now be placed upon the board. (Adverbs of inference, sequence and argument may be taken up later on). Accompanying the sentences should be a series of questions drawing from the pupils the fundamental meaning of the adverb. He goes to-morrow. When does he go? To-morrow. He is coming soon. When is he coming? Soon. The bird soars upwards. Where does the bird soar? He reads correctly. In what manner does he read? The child may be asked to give sentences in imitation of the foregoing.

THIRD STEP. COMPARISON.—Compare to-morrow and soon, etc., as to difference of meaning, soon and to-morrow, etc., with upward, etc. Now place upon the board the four headings for classification as drawn from the answers, adverbs telling when, adverbs telling where, adverbs telling how, adverbs telling to what degree. Under the proper heading place each adverb that has been made use of, and ask for others of the same class so as to bring new words under the proper heading. Give many examples to bring out resemblances and differences. The adverbs all modify verbs, adjectives or other adverbs, but some tell when an action has been done, others where it has been done, while others again tell why it has been done, etc. Draw attention to the termination of adverbs of manner. These are formed from adjectives by adding *ly*, as bad, badly, and wise, wisely. The difference between adverbs and adjectives as to use and form may be noted.

FOURTH STEP. GENERALIZATION.—How many classes of adverbs are there? What are adverbs of manner? of degree? of time? of place? With what words do adverbs of manner usually go? adverbs of place? adverbs of degree? adverbs of time? Where is the adverb placed in the sentence? Other generalization may be drawn as determined by the lesson.

FIFTH STEP. APPLICATION.—Lists of adverbs for classification may be placed on the board. Pupils may add other adverbs. The words given should be put into sentences. The correct use of the adverb may be taught by writing

sentences in which the adverb is commonly misused, omitting the adverb, and having the children supply it in correct form. John runs——. Quickly is supplied, not quick.

Practical Hints and Examination Papers.

—THE accompanying arithmetical problem, taken from *St. Nicholas*, will be found useful as a test in determining to what extent children are accustomed to present to their minds clear and vivid pictures of the essential factors of problems. Upon this will depend, to a great extent, their insight into the relations of numbers: "Once upon a time there were two old men who sat in the market early every morning and sold apples. Each one had thirty apples, and one of the old men sold two for a cent and the other old man sold three for a cent. In that way the first old man got fifteen cents for his basket of apples, while the second old man received ten cents; so that together they made twenty-five cents each day. But one day the old apple man who sold three for a cent was too sick to go to the market, and he asked his neighbor to take his apples and sell them for him. This the other old man very kindly consented to do, and when he got to the market with the two baskets of apples, he said to himself, "I will put all the apples in one basket, for it will be easier than picking them out of two baskets." So he put the sixty apples into one basket, and he said to himself, "Now, if I sell two apples for one cent, and my friend sells three for one cent, that is the same thing as selling five for two cents. Therefore I will sell five for two cents." When he had sold the sixty apples he found that he had only twenty-four cents, which was right; because there are twelve fives in sixty, and twice twelve are twenty-four. But if the old man had been there, and each one had sold his apples separately, they would have received twenty-five cents. Now, how is that explained? What is the incorrect statement in this problem?

—THE question of variation in the length of day and night at different latitudes is a very important one and is somewhat difficult for the young teacher to handle successfully. A globe or large ball, with markings inserted when necessary, and a lamp or candle are very much better instruments at first than diagrams on the black-board, though

these should be used later on. The effect of moving the candle up and down on the face of the globe, and slanting the globe at various angles should be tried, and results noted. A small piece of paper on the globe to mark the position of the school-house would add to the interest of the lesson, for, of course, the question in relation to the children themselves would be discussed first of all. Then other places would be considered until the far north and south came in for their share of attention. As an accompaniment to the latter part of the lesson, an account of Miss Falconer's experience, as a school-teacher, in the far away regions of the north, would bring the subject home to the children in a very pleasant way. Miss Falconer taught at Circle City on the Yukon and relates in the *Century Magazine* her strange experiences :

"During the short winter days it would often be noon before all the children put in an appearance. When I arrived at nine o'clock it would either be dark or brilliant moonlight. Smoke might be seen lazily rising from four or five cabins out of the four or five hundred. I would light one lamp and wait.

At ten o'clock a few children would straggle sleepily in, just as day began to dawn. By eleven o'clock, shortly after sunrise, the majority of the children were at school, some coming without their breakfasts. By half-past twelve all who were coming that day would have appeared. It was hard to get up before daylight on those cold, dark mornings.

It was necessary to light the lamps at half-past one, which was trying to the eyes, as we could not get enough lamps to light the large room. The children would crowd about the lamps, sitting on the floor, platform and seats.

