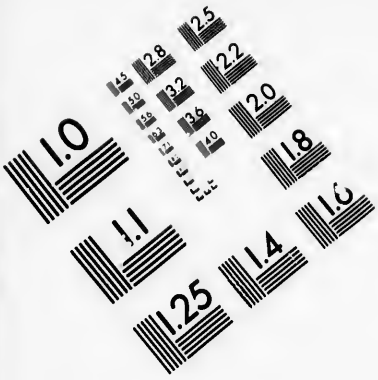


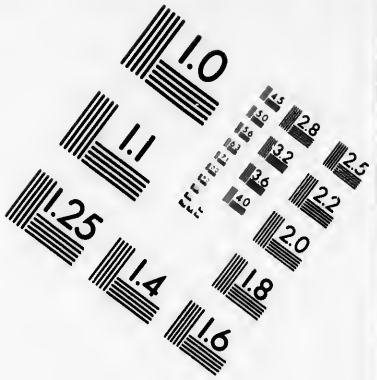


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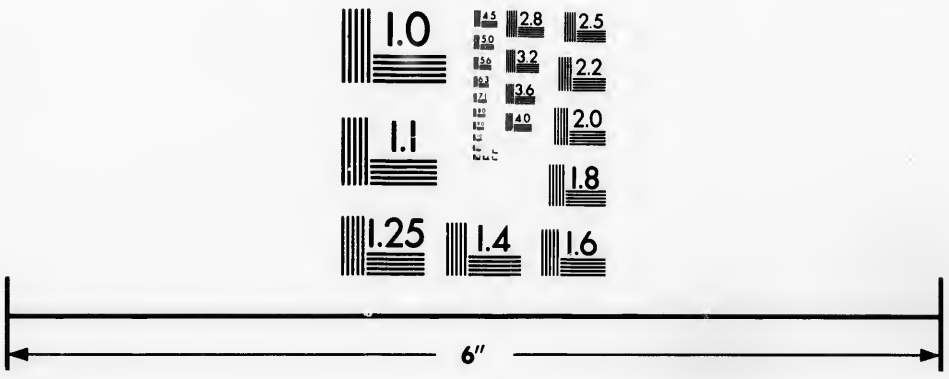


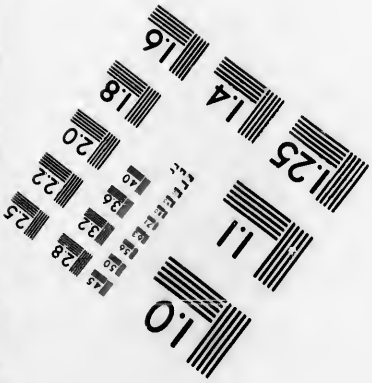


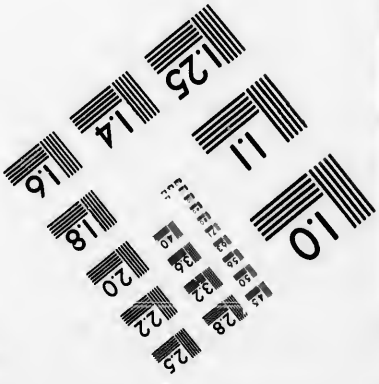


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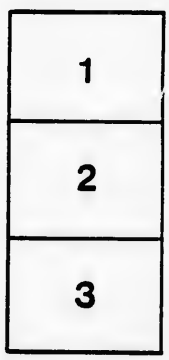
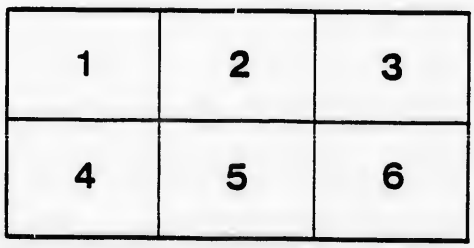


# REPORT

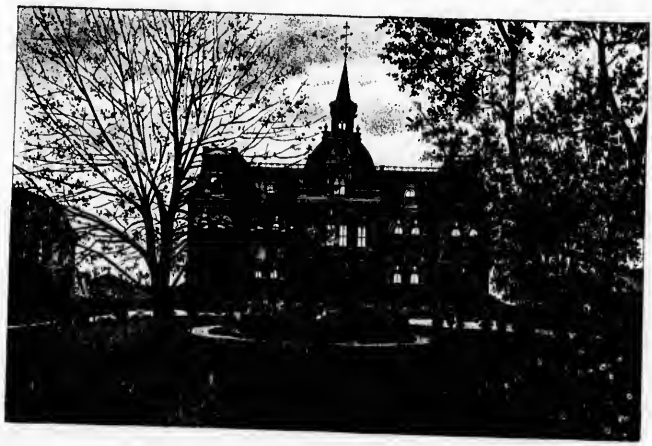
OF THE

# TWELFTH CONVENTION

OF THE

# Provincial Educational Association

16TH, 17TH, 18TH OCT., 1895.



The ***special attention*** of the Readers of this Report is called to the attractive advertisements which it contains. From personal knowledge of the firms represented and from business dealings with nearly all of them, the ***Secretary*** is able to say that they represent the very best in their respective departments.

HALIFAX, N. S.:
PRINTED BY WILLIAM MACNAB, 3 PRINCE STREET,
1896.

# REPORT

OF THE

# TWELFTH CONVENTION

OF THE

# Provincial Educational Association

OF

# NOVA SCOTIA,

HELD IN THE

ASSEMBLY HALL, PROVINCIAL NORMAL SCHOOL, TRURO,

16TH, 17TH, 18TH OCT., 1895.

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PROVINCIAL NORMAL SCHOOL, TRURO.

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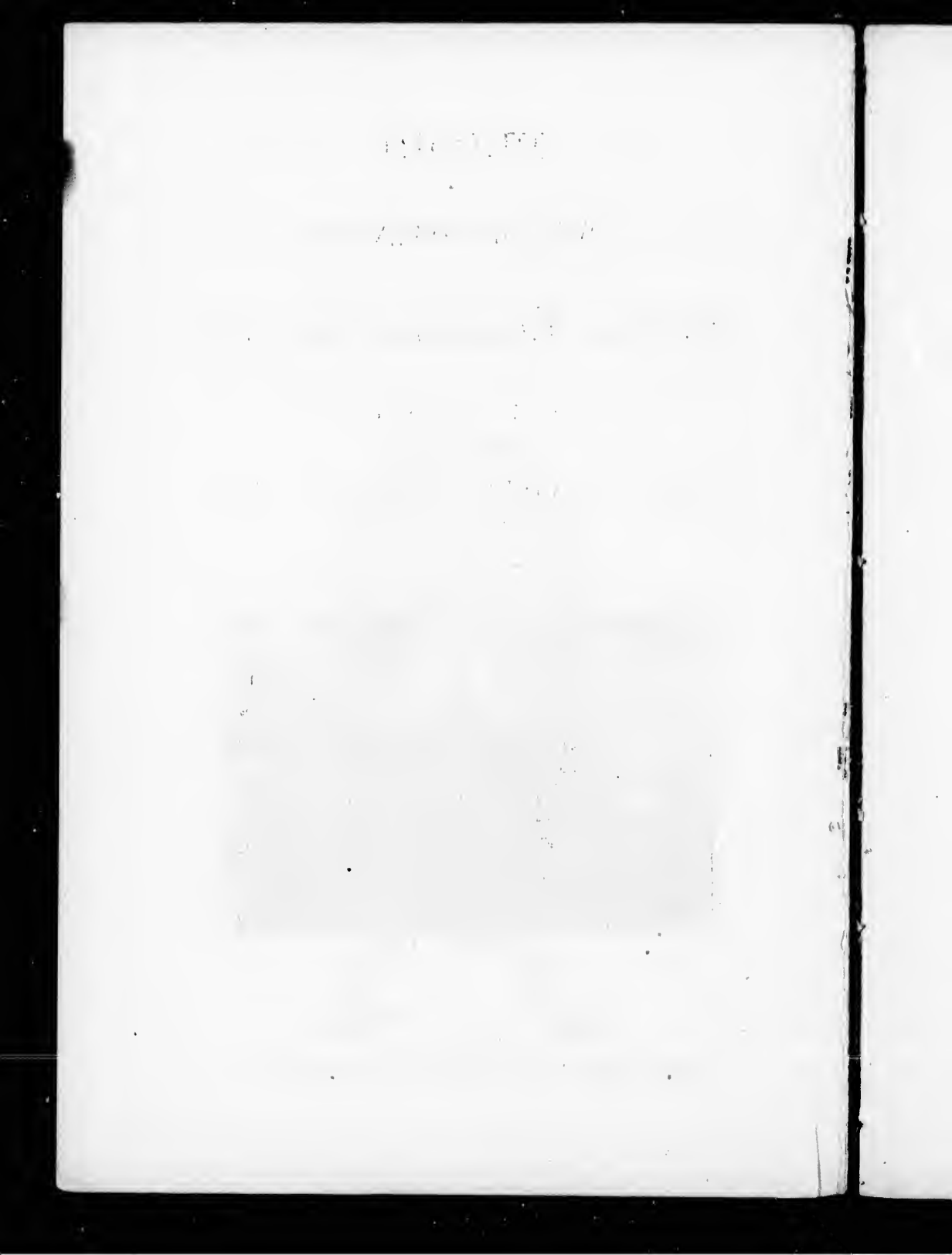

# PREFACE.

In the winter of 1890-91 the Provincial Educational Association held its meetings in Halifax. There were but five sessions and 78 enrolled members.

The work accomplished was, however, very important. The following recommendations from a special committee were unanimously endorsed by the convention :—

1. That provision be made in our educational system for the distinctive professional training of all teachers of our public schools.

2. That the syllabus of examination for teachers' licenses be assimilated with the course of study for high schools (as revised), and it was suggested that third class, or grade D licenses, be based on the subjects of the first year ; second class, or grade C, on those of the second year ; and first class, or grade B, on those of the third year.

3. That in connection with examination for teachers' non-professional certificates, the Department of Education be requested to provide for the issue of diplomas to graduates of County Academies and High Schools.

4. That as soon and as far as circumstances permit, the various non-professional certificates be taken *seriatim*.

5. That the professional training of teachers should be held to include fuller instruction in Music, Drawing and Natural Science than that contemplated in the High School course.

The present Superintendent of Education, Dr. A. H. MacKay, adopted these changes very soon after assuming office.

Whether after a practical test of three years they have received the approval of the largest and most important meeting of educationists ever held in Nova Scotia, will appear from the following pages.

In preparing the programme for this Convention, it was intended that every phase of the educational questions of the day should be presented for treatment and discussion. Where there were two sides to a question they were both brought forward by their ablest exponents, respectively.

Yet, throughout the discussions, the differences of opinion seemed to be slight. Generally they were more apparent than real, and vanished as both parties came to understand in the same sense the terms used. There seemed to be but one aim, viz.,—to arrive at truth by a clear presentation of argument.

Every paper is published except one, which was unfortunately sent away before the author was asked for it. In order, however, to preserve the unity of the plan, its place is taken by another paper of great merit on the same subject.

There being no shorthand reporter, it was found difficult to do justice to the able and important discussions that followed the reading of each paper. A few of the most important thoughts are however given,—some from the newspaper reports and others from short abstracts by the speakers.

A few of our more prominent educationists who happened to be the chief actors at this Convention were selected to enliven the pages of the reports by their likenesses as well as by their thoughts. For this no apology is needed. By adding something of the personal element interest is increased, and the subjects discussed make a deeper impression.

Besides, there are thousands of teachers in Nova Scotia who will be glad to have good likenesses of those who were their teachers in the prominent academies and high schools, of Inspectors whose sympathy went out to them in their work, of the Normal School teachers to whom they are indebted for their professional skill, and of the Superintendent of Education and his able predecessor.

THE SECRETARY.

# OFFICERS 1894-'95.

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President.

A. H. MacKAY, Ll.D., F. R. S. C.,
Superintendent of Education.

---

Executive Committee.

J. B. CALKIN, A. M., Principal Normal School.

E. J. LAY, Principal Amherst Academy.

H. CONDON, Inspector, Halifax.

W. E. MACLELLAN, Inspector, Pictou.

MISS N. A. BURGOYNE, Windsor.

A. G. McDONALD, M. A., Normal School.

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Secretary.

A. McKAY, Supervisor of Halifax Schools.

A. H. MacKay, Ll. D., F. R. S. C., &c., Superintendent of Education.

# MINUTES, PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

OF THE

# PROVINCIAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION,

## TWELFTH CONVENTION,

# ASSEMBLY HALL, PROVINCIAL NORMAL SCHOOL,

16TH, 17TH, 18TH OCTOBER, 1895.

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*1st Session—WEDNESDAY, 16th.*

9.15 a. m.—The President, Dr. MacKay, Superintendent of Education, took the chair, and opened the proceedings with a few appropriate remarks.

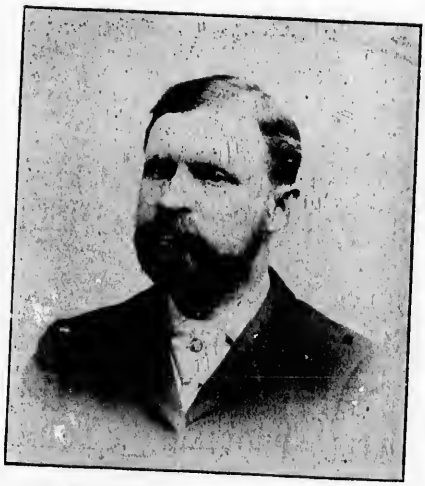
A. McKay was re-elected Secretary, and Mr. H. S. Congdon of Halifax was elected Assistant Secretary.

An hour was devoted to the enrolment of members.

On motion of Principal Miller, Dr. MacKay vacated the chair in favor of Principal Calkin. Principal McKeen then read the following address:—

To A. H. MACKAY, ESQ., LL.D.:

*Respected Sir,*—We, the inspectors and teachers of Nova Scotia, assembled in convention, desire to greet you with warmest welcome on this the first occasion of your occupancy of the chair of our Provincial Association. We have greatly appreciated your earnestness in the work of education while engaged as a teacher in our public schools, and especially have we marked with pleasure your work in promoting the study of Science in this Province. Although there may be differences of opinion as to ways and means of effecting this object, all recognize the zeal which you have evinced in this matter. We recognize, too, your unwearied efforts as Superintendent of Education in giving greater fulness and efficiency to the educational system of our Province, so well inaugurated by your predecessors. It is my pleasing duty now to give expression to the sentiment of the teaching staff of this Province towards yourself—sentiments of respect, of honor, of good will. The inspectors and teachers of Nova Scotia wish to acknowledge through me, the uniform kindness, care and interest which they have always found in all their intercourse with you, and as a mark of their appreciation, a visible token of their esteem, they wish you to accept this cane. We hope that you may live long to preside over us, and to exert your great energies on behalf of the educational interests of Nova Scotia.



E. T. McKeen, Principal Sydney Academy.

Dr. MacKay, in eloquent terms, thanked the inspectors and teachers for their kindly appreciative address and the accompanying testimonial.

He then resumed the chair, and in proceeding to the more particular work of the session, he thanked the members of the Convention for the public spirit which had brought them together from the different parts of the Province, at much personal inconvenience and expense. For the last four years he had been accustomed to meet the teachers of several inspectorates in full convention two or three times a year, and was delighted with their spirit of progress. He was now specially glad to meet them in Provincial Convention, after a hibernation of nearly five years. The Christmas weather of Halifax in 1890 was rather cold. That might account for the absence of any request for the resuscitation of the organization until he had ventured to call it for Truro, in good working weather, not holiday time.

There had been many changes since. Something had been done—always a dangerous proceeding. To exculpate himself he said it was all in the old chief's will; but he was glad that although the will was executed, however inefficiently, that they would have the pleasure of the testator's bodily as well as spiritual presence with them for at least a portion of the time at this Convention.

The wind blew sometimes hot and cold. They all knew from the papers that the Education Department was under the control of anarchists, who lowered the standard of examination, opened the floodgates, deluged the country with teachers, which, under the laws of supply and demand, would depress the salaries. They knew on equal authority that the prescriptions and examinations were too extensive and severe, preventing the country from having a sufficient supply of teachers. That the temperance people and the legislature thought the course of study was too narrow, that the correspondent thought it was too crowded. That some of the

text books should be changed, that some of the text books should'nt be changed. That some of the Academies were in danger of losing their grants, that some of them were doubling and trebling their students. That there was too great a neglect of the practical subjects for the ornamental and the classical, that there was too great a neglect of the esthetic and the classical for the crudely practical, and so on through the gamut. Just exactly what point is wrong is not determined, but there is something going on—something painful to somebody.

Well, he had to admit there was something going on, and it might be painful to somebody. The teacher left for a generation in ecstatic quietness was asked to retune his harp and open his eyes to what was around him, for the sake of the boys. Very disturbing. In four years, the annual expenditure on school buildings rose from $51,000 to $134,000. Were not the houses for their fathers good enough for them? The annual vote of the school sections swelled in the same time from $134,000 to $454,000. Somebody had to pay for it. The annual meetings were not called in the dog days either. The people began to think more of the teachers, and to ask them to stay and take a little more pay. And that costs somebody. Then the Government caught the infection from the people, and have already commenced to pay the teacher more than he was ever paid before in Nova Scotia. From $213,000, the drain on the Provincial Treasury sprang in four short years up to $240,000, nearly in sight of a quarter of a million. Why should not all that be saved to—to the coal syndicates? And then, to tempt the teacher to take more time and expense in preparing himself for his profession, by the recognition of the extra effort! And to tempt the young people to ambitious advance, increasing the crowds at examination, to swell in annual jumps, from 1300, to 1500, to 1900, and at last to 2400. Why! everybody knew the proverb, "He that increaseth knowledge increaseth sorrow."

Well, these indictments were more serious because no one pretended to be able to see them any other way But he pleaded not-guilty. He did'nt do all these things. They got done themselves. He could not prevent them. It was a moral impossibility for him to have done so,—perhaps predestination.

But if they asked him for his opinion, he would say that never before was there so universal a spirit of effort abroad among the people, the teachers, and even the pupils in the schools, for the improvement of their educational conditions; and that never before were these conditions so satisfactory in the present and so promising for the future.

Dr. MacKay then called upon Principal Miller, of the Dartmouth Public Schools, for the following paper :—

## A PROVINCIAL REFORMATORY FOR INCORRIGIBLE PUPILS.

By Principal Miller, Dartmouth High School.

The solution of any problem necessitates three things: A careful examination of the elements of which it is composed; the classification of these elements into essential and accessory; the elimination of those which are merely accidental, and a cool, dispassionate discussion of those which are essential to the subject.

Discussion, to be intelligent, requires that there shall be a statement of the data underlying the question, to the truth of which all must subscribe.

The data of the present subject are: 1st, Education is a good thing, and, conversely, the want of an education is proportionately a bad thing. 2nd. The State owes an education to its children. 3rd. It is the duty of the State to see that its children,—not the majority of them, not those only that are willing to accept it, but each and all of them shall receive an education.

I am well aware that the term education assumes many forms, according to the *visual focus* of the observer.

There are still a few moss-grown fossils in every school section who, as Will Carleton puts it, "Can't see no great good to be reached by tip-toein' children up higher than ever their fathers was teached;" and who, therefore, quite honestly, and ignorantly as well, bound their ideas of education by the narrow limits of the three Rs.

These relicts of a former state of existence, if they had the power, would abolish the Kindergarten, blot out of existence the High School, and expunge from the school course all such useless and expensive fads as Calisthenics, Music, Drawing and Science. Fortunately for all concerned, the number of these "survivals" is yearly becoming less, and soon they will be of interest only to the antiquarian.

There are, on the other side, those who, not satisfied with the scope of free education as it is at present, would throw wide open the door of the University and permit the masses to wander unrestricted amid its classic shades. They would place no impediment in the way of the humblest peasant in the land in the matter of getting an education, lest, perchance, there might be found some "mute inglorious Milton" standing hopeless before the frowning door.

Without stopping to analyze the arguments of either class, I am content to leave the issue to the future.

Whatever steps may be taken in the matter of free education, I feel confident that no retrograde movement will be permitted.

A curtailed and decapitated school system might possibly present some interesting features in the way of scientific investigation to the anatomist, but to us, who have been intimately connected with it during its lifetime, the mutilated remains, shorn of its fair proportions, would be inexpressibly shocking.

Disregarding then both the character and the extent of the education, whether restricted to the narrowest proportions of Common School instruction, or extended to embrace within its limits an articulate and complete whole, embracing the Kindergarten play-room at one extremity and the University at the other, let us return to the datum we have laid down :—The State owes an education to its children, and let us emphasize the word *an*.

That the state admits the truth of this assertion and acknowledges the obligation is proven by the fact that nearly *one-half of the total Provincial Revenue is devoted to Educational Purposes.*

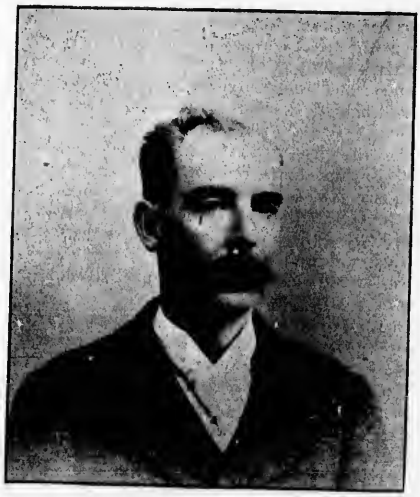
Whatever may be the number and magnitude of the sins with which the Government of Nova Scotia is charged by its opponents, every intelligent man must admit that it deals most generously with the subject of education.

When the boon of Free Public Schools was conferred upon the Province, it was naturally expected that all would thankfully hasten to avail themselves of its advantages.

A third of a century of Free Schools has demonstrated that this expectation has not been realized. Incredible as this statement may appear, it is unfortunately true, as every teacher and school official, especially in large villages, towns and cities, is painfully aware.

There are too many, not only grown people, but *young people*, growing up within sight of the thousand school houses that dot our Province, either without education altogether, or with the merest apology for it.

I have often wondered whether the men who inaugurated the Free School System and conferred on the people of this country that great blessing, were able to pierce through the veil of years and to anticipate the difficulty with which we are confronted to-day.



G. J. Miller, Principal High School, Dartmouth.

It ought not, however, to surprise us very much, this indifference to the advantages of learning and antipathy to the necessary exertion to profit by it. In all ages of the world ignorance and superstition have ever resented the efforts made in every direction, to ameliorate their wretched condition.

Sanitary reforms, necessary to health and even to life, are frequently enforced upon those whom they are to protect, "*vi et armis.*"

Geologists tell us that beneath the firm pavement on which we tread, there is a region in which the solid constituents are reduced to a semi-fluid condition. In this plastic mass tremendous energy is shut up. Colossal forces writhe and heave and strain, struggling desperately for freedom. Giants are there, "pent in the strong prison of the earth," whose fierce passions would require a mightier than Æolis to restrain.

The earth groans beneath the shock of their collision—forests reel—the rocky firmament is rent asunder and a Lisbon is laid in ruins, or a Pompeii disappears beneath a sea of ashes.

Analagous to this physical condition of things, there exists, underlying the superstructure of civilized life everywhere, but more especially in towns and cities, a vast substratum of humanity which is practically untouched by the influence of the Free School system.

This hotbed of ignorance and superstition constitutes a real and ever-present danger to society and good government—to life, property and prosperity. In it also is stored up immense potential energy, seething, restless, uncertain.

More frequently, as the years go by, can be heard the rumbling and muttering of the heaving mass. A more than usually brutal crime sends a shock of mild horror and alarm quivering through the calm indifference of the upper world; revolt, long slumbering, flashes out for a moment into open strife; blood is shed, and the aid of the military is called in to quell the disturbance. A day comes at length when a leader is found capable of organizing and directing the forces ready to his hand, the upper strata are shattered—a volcano bursts forth, chaos rules, and the "clang of the wooden shoe" is heard in the palace hall. From this class chiefly are evolved those who figure in the police court records and fill eventually the prisons. They have an education peculiarly their own. As infants they attend the Kindergarten in the slums and back alleys; later they study Geography and Astronomy about the street corners by day and the saloon doors by night; as youths they attend the sessions of the police court and receive object lessons in criminal jurisprudence; and finally, having completed their education, they graduate and are admitted behind the bars to be fed, clothed, and barbered at public expense.

This class furnishes the great majority of those who attain to eminence in the science of counters, jabs, uppercuts, right and left swings and knocks-out—knights of the short hair, square jaw, and broken nose—to whose brilliant achievements in the arena, even in this 19th century of civilization, and in this country of churches and school houses, the public press devotes half a column daily for the entertainment and instruction of its readers.

All the social vices and most of the crimes which shock and outrage society are here in embryo.

This class the Free School system has failed to reach to any considerable extent, and yet this is the very class to whom the restraining and refining influence of an education would be of the greatest benefit.

Victor Hugo has said that hunger breeds more revolutions than all other causes combined, and we know that mental starvation is usually found associated with and is quite as dangerous as physical starvation.

But this is not the only class which the Public Schools fail to reach.

It will probably be a matter of surprise to many, as it was to myself when I undertook to prepare a paper on this subject, to find that a large number of incorrigibles come from the homes of respectable, intelligent and well-to-do parents.

In a paper read before the Dominion Educational Association at Montreal, Donald J. McKinnon, Principal of Victoria Industrial School, says of the pupils:—

"Some are orphans, nursed by cold charity in homes not their own, till old enough "to be sent to us. Some are motherless boys left to the care of hireling house-"keepers, who think they have done their duty when they have given the children "food and clothing,—everything but love. Some have been ruined by harsh, un-"feeling fathers. Many more are 'mamma's pets,' the sons of women who can't "say 'no,' and who practically train their boys to believe with Belshazzar that "the whole earth was made for them, and man born for their use. But more than "all others are the children of respectable men and women, who do their duty "fairly well to everyone but their own; who laugh at the boy's childish rage and "call it 'spunk,' who laugh at his petty thieving and lying and call it 'sowing "his wild oats,' without giving a single thought to the harvest.

"And so it goes on until the spoiled boy can defy his father and strike or kick "his mother, and then he is given to us."

All the classes described so graphically above are present with us. What are we doing to save them to society? Very little if anything. What can we do to repair the evil effects resulting from no fault of theirs, and to prevent them becoming vagabonds on the face of the earth? As things are at present, very little! And yet, "the State owes an education to its children," and those neglected, starved, ill-used, ill-trained unfortunates are among the number.

In theory the State pays its debt by providing Free Schools for all—in practice the debt is but partially discharged, since many do not take advantage of the provision.

We already have on the statute book a compulsory school law, with elaborate provisions for the treatment of truants. It is a good law—so far as it goes. It is a step—a long one in the right direction. But it does not go quite far enough. It is incomplete and is therefore unworkable. Like the schools themselves, it fails to reach the very classes of boys for whom it was primarily designed—the habitual truants, the incorrigibles.

The compulsory law says that after having been "arrested and brought to school three times within three months, the offender shall be liable to imprisonment for such term as the Stipendiary Magistrate may adjudge, not exceeding one month."

The officers can easily arrest the offenders, but when we have them the question arises what to do with them. Where will the truant be imprisoned? In the County Jail? Well! let us think about that a little.

The truant is arrested, brought before the Magistrate, the offence proved and the offender sentenced to 30 days imprisonment in the County Jail. Now we have him safe. He won't play truant, annoy or defy his parents, furnish exercise for the police, or worry his teacher for 30 days anyhow. But, in the meantime, what about his education?

The primary object of all education is good citizenship—to make *men*—to turn them out intelligent, moral, law-abiding citizens; and one of the means by which this great work is to be prosecuted is—*the County Jail.*

The State owes an education to this child, and we are educating him—paying the debt—by shutting him up in jail, to transform a thoughtless, runaway pupil into a jail-bird; of a truant to make a criminal—to lock him up for a month and compel him to associate with crime and vice of every description; because he is bad and troublesome, to make him worse; to compel him at one plunge to cross the Rubicon that, as yet, separates him from degradation and disgrace; to strip off forcibly the cloak of respectability which, up to this time, has protected him, and to brand him—Jail-bird. It is horrible. But whose boy is this whom defective training has made a truant, and whom the law has made a criminal? Yours, perhaps, or mine. Think of it a little: the shame of the open court, of the public street, of the prison bars. It is an education in itself, certainly, but scarcely of that kind which the State owes to its children.

I may be, perhaps, too sensitive on this point, but I am quite sure of this—that I would as soon see my boy lying dead at my feet as behind the bars of the jail window. I can only suppose that those who framed that clause in the law did not stop to consider seriously the relations existing between Education and the Jail, or else they themselves had no sons upon whom the experiment was likely to be tried.

Every boy is born a communist. He believes instinctively in the great brotherhood of man. He unhesitatingly subscribes to the doctrines of Fraternity, Equality and Liberty. It follows naturally that he firmly believes everything to be his which is not beyond his reach. It is only by good training that he arrives at the distinction between *meum* and *tuum*—that it is wrong to consider "all things common."

Home and mother usually eradicate these traces of "original sin" during the

first few years of existence, providing always that Home and Mother are of the right sort. In that case the school has but to build upon the solid foundation already prepared. But if the home training be defective or pernicious, then the school has a different and much more difficult task before it. It has to perform the home work, if wanting, or to counteract its teaching, if injurious, before it can enter on its legitimate functions.

The boy will dislike the confinement and restraint of the school and become a truant. He will covet his neighbor's property and will probably steal. He will soon be detected in wrong-doing, and, to shield himself, will very likely lie. But because he has stolen and lied to escape the consequences, it by no means follows that he is to be branded before the little world of the school-room as a thief or a liar. To do so might be logical, but would certainly be unreasonable. It would, moreover, hasten the average boy on the road to ruin, and subvert the very aims and purposes for which the school is designed.

The teacher, if she happen to be of the right kind, will frequently save this neglected waif by getting hold of his affections and winning his esteem and respect in some mysterious manner which I do not even pretend to explain. But, alas! these heaven-born teachers are few and far between. The "*poeta nascitur non fit*" of Horace is also applicable to the race of teachers in a marked degree.

It was a saying of the late Inspector Condon, that where the Normal School made *ten* teachers the Lord made *one*, and even that one is frequently lost to the teaching profession by reason of some offer of a more permanent, and probably more agreeable, engagement.

If the teacher be careless, unskilled, inexperienced; if her heart be not in her work; if her knowledge of child nature be deficient;—that boy is lost. His offences against law and order multiply; punishment follows rapidly each petty breach of rule or regulation; familiarity breeds contempt and indifference both for the punishment and the law which imposes it, and before very long the boy becomes an incorrigible.

He is arrested, tried and sentenced. We have already seen him behind the bars.

At the expiration of his term of imprisonment he is released and resumes his place among his fellows. Here one of two things is sure to happen—probably both. He will be despised by one class, the orthodox good boy, who will shun him like the plague. He will be admired by the ordinary every-day boy, whom he will contaminate as much as he is able. He will be a gilded hero of romance. His career while absent, his exploits—imaginary or otherwise—told in nervous English, ornamented and emphasized by choice and forcible expletives picked up during his residence at the public expense, will be listened to with breathless attention. Like all heroes, he will have imitators, and the numbers will increase.

Not good, but positive evil, has resulted from his arrest and imprisonment—evil to himself and to those with whom he is associated He is in every respect a more dangerous companion for his fellows than before.

What we require to complete the compulsory law and to render it workable—to make it effective, is an institution where these unfortunates will be cared for, trained and reclaimed without subjecting them to the certain contamination of a public prison.

What we require is a place—not a jail—where our incorrigibles will be taught the subjects of a common school course; where they will, in addition, be trained to habits of obedience, self-restraint, industry; where they will be taught to use the ordinary tools of mechanical pursuits; and, in short, where they will be given a chance to develop into useful, respectable citizens.

"The State owes an education to its children," and to *all* of them.

Discussion.—Mr. Wm. McKerron, Commissioner of Schools for Halifax city, "rose to reply, and gave the basis on which the Industrial School was carried on, stating, in effect, that it was chiefly carried on by private benefaction. He thought

there was no criminal class in Nova Scotia, and he was clearly averse to any such institution, thinking it would be too rigid and jail-like. The Sunday-school, christian love, the churches, private subscriptions, etc., should deal with such children. He thought it clearly their duty, possibly with some assistance from the Government. He instanced the good work done by christian men and women in the courts, the slums, and wherever their good works were needed."

Miss Graham, of Lower Economy.—"In expressing my appreciation of Mr. Miller's excellent paper I must object to Mr. McKerron's criticism, for I cannot understand why Mr. McK. should talk of saving these incorrigibles by kindness and love 'instead of' reformatories. Does Mr. Miller propose a reformatory where love and kindness are unknown? On the contrary, his paper has evinced *heart* as well as *intellect*, and I am sure that he wishes children in reformatories to be loved and cared for as they had never been in their unlovely homes. But Mr. McK. says there *are* no incorrigibles, there *is* no criminal class in Nova Scotia, and it is the church's duty to look after the poorer classes. If the latter are neither incorrigible nor criminal, it is from this class that criminals are generally produced. It is *not* the business of the Church to make citizens; it is the State's duty to make the best possible citizens, for what is the State but a united body of citizens. And while reformatories may be for the present a necessary way of dealing with effects, can we not look a little deeper into the cause of the existence of this incorrigible class, which will largely be found to be poverty, the remedy therefore will be the abolition—not relief—of all unnecessary poverty."

A. McKay, Supervisor of Halifax Schools.—There are in Halifax two establishments to which incorrigible truants are sentenced—St. Patrick's Home and the Industrial School. In the former the boys are taught the three R's for perhaps five hours a day. In the Industrial School several hours each day are devoted to splitting kindling wood and working in a shoe factory. In St. Patrick's Home the inmates include many respectable poor, besides truants and criminals. Much attention is given to farming and gardening. They are both excellent institutions, and both are doing much for the criminal classes, but truant children may be incorrigible truants and yet not criminals. They should not therefore be sent to associate with criminals.

Public sentiment and practice in every civilized country are against such treatment of those children who unfortunately cannot overcome their dislike for school.

Our Compulsory School Act, perhaps the best of its kind in the world, cannot be efficiently administered so long as we are without well-managed parental schools for such children. There are in Halifax and in all our large towns, as any unprejudiced person will at once admit, many boys who are growing up in illiteracy and crime, and who, instead of being trained as useful citizens, are fast drifting into the criminal classes to be a burden to the State. It would therefore be wise economy on the part of the Government to establish parental schools, to which unmanageable pupils could be sent, and where wise and kindly treatment would soon win them to better ways and industrious habits.

In Massachusetts our present plan was tried and abandoned as being barbarous. They now have parental schools for every county. The same is true of other places in the United States, Great Britain and Germany.

The expense need not be serious; for parents would be expected to contribute according to their ability, and the counties according to the number of pupils sent from them. The schools would be partly self-sustaining. Being on the cottage system, there would be every opportunity for grading and classification to suit all interests.

It is vain to talk about leaving the work to societies and churches. They are to be praised for what they have done, but in spite of all their efforts the work is not half done. They have neither the money nor the legal status necessary. Ex-

perience everywhere proves that if education is to be general so as to safeguard the State, it must be in part compulsory, and if compulsion is to be effective there must be parental schools.

The following resolution was moved by Supervisor McKay :—

*Resolved*, That this Association endorse Principal Miller's arguments in favor of the establishment of a Reformatory for Incorrigible Truants, and that a committee be appointed by the Association to bring the subject before the Provincial Government.

E. T. McKeen, Principal Sydney Academy.—Before putting this resolution, which, if carried, will definitely commit this Convention to the principle of establishing a reformatory for the incorrigibles of the Province, would it not be well for us to have a definite understanding of what is meant by the term "incorrigible?" If it refers exclusively to children of tender years who render themselves amenable to the laws of the land by the commission of some crime, I would strongly support any plan that would place them under such control that they could be properly trained in the duties of citizenship and kept from association with hardened criminals in the jails and penitentiaries. But if I understood Principal Miller aright, and the "incorrigibles" are those who are specially disobedient and persistent truants, I am afraid that the establishment of either sectional or central reformatories will do more harm than good. The boy who is sentenced by process of law will always thereafter be under a cloud in his own community, and the taunts of his fellows would be conductive to anything but good in his after life. It would seem like an invasion of the liberty of the subject that a boy should be haled before a magistrate and condemned to a reformatory for a term at the caprice of somebody. I shall not presume to speak for Colchester or Halifax, or the western counties, but I firmly believe that in the section of the Province from which I come, no such law could be enforced. There are various ways of dealing with disobedient and truant pupils, but the reformatory is no place for them. In any event, if this Convention is going to ask the Government to build and establish an institution of this kind, would it not be well to ascertain first how many incorrigibles there are in the Province, so that adequate provision may be made. Perhaps there are thousands of them and perhaps there are only a few, confined to some particular locality.

The following amendment to the resolution was then moved by Commissioner McKerron :—

*Resolved*, That the Superintendent of Education, through the Inspectors, collect statistics and information regarding the subject, and report at the next meeting of the Association.

G. J. Miller, Principal High School, Dartmouth.—There seems to be a very general misunderstanding of the sense in which the word incorrigible was used in my paper. A great part of the adverse opinions expressed about the necessity of such an institution and the benefits to be derived from it, may be traced to that fact.

By incorrigible was not meant an utterly bad, vicious boy with whom nothing could be done, but generally speaking, a good *boy spoiled*,—a boy who plays truant and of whom it is impossible to get hold and keep hold.

To educate a boy, we must first be able to control him and we cannot control him unless we can place him where he cannot escape. Incorrigible boys are those who when brought to school by the truant officer, jump the fence as soon as his back is turned and play truant until caught again, when the farce is repeated.

It is to prevent those incorrigibles from becoming criminals that I advocate the founding of an institution where they may have at once the benefits of a home and a school training and if possible, the foundation of a trade.

The fact that over 1000 heads of families in Halifax were cited before the School Board for insufficient attendance during the school year just finished, is a complete reply to Comr. McKerron's statement "that there were not 25 incorrigibles" in that city. Further that none of those who spoke against the scheme were competent to judge except those in whose sections the compulsory law has been in operation, and those I think were very few.

Among the others who took part in the discussion were Mr. Andrews, Miss Flowers, Principal Kennedy, Principal Campbell, Prof. McDonald, Principal McArthur, Inspector Craig and Principal O'Hearn.

The resolution then passed unanimously.

# LE FRANÇAIS A LA NOUVELLE-ECOSSE.

By Professor Lanos, Halifax Academy.

Je me sers d'un en-tête un peu vague, parce que les principes que je me propose d'émettre dans le cours de ce travail, pourront aussi bien s'appliquer à l'étude de l'anglais par des Français qu'à celle du français par des Anglais.

Si je ne traitais que de la théorie des langues je me contenterais de vous indiquer des sources, parce que les livres ne manquent point qui s' occupent de suggérer des plans et des méthodes.

Mais, mon intention est de joindre à mes théories tout ce que la pratique m'a enseigné.

Ce que vous lirez ici, je l'ai essayé. Je l'ai essayé sur des individus de tempérament différent, d'intelligence disparate, d'éducation première diverse, et j'ai trouvé que les théories ne valaient qu'autant qu'elles atteignaient réellement la classe d'individus pour qui on les avait faites.

La théorie a beaucoup plus de disciples que la pratique et cela se comprend aisément.

La théorie n'est que la connaissance raisonnée de principes qui se trouvent à la portée de tout le monde.

La pratique, qui marche à travers des difficultiés et des dangers de toutes espèces, a besoin d'un guide habile, expérimenté, sûr de ses pas.

La théorie d'une langue peut être enseignée par n' importe qui ; la pratique ne le saurait être que par un maître né ou quelqu' un qui en a exploré tous les coins.

Les principes généraux d'éducation s'appliquent aux langues comme à toute autre science, cependant, il y a quelque chose de plus.

Les théories sont souvent la note dominante d'une catégorie d'études ; la note dominante en fait de langues, doit être la pratique.

Un livre n'est qu'un instrument de travail qui tire sa valeur de celui qui en fait usage.

Mais vous voyez la dualité de mon énoncé. En toute éducation il faut la théorie et la pratique.

Dans quel ordre et dans quelle mesure ?

Les uns disent : Peu de théorie—Beaucoup de pratique.

Les autres ripostent—Qu' est ce que de la pratique sans principes !

Celui-ci prétend que la théorie doit, dans l'état actuel des choses, marcher avant la pratique.

Celui-là répond que tout dans la nature nous enseigne au contraire, à ne porter des lois que sur ce que l'on a connu et mis en œuvre déjà.

Qui a raison ?

Qui a tort ?

L'un et l'autre peut-être.

L'éducation ne devrait consister qu'à former le jugement, qu'à faire un bon esprit dans un corps solide, ce que les anciens appelaient : Mens sana in corpore sano.

L'éducation antique, en effet, s'efforçait d'étaler, sur un fond de bon esprit, comme un vernis sur un beau bois de chêne, un fond de connaissances très générales, les principes sur lesquels la science repose.

On ne savait rien de bien précis, mais, on était apte à apprendre rapidement et bien les choses du métier que l'on choisissait ou de la science que l'on voulait approfondir.

L'important n'est pas de savoir des livres par coeur ; c'est de se faire un esprit et un fond de connaissances grâce auxquelles on puisse, à l'aide des livres travailler avec fruit.

C'est là, il me semble, la vraie et profitable éducation.

Mais, quand il s'agit de langues, il faut ajouter aux idées générales une forte dose de pratique.

Comment faut-il s'y prendre ? L'éducation ancienne, qui, certes, ne péchait pas par la base, pourrait peut-être nous renseigner à ce sujet.

JULES LANOS, B. A., LL. B.

Nous avons l'exemple du latin. Alors qu'il était la langue de l'éducation et que par lui s'apprenaient toutes les sciences, il fallait le posséder de manière à le parler couramment, et, pour en arriver là, les annales de l'école en témoignent, on théorisait peu et l'on pratiquait beaucoup.

En fait de pratique on ne sait que ce que l'on pratique—a dit Montesquieu, et, cela s'applique aux langues plus encore qu'à la physique et la botanique, par exemple.

Donc les vieux latinistes parlaient latin ; ils s'y exerçaient à toutes les heures du jour ; leur conversation était latine ; les relations de savant à savant et de pays à pays étaient en latin.

Comment se fait-il alors qu'une langue si vivante soit morte si vite !

Le latin n'est point mort subitement ; il s'est fait rare peu à peu, il s'est étiolé insensiblement, jusqu'au jour où on l'a pu croire disparu de la vie. Aujourd'hui, il est pétrifié parce qu'il a cessé de se mouvoir, d'être parlé.

Or, si le latin n'est plus parce qu'on ne le parle plus, le français ne sera jamais si on ne la parle pas.

Ce qui est arrivé aux langues de Rome et d'Athènes s'éteignant aussitôt qu'elles ne se parlent plus, attend le français moderne s'il n'apprend pas à marcher.

En effet, quelle différence y a-t-il entre un vieillard qui ne sait plus l'usage de ses membres et l'enfant qui ignore encore l'usage des siens? Aucune.

Ainsi donc, si l'on se contentait de l'acquisition superficielle de règles et de mots, on ne tarderait pas de s'apercevoir où manque la langue. En pratique, une langue ainsi apprise ne vaudrait rien.

A peine aiderait-elle à passer un examen écrit tout de théorie.

L'étude des langues, depuis la disparution presque totale du latin a cependant son importance.

Dans le passé, le latin était ce que le volapük se promet d'être dans le présent et l'avenir.

En ce moment le monde littéraire, scientifique, artistique, commercial et politique n'a réellement pas de langue et de lien communs, et pour se mettre en relations avec ces mondes divers, il faut en savoir, je ne sais combien.

Mais, si l'on s'adonne aux langues, qu'on prenne bien garde qu'il n'y a pas que la grammaire.

Sans cette précaution on tombe dans l'histoire, la collection, la généalogie, tout, excepté les langues qui doivent être éminemment pratiques, sous l'œil vigilant toutefois, des principes maîtres.

Tant que le latin, au moyen âge, a gardé la première place dans l'éducation, les langues barbares sont restées à l'état d'embryon. Mais voilà que les lettrés du seizième et du dix-septième siècle se mettent à les étudier, à les polir, à les enrichir, à les écrire et les parler, immédiatement une baisse énorme se produit du côté du latin.

Il avait reçu un coup mortel. Au moment où j'écris, on ne s'en occupe un peu sérieusement que dans l'église de Rome, où le latin est encore la langue de la liturgie et des conciles.

Si tant d'hommes intelligents n'avaient point attardé leur génie, dans le passé, à l'étude du latin, il me semble que l'anglais, le français et autres idiomes modernes auraient atteint leur forme actuelle cent-cinquante ans plus tôt.

Mais, ne nous plaignons point d'un fait accompli, qui, après tout, a peut-être plus servi que nui à ces langues.

Seulement, nous ne saurions nous dissimuler combien il est nécessaire à un homme qui désire marcher avec son temps, de posséder quelques-unes des langues qui ont succédé au latin.

C'est précisément ce qui m'a suggéré l'idée de ce travail sur le français et j'entre dans le vif de la question après cet aperçu général de la situation.

Abordons, en premier lieu l'enseignement du français aux Anglais

## DANS LES ÉCOLES ANGLAISES.

Si jamais quelqu'un a voulu faire de l'étude un simple jeu, il s'est trompé.

Il n'y a pas plus de route royale à cela qu'à autre chose.

Voulez-vous savoir une langue du tout? mettez-y le temps, le travail et la peine.

Avec ces forces vous aurez vite parcouru les premières étapes qui sont les plus rudes.

Je ne crois pas utile, en présence de mes lecteurs anglais, de bien vanter l'étude du français.

Ils savent tous son importance et sa place parmi les langues européennes, dans le monde des lettres, des arts et des sciences aussi bien qu'en politique. Ils savent combien on le parle en Asie, en Afrique, en Amérique et surtout au Canada et à la Nouvelle-Ecosse.

Comme clarté, concision et harmonie ils ont appris le rang du doux parler de France, et si je leur disais qu'après l'anglais le français mérite la première

place dans les écoles, ils pourraient sourire de ma naïveté, mais ils ne se récriraient pas

Enfin, si je consulte les statistiques des hautes écoles et des académies, je trouve que le français vient en tête des langues vivantes.

J'en suis très flatté et je voudrais contribuer à rendre son étude fructueuse et facile, autant que possible.

En enseignant le français à des Anglais, il faut éviter deux excès : trop de grammaire d'un côté : de l'autre, trop de pratique sans grammaire :

D'abord, trop de grammaire—Rappelons-nous le sage précepte : Non modus rei ante rem : En premier lieu la chose, ensuite ce qui l'explique.

Or, si vous débutez par la grammaire, sans que les élèves aient ce fond de connaissances et d'expériences dont je parlais plus haut, vous frappez dans le vide.

Comment voulez-vous que des règles et des exceptions de mots, de phrases, de constructions françaises éveillent chez l'enfant un intérêt quelconque, si déjà il ne possède, à un certain degré, ces formes et leurs anomalies.

Nihil est in intellectu quod non prius fuerit in sensu :

Nous ne pouvons pas entrer en communication avec l'intelligence de l'enfant à moins que ses yeux, n'aient vu, ses oreilles, entendu, ses doigts, touché, sa langue, goûté.

Pour arriver à notre âme, les connaissances forcent trois portes ouvrant sur le même corridor, l'une après l'autre. Ces portes ne sont point latérales, comme vous voyez et, on les appelle—les sens—la mémoire—l'intelligence

Je proposerais donc, comme le plan le plus pratique et celui qui m'a le mieux réussi depuis que je m'occupe d'enseigner le français.

1° La lecture.

2° La traduction de ce qui a été lu.

3° La grammaire de cette lecture en s'y bornant strictement.

4° Propos d'érudition dans lesquels on repasse en revue soit des mots, soit des régles de grammaire déjà vues.

5° Conversation sur le morceau étudié ou imitation, vivâ voce.

De sorte que le français s'apprendrait plutôt par usage que par règles, en l'entendant, le lisant, le relisant, le transcrivant, en conversation et par imitation. Les règles assistent et confirment la pratique, mais leur devoir est de suivre, pas de précéder.

Je développerai un peu :

Les sens demandent le premier soin, de l'instituteur, comme la nature elle-même l'indique. Or, par la lecture vous exercez les sens, la vue, l'ouïe, la langue, les lèvres.

Une condition pour bien comprendre est de bien lire ; si vous lisez sans faute, vous entendrez la conversation du maître sans difficulté, parce qu'il parle comme il lit.

On dit—la vue des mots nous égare—vous parlez si différemment de ce que vous lisez.

Pas du tout, vous lisez mal.

La bonne manière de lire est la suivante—Le maître lit d'abord, lentement et distinctement la matière de la leçon— Les élèves répètent alors, un bon du premier coup, un moins avancé ensuite, jusqu'à ce que la prononciation soit satisfaisante. Le maître ne laissera jamais passer une faute sans la reprendre, ou sans demander à la classe en général de donner la prononciation correcte.

Cela fait, il attaque la traduction, réduisant autant que possible les difficultés d'idiotismes.

Arrivé à la grammaire, il fera bien d'interroger les élèves sur quelques règles expliquées auparavant, mais qu'il se garde de leur charger la mémoire de longues théories nouvelles.

Deux règles par jour suffisent, si elles sont nouvelles. Répétez les vieilles vingt fois, il n'y a rien à dire.

Jamais du reste, une classe, quelque bien disposée qu'elle soit n'écoutera d'une oreille attentive plus de deux règles de grammaire. Avec utilité aussi vous pourriez faire répéter les règles régissant toute une catégorie de mots ; l'article, le pronom possessif, à propos d'un exemple de ce genre trouvé dans le devoir.

Cela ferait partie des propos d'érudition, comme par exemple parlant de maison, je suppose, vous en repassez et redites les différentes parties, de manière à rafraichir la mémoire des enfants, enrichir leur vocabulaire et les rendre familiers avec ce qu'ils connaissent plus on moins bien déjà.

La conversation est la pierre d'achoppement du maître et des élèves.

Les questions de l'un doivent être telles que les réponses des autres en découlent aisément, mais sans se borner aux faciles : oui, non, des craintifs.

Tantôt il changera le nombre des noms et des adjectifs et des verbes, tantôt le temps, d'autres fois la forme et la construction des phrases. Mais, vous voyez que l'élève a déjà dû recevoir une certaine instruction grammaticale pour suivre la phrase dans ses diverses métamorphoses.

De même, après avoir mis sa classe au courant des diverses façons de s'exprimer en français, pour ce qui concerne les mouvements à exécuter,—prendre un livre—le changer—ouvrir une porte—s'asseoir, se lever, aller au tableau, etc., il devrait invariablement parler français. Je n'engagerais pas à tenir conversation tout le temps en classe, d'autant plus que la chose est difficile et n'amène point de résultats absolûment pratiques avec le genre d'examens que nous avons à subir maintenant aux fins d'années ; mais un maître peut s'aventurer à parler français avant que les élèves soient capables de comprendre aisément et de répondre correctement.

A-t-il jamais existé une personne qui ait parlé correctement une langue du premier coup ?

C'est à force d'entendre dire les mêmes paroles et a force de les répéter soi-même qu'on parvient á les prononcer avec justesse.

Quand l'oreille est habituée aux sons et aux liaisons, surtout quand ils répondent bien à l'image épelée et lue du mot, c'est une satisfaction chez l'étudiant de s'essayer à la langue qu'il apprend.

Il arrivera même un jour où il se croira blessé dans sa dignité, si vous lui dites en anglais des choses qu'il se sent parfaitement capable d'entendre en français.

Ainsi donc, la grammaire, qui est de peu de nécessité pour la lecture, ne vient qu'après celle-ci :

La grammaire n'est point l'art de lire et de comprendre une langue : Ces deux choses se font sans elle : elle s'empare de ces deux choses pour les perfectionner seulement.

Mais, avec des adultes capables de réfléchir, qui savent bien leur langue, n'éloignez point trop la grammaire de la conversation et de la lecture.

J'insiste beaucoup sur ce point ; il n'est pas sage de parler seulement ou presque exclusivement lorsque vos élèves ont besoin de la grammaire.

Et, là, je me permettrai un mot de la méthode Berlitz que je n'admire point du tout, bien que je la croie la seule pratique avec des enfants qui ne balbutient encore encore aucune langue.

Dans les Jardins d'Enfants et avec les bonnes d'enfants, elle est parfaite, mais, nous nous occupons ici des hautes écoles et des académies où nous enseignons le français à des jeunes gens et à des jeunes filles d'une certaine culture intellectuelle, le chemin naturel vers le français est l'anglais ; ils apprennent le français à l'aide de l'anglais.

Et je rejette la méthode Berlitz en bloc.

Voici pourquoi.

1° Parce qu'elle s'oppose à ce qu'on se serve de la langue maternelle de l'enfant.

2° Parce qu'elle attache le savoir à l'âme et ne l'incorpore pas.

3° Parce que dans un examen, dans l'état présent des choses, elle n'apporte à l'examiné, aucune arme utile.

Ce sont de graves accusations et je me ferai écharper, sans doute.

Je suis prêt à me convertir si on m'amène un bon candidat de l'académie qui sache bien ses matières d'examen avec la méthode Berlitz.