A visitor might get the impression that there was little order in the school, but strict order was a necessity. Perhaps one reason why I liked the school so much was because it kept me so busy. Recess was limited, in order to make up for the tardiness of the morning.

At half-past three fifteen or twenty of the little ones were sent home. If it was moonlight, they would race away noisily over the snow. If it was dark, the more timid ones would take my hand and whisper, 'Please, I want to go with you.'

Most of the children were so used to the dark that they did not mind it much. The majority of the nights, though, were filled with glorious moonlight. It seemed to me that for days at a time the moon never set. It would shine through the day about as bright as did the weak pale sun. For about three weeks the sun would slowly rise in the south, skim along for a short distance, its lower rim almost touching the horizon, and then drop suddenly out of sight.

When at length the days grew longer and sunbeams began to steal in at the school-room windows, the children greeted them with shouts of welcome, fairly dancing with delight, and running to the window-sill to lay their cold hands in the warmth and brightness."

It would be a matter of some difficulty for Miss Falconer to explain to her children our changes of day and night.

—THE following tribute to the value of classical training will not be without interests to many of our readers. It is from the pen of Senator George F. Hoar, who speaks from his knowledge of men in legislative halls, court houses and political life generally. "I think the best character, intellectually and morally, the best type of cultivated manhood, the best instruments for the people's service, in public life or at the bar, or in the pulpit, the most perfectly rounded type and example of the gentleman which the world has so far seen, is to be found in the product of the English and American universities and colleges. It is a type of manhood which in England, certainly, is improving and growing better from generation to generation. * * * Now I have a deep-seated and strong conviction that one powerful influence in forming such a character, in the matter of taste, of mental vigor, of the capacity for public speaking and for writing, in the power of conveying with clearness and force and persuasive power, without any loss in the transmission, the thought that is in the mind of the speaker or writer to the mind of the people, is to study and translate what are called the classics, the great Latin and Greek authors. I think this not only an important but an essential instrumentality. I feel very confident that the men whom I have known at the bar, in public life, and in the pulpit, who have been good Latin and Greek scholars, and who have kept up the love and study of either language through life, especially those who have been lovers of Greek, have shown great superiority in the matter of effec-

tive public speaking. And certainly the biographies of Englishmen of note for the last hundred years will show the same thing."

—TRUTHFULNESS.—A little four-year-old kindergartner remarked one day, "I saw a bee in the yard and it was this big," (indicating an object as large as a good-sized turnip. "Oh, no, that is impossible," replied a lady present, "bees are never as large as that." "No," said the little one inquiringly. "Well, I saw a bee as big as they *usually* are and it had four flies in its mouth." Meditation on the part of the listener followed. Along with the training of the imagination must go education in truth recognizing and truth speaking. The imaginative faculty is one of the most important that the child possesses, but it should not be allowed to control the whole being. How delightful the world of fancy is, we can very easily recall, by running back along the road to childhood and bringing to mind the delights of fairy tales, adventures and air castles in which we revelled. But the child must be taught that truth is not *what he can get people to believe* but is conformity to fact. If a child is to speak the truth he must be taught to do so, not by being punished for exercising his imagination, but, by being afforded opportunities of practising, under wise direction, the making of statements, whose accuracy or inaccuracy can be demonstrated to the child. This may be done by getting him to state what he sees at a given moment, or, to take messages to various people who note down the facts as given by the child. Commendation for exactness is an essential adjunct of such exercises. We sometimes forget, too, what an important part in securing this result certain school exercises play, for instance, the definition of words, relating what has been read without adding to or taking from the essentials of the narrative, exercises in arithmetic where the child can teach for himself at each step the accuracy of his work, translating from one language to another without deviating in the slightest degree from the thought of the author, and so forth.

—ADVERSITY has the effect of eliciting talents which in prosperous circumstances would have lain dormant.

—*Horace.*

—ON the whole it is good, it is absolutely needful, for one to be humbled and prostrated, and thrown among the

pots from time to time. Life is a school ; we are perverse scholars to the last and require the rod.—*Carlyle*.

—RESOLVE to edge in a little reading every day, if it is but a single sentence ; if you gain fifteen minutes a day, it will make itself felt at the end of the year.—*Horace Mann*.

—PERIODS which no master has described, whose spirit no poet has breathed, are of small value for education.—*Herbart*.

—THE letter kills and the spirit makes alive. It is important to learn a trade, less for the sake of knowing the trade than for overcoming the prejudices which despise it.
Rousseau.

—THE wolf of science will pounce upon the sheepfold of literature, and will soon have devoured its inoffensive occupants. Soon it will be mathematically demonstrated that not only Horace and Virgil, but Racine and Molière are “old fogies.”—*Fouillée*.