Passé dix ans, on réfléchit, on compare, chaque idée a son moule et son mot dans la langue maternelle, pour comprendre et s'approprier une idée exprimée dans une langue étrangère, il faut donc la dégager du mot différent et la revêtir du mot de sa propre langue, changer l'idée de moule. Or l'enfant qui n'a encore de moule bien formé pour aucune idée, de casier bien séparé pour aucune conception n'a pas besoin de cette traduction.

Comme l'idée et le mot, l'image et son enveloppe tombent, ils creusent leur moule. Une fois le moule fini, il faut comparer et réfléchir si le contenu d'un autre moule s'adapte au vôtre et comment.

Par conséquent, servons-nous de la traduction, des thêmes et des versions. Que les jeunes étudiants sachent bien leur anglais d'abord, c'est-à-dire, que leurs moules soient complets et en bon état.

Rien n'est plus naturel, au début, que de vous traduire à vous-même, en votre langue, un mot entendu dans une langue étrangère. Par la suite, à force d'habitude, vous ne traduisez plus, vous n'avez plus à forcer un moule dans l'autre, ils ne font qu'un, et avec deux mots dedans que vous employez indifféremment et à tour de rôle.

Comment établirez-vous cette comparaison ou ferez-vous entrer un moule dans l'autre, si la langue qui doit vous guider est défectueuse, si votre moule est difforme ou si vous n'en avez pas?

Donc, si vous vous mettez à l'étude du français, sachez déjà bien votre langue et vous réussirez, sinon, inutile d'essayer.

Vous savez le sort de l' aveugle qui en conduisait un autre : Ils tombèrent tous deux dans le fossé. Ils y sont encore probablement.

Or, mener de front deux langues dont une n'y voit pas mieux que l'autre, c'est répéter la mésaventure des aveugles.

En second lieu : N'attachons pas le savoir à l'âme, incorporons le lui. *Studeamus potius ut pauciora clare distincteque percipiant quam obscure pluribus imbuantur.*

Une méthode par laquelle on apprendrait tout de mémoire, mémoire des yeux ou de l'oreille, peu importe, n'est point bonne. Savoir par cœur n'est pas savoir.

En français nous avons deux verbes qui expriment bien ma pensée connaître et savoir : connaître est bien différent de savoir et qui s' arrêterait à ce dernier se tromperait immensément.

Plus tard, dans la vie, ce n' est pas celui qui sait le plus qui réussit mais celui qui sait le mieux, celui qui *connait*. Entre le plus savant et le plus capable, n'hésitez pas, prenez le plus capable.

Un bon vieux dicton d'école me revient à la mémoire : *Memoriæ minimum fidant* : Fiez-vous peu à la mémoire : Cette faculté n'est pas encore l'âme, conséquenment, elle ne saurait être la dépositaire de nos trésors de science.

Qui peut compter sur des connaissances s'appuyant uniquement ou presque uniquement sur la mémoire des sons! A force d'entendre une chanson vous retenez l'air vaguement pendant quelques jours, quelques mois tout au plus, puis, vous l'oubliez.

Si, au contraire, vous aviez exercé votre œil à lire des portées, à les vocaliser, si vous vous trouviez en état de mettre votre intelligence au service de votre mémoire vous pourriez prendre votre copie, n'importe quand, et redire cette chanson dont vous aviez perdu l'écho.

Dans un cas vous avez la musique en l'âme, dans l' autre vous faites le perroquet.

De la façon dont les examens se passent maintenant, elle est inutile et nuisible, qui plus est.

Le système Berlitz n'apporte aucune aide aux candidats à l'académie en effet.

A l'heure qu'il est, ils ne subissent qu'un examen écrit qui se compose d'une version et de quelques questions, les plus scabreuses, sur la syntaxe ou les gallicismes.

Est-il possible par cela seul de juger des capacités d'un candidat ?

Pas le moins du monde.

On s'assurera peut-être qu'il s'est attaché à l'âme quelques principes vagues, on n'ira pas au fond de ses sens, de sa mémoire et de son intelligence s'assurer, non seulement qu'*il sait*, mais qu'il *connait* son affaire.

Et, de là on part pour juger en bien ou en mal des jeunes gens et des jeunes filles, des instituteurs et des institutrices ! C'est toujours la justice avec un bandeau sur les yeux, c'est-à-dire, le sort aveugle.

Je ne m'oppose certes pas à l'examen écrit, il est louable, nécessaire, mais, il représente simplement un côté de l' enseignement, le côté théorique. Et que fait-on du pratique ?

Donc, en toute justice, il faudrait un examen oral quelconque dont la lecture et la conversarion seraient les traits principaux.

Dans les facultés de lettres de France, nous passons l'examen écrit et l'examen oral. Quand nous arrivons aux langues nous avons la liberté, pour racheter une note faible, de demander à notre juge de nous entendre parler. Il s'yprête toujours de bonne grâce et nous en tient compte.

Ne pourrions-nous au moins faire cela chez nous ?

Je suis certain que la prévision d' avoir à parler la langue à l'examen, encouragerait l'élève, dans le courant de l'année, à prêter une oreille plus attentive au maître et y gagnerait doublement : Sa grammaire lui serait utile et la conversation n'aurait point été une perte de temps ou même une faute.

Inscrivez au programme d'examen la conversation obligatoire et vous verrez le tout autre aspect que prendront les choses.

Il est fort rare qu'un élève vraiment bien doué, qui a classé quelques éléments de science dans sa tête, donne, un jour d' examen, la mesure de son intelligence.

Il est presque toujours inférieur à lui-même. Il l'est de moitié sans la partie orale ; il l'est trois fois si le questionnaire n' a pas été judicieusement pesé.

Et dans ce cas, je crois que des examinateurs devraient conférer avec le maître d'une classe sur les questions à poser.

Pourquoi des instituteurs consciencieux n' auraient-ils point le droit d' examiner devant des juges, leurs propres élèves ?

Là, il n' y aurait pas de tirage au sort, mais soupèsement intelligent de tout le bagage scientifique de l'enfant. Si l'on s'aperçoit d'une supercherie, il est toujours aisé au moment de la note, de la faire payer.

Aujourd'hui, une défaillance de mémoire, un trouble d'esprit, tout est raté. Le hasard joue un rôle énorme alors qu'il devrait toujours être absent d'une salle d'examen.

Avec l'examen oral, il y a encore des surprises, sans doute, mais bien décimées, et l'on ne manque jamais les nullités.

De temps à autre un maître habile prendra une classe et en fera une espèce d'examen préparatoire, une sorte de bataille sur des mannequins, de manière que ses élèves se présentent aussi parfaitement éduqués que possible au jour de la revue finale.

Une heure de classe ainsi passée amène toujours d'excellents résultats.

Avant de passer à autre chose, qu'on me permette de mettre en lumière par des exemples, ce que j'ai dit des avantages et des inconvénients des méthodes de conversation et du système mixte que je crois le meilleur.

J'ai eu pour élève une dame qui, à la suite de fièvres avait perdu la mémoire ; elle avait enseigné le piano et l' avait oublié ; elle réapprenait sa langue maternelle chaque jour. Il me faut refaire mon éducation, me dit-elle, pouvez-vous me donner des leçons de français ?

Je commençai. D'abord, je crus pouvoir employer le système des versions et des thèmes, mais je me convainquis bientôt que mon élève ne distinguait point toujours le mot français du mot anglais.

Sa langue ne lui étant d'aucun secours, j'en fis immédiatement abstraction et ne lui donnai à lire, écrire et parler que du français, lui montrant les objets, les dessinant, faisant la mimique, et traduisant lorsqu'il y avait possibilité.

C'était le système Berlitz à peu près, celui des Jardins d'Enfants. Cette dame était en enfance, de fait.

Avec ma méthode mixte, j'eusse renouvelé la mésaventure des deux aveugles dans le fossé.

Réellement, j'aurais enseigné deux langues avec des difficultés insurmontables.

Or, je suppose que cette dame soit aujourd'hui appelée à passer un examen à l'académie, elle serait rejetée d'emblée, et, pourtant, elle lit bien, comprend passablement et parle un peu. Dans un examen mixte, elle mériterait la moitié des points donnés comme maximum.

Un autre exemple.

Il s'agit d'une institutrice qui avait retenu, d'après la méthode Berlitz, beaucoup de phrases courantes, qui en faisait usage à l'occasion assez bien, mais qui n'aurait jamais su tirer de ses mots que le sens qu'ils comportaient dans leur phrase actuelle. Si vous déplaciez un mot à l'unique façon de s'exprimer qui lui était connue, c'en était fait d'elle. Elle était égarée. Elle était condamnée à n'acquérir rien de neuf, rien d'elle-même, tout de tradition.

Ses puissances d' induction et de déduction ne s'étaient jamais exercées. Il lui était impossible d'épeler, de lire, souvent de traduire et absolûment de se présenter à un examen plus élevé dont le français faisait partie.

Son éducation manquait par la base.

Avec son intelligence cultivée et sa connaissance parfaite de l'anglais, elle eut mieux fait de suivre une méthode mixte.

En résumé, imitons l'architecte qui empile les matériaux autour des fondements et donne à son idéal de construction un forme tangible ensuite. Pour les langues, les mots, les phrases, une connaissance grossière des grosses pièces sont le matériel, la construction se fait sur ce matériel, par la grammaire sous la surveillance de l'intelligence Mais tout ce travail est presque mêlé ; on ne peut pas caser, ce qui est des sens, de la mémoire et de l'intelligenence comme on numérote des maisons et les aligne sur une rue, ou des livres sur les rayons d'une bibliothèque.

L'important c'est de ne pas être perroquet ou phonographe.

J'ai mis en œuvre chez les Aveugles de Halifax ma méthode mixte telle que je l'ai exposée et je suis enchanté de leur travail et d' autres que moi le sont.

La première année nous avons fait bon marché de la grammaire mais nous avons traduit, parlé, composé à tour de bras.

On écrivait d'après le système Braille un morceau tantôt sur les choses journalières, tantôt un bout d'histoire, un jour un sujet, le lendemain, un autre. J'aidais les élèves à comprendre, les mettant sur la voie, puis, une fois qu' ils s'étaient emparés du son des mots, de leur sens, de leur épellation, je me livrais avec eux à de faciles compositions *viva voce* et les initiais aux métamorphoses variées des mots suivant leur application différente, grammaticalement parlant, Et c'est ainsi que j'ai enseigné la grammaire, sous forme de renseignement, pas d'enseignement.

J' espère en trois ans donner aux élèves de l'Institut des aveugles une bonne connaissance du français—la première année—ramasser les matériaux—lecture, liste de mots ou vocabulaire, conversation—deuxième année—grammaire sans laisser la lecture et la conversation. C'est la construction proprement dite—troisième année—les auteurs, ameublement de l'édifice, avec revues de grammaire et toujours conversation.

Après cela ils voleront de leurs ailes, apprendront sans maître, seront des *connaisseurs*, des instituteurs capables et savants—ayant appris le mieux d'abord, avec un maître, en état de se procurer le plus d'eux-mêmes.

Abordons maintenant la question du français chez les Acadiens.

## LES ÉCOLES FRANÇAISES.

En plus des écoles anglaises, nous avons à la Nouvelle-Ecosse, plusieurs centres français dont il convient de m'occuper maintenant.

En effet vous savez que les comtés extrême-est et extrême-ouest de cette province sont habités par des Acadiens dont le parler primitif n'est pas l'anglais.

Il est extrêmement rare que des enfants acadiens entendent parler anglais dans leur famille.

A moins qu'ils n'aient voyagé ou ne soient entourés d'Anglais, ils ne savent jamais la langue de la majorité des Néo-Ecossais.

Comment cela se fait-il, me demandera quelqu'un ? N'enseigne-t-on pas l'anglais dans les écoles du Cap Breton, de Digby et de Yarmouth ?

Helas ! c'est un fait, même l'anglais qui est presque seul enseigné, n'a aucune valeur digne d'arrêter notre attention.

Et le français ?

Peut-être, à force de chercher trouverais-je des raisons à l'ignorance, la décadence et l'état pitoyable où se trouve actuellement la langue des premiers colons dans les provinces maritimes.

Qu'on n'oublie point que je traite uniquement de la Nouvelle-Ecosse. Or, dans notre province, le français des Acadiens est pire que partout ailleurs. Je ne leur en fais pas un reproche. Les premiers maîtres du sol furent si occupés à défricher, à disputer aux éléments et à l'homme le fruit de leurs labeurs, qu'ils s'inquiètèrent peu de garder les bonnes formes du langage apporté de France ; le patois prévalut. Après le patois qui était un pas énorme vers la décadence, arriva l'ignorance. Beaucoup de villages Acadiens ont été dans le passé sans maître aucun, de sorte que la réforme même des locutions vicieuses a été impossible.

Dans la suite l'anglais mal appris s'ajouta au français mal su et aujourd'hui nous avons parmi les Acadiens le plus étonnant mélange de français suranné, de français passable, d'anglais défiguré et tronqué et d'anglais pur qu'il soit possible d'imaginer.

Cette déclaration de ma part pourra soulever des tempêtes, mais je la dois à la vérité et personne plus que moi n'a le droit de découvrir un mal, puisque je lui cherche un remède.

Les Acadiens sont le plus frappant exemple de ma théorie—qu'il ne faut jamais enseigner à des adultes une langue étrangère avant qu'ils ne sachent : *ad unguem* : leur langue maternelle.

Vous ne vous entretiendrez point avec un Acadien dix minutes sans lui voir employer, très candidement, des mots anglais avec des terminaisons françaises, même des locutions anglaises telles quelles et qu'il ne se doute pas appartenir à l'anglais et *vice versâ*.

J'ai entendu des gens très sensés se poser la question s'il ne vaudrait pas mieux qu'ils abandonnâssent leur patois pour s'emparer, à la place, du bon anglais.

Si c'était possible—Oui—mais c'est impossible.

Les Acadiens sont trop nombreux et trop ramassés ; ils tiennent trop à leurs traditions pour cela.

Au lieu de déraciner le français du milieu d'eux, améliorons-le.

Du reste, le chemin le plus court vers l'anglais c'est de l'enseigner aux Acadiens au moyen du français réformé ; si on n'en tient aucun compte, on va droit à l'opposé du but. Le français des Acadiens ne demande qu'un coup de brosse pour être irréprochable, après tout.

On empêche, il est vrai, le français de vivre, comme langue proprement parlée, mais l'anglais est condamné à rester aux portes des intelligences Acadiennes.

A moins donc que les Acadiens ne sachent bien leur français, ils ne réussiront jamais dans leurs tentatives à étudier l'anglais.

Je ne prêche pas l'exclusion d'une langue, je veux l'avantage de l'anglais. Si les

enfants Acadiens étaient arrachés à leur famille en bas âge, transplantés en milieu anglais au moment où leurs facultés se développent, leurs moules à idées se forment et leurs matériaux intellectuels s'accumulent, je conseillerais l'anglais, pas un mot de français. Mais, il n'en est pas ainsi. Dans la famille on parle acadien, dans le voisinage on parle acadien, dans la cour de l'école on parle acadien, pendant que le maître ou la maîtresse d'école s'exténue à expliquer en anglais des livres anglais, les enfants, sur les bancs, se disent à l'oreille des drôleries en acadien.

Entre l'instituteur et l'élève, souvent il n'y a point de lien, non seulement cela, il y a un mur de Chine. Le maître n'entend pas l'élève, l'élève a entre les mains des livres anglais purement énigmatiques qu'il arrive à lire, mais sans comprendre, comme beaucoup de latinistes lisent César sans en pouvoir traduire une ligne.

Quand l'enfant acadien arrive à l' école, son cerveau n'est déjà plus en blanc ; il est tout griffonné de caractères français ; il faut donc les classer et puis les prenant pour guides, se diriger vers l'anglais.

En ce moment les élèves acadiens et anglais sont traités sur le même pied. Comme principe d'égalité c'est parfait, mais comme résultats en éducation c'est une faute.

Les mêmes livres qui servent dans une école anglaise sont de rigueur dans une école acadienne ; le langage de l'enseignement doit être, dans deux cas diamétralement opposés, identiques ; les examens aussi ne diffèrent point, mais ce qui diffère, c'est la nullité générale des candidats acadiens.

Nous avons bien un livre de lecture dans les deux langues à l'usage des écoles françaises, mais quelle en est l'utilité ? Mettez là un gros point d'interrogation.

Cependant, comme je ne me permets jamais de condamner sans donner mes raisons ; voici pourquoi je pense le : Royal Reader : en double texte, plus nuisible qu'utile.

1° La traduction n'est point fidèle.
2° Elle est inutile, même nuisible.
3° Elle ne repose sur aucun principe d'éducation.

Je n'ai pas besoin de m'étendre sur la première imputation, c'est l'affaire des maîtres. Je leur signale le danger d'inculquer à de jeunes enfants de fauses notions qui dureront autant que la vie. Or, les enfants reçoivent l'enseignement comme vous le leur donnez, sain ou empoisonné.

Le plus grand malheur d'une école est un maître à connaissances bornées ou un livre distribuant, à qui en veut, le faux et l'erroné.

Mon second chef d'accusation est que cette traduction est inutile.

Elle n'aide pas l'enfant à comprendre le français.

Je suppose qu'il est capable de lire le français, sa langue maternelle, que lui sert d'avoir en opposition l'anglais qu'il ignore.

Ou bien lui donne-t-on cette traduction libre pour l'aider à pénétrer le sens de l'anglais ? Et alors, pourquoi ne le fait-on pas aussi pour l'histoire, la géographie l'arithmétique qui n'ont d'autres interprètes que des auteurs anglais !

Conséquemment, ces livres sont inutiles.

Enfin, aucun principe d'éducation ne justifie l'emploi de méthodes semblables. Ou le double texte a pour but unique la lecture et alors ils sont l'un à l'autre inutiles, ou le texte française est l'Alpha et l'Omega de l'éducation française des Acadiens et alors nous faisons fausse route.

Je reprends mon texte du début, en parlant des candidats à l'académie ou des hautes écoles. Ne vous aventurez point à apprendre le français sans savoir l'anglais ; parlant des Acadiens, évidemment, renversons les termes et disons