—REMINDERS.—The teacher must get down to the level of the child, but must neither stay there nor leave the child where he finds him. Help him higher.

Give a child the desire to learn, and all devices for interesting him and shortening the process of acquiring knowledge may be dispensed with.

The child must early learn to rely upon himself. Accustom children to investigate for themselves.

The questioning of the teacher shows the activity of the teacher's mind. The questioning of the child indicates the activity of the child's mind.

Bring the child into contact, not with symbols for things, but with the things themselves.

Say good morning to the children.

—DEFECTIVE CHILDREN.—At the annual meeting of the New England Normal Council, held in Boston last May, the defects of children as to sight and hearing were under discussion. Defects with respect to nutrition and mental defects were also considered. Suggestions for detecting the defects were given. For finding out short-sighted children the Snellen test types were used, and for astigmatism converging lines. Hearing or rather want of hearing was discovered by the stop watch. The teachers-in-training are

sent into the homes of the children, in the schools attached to the training school, to note methods of cooking and preparing food. Mr. Munroe spoke of his way of detecting mental deficiency by physical signs, through limp, cold hands, a V-shaped palate, want of symmetry in the face, dragging of one foot, etc.

VALUE OF KINDERGARTEN TRAINING.

BY LOUISE DERICK.

That the pleasant is useless, the disagreeable beneficial, is an idea which lingers in many minds, and frequently finds expression in connection with the kindergarten. But a little observation should convince all that happiness and healthful play may be the accompaniments of work that leads to definite ends.

Froebel intended that the kindergarten should train the child physically, mentally and morally, and he devised various games and exercises for this purpose. Many modifications of and additions to his system have been made by later educators; but, like Froebel, kindergartens aim at a harmonious development of all the child's faculties.

A careful study of child-nature enables the teacher to follow natural laws, and to lead the child "from the known to the unknown" by such gentle steps that not exhaustion but a healthy stimulation results. Children grow by means of their own activity; and it is by guiding this activity, employing every moment, alternating stirring with quieter exercises, that growth in right direction proceeds steadily.

A child first becomes conscious of himself and is later brought into relationship with the external world by means of his senses. The various games and exercises of the kindergarten are adapted to the development of these senses. Objects are examined as to color, texture, form and size; colours are matched and arranged harmoniously; and the ear is trained by songs which emphasize other lessons.

But, before impressions can have their full value, they must find expression, means of which are furnished largely by the occupations. Drawing, modelling, sewing, weaving, etc., serve for the reproduction of mental pictures and permit that variety so necessary to young children. Single

impressions are not only received and given expression, but are combined and viewed in relation to one another. It is necessary that the power of judgment be developed and that originality and inventiveness be encouraged. Kindergarten children, therefore, are not obliged to work along fixed lines constantly, but are permitted to make new designs, to suggest games and songs, in short to reveal each his own individuality.

The morning-talk, which follows the opening exercises, is an important factor in forming a child's character. Coming early in the day, new ideas are readily imparted, and later are incorporated in game, song and occupation. Suitable subjects for the talks are always at hand and are chosen according to the season. In all the talks, an effort is made to "present the right thing at the right time and in the right way;" but the children make their own discoveries, tell what they have observed, and draw their own conclusions.

More important than the bodily exercise and mental stimulus is the moral training which should be the aim of every kindergartner. The talks and games soon transform the shy and lonely new-comer. He has already learned to know and love those in his own home, he now begins to appreciate those without it, and to recognize the many who minister to his comfort. Through intercourse with other children he is taught lessons of unselfishness and sociability, and led to co-operation, helpfulness, and the expression of loving interest. "The kindergarten is primarily a place of growth as its name suggests, but it is a mistake to think that children do not learn because they do not read and cipher. They learn colors, form, sounds, numbers; they learn to listen to the teacher's voice; to attend to signals on the piano; they learn of animals and plants; they watch the change in seasons, the wind, the snow, the rain, the sun, the clouds; they collect and examine many natural objects as leaves, shells, pebbles, acorns, twigs, grains, nuts, fruits, wool, cotton, feathers, nests, etc.; thus their imagination is aroused and their senses are trained. The constant thought of the true kindergartner is the employment of the child's activity; he is led to be actively creative; hence all his powers are aroused."

Official Department

DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION,

QUEBEC, June 26th, 1899.

The Secretary-Treasurer School Board,

SIR,—I have the honor to send you herewith a copy in pamphlet form of the School Law passed at last session, in order that it may be followed in your coming July elections. During the summer an indexed and bound copy of the law with notes and Committee regulations will be sent to each secretary-treasurer and school board member in the Province of Quebec.

I have the honor to be,

Sir,

Your obedient servant,

B. DE LA BRUÈRE,

Superintendent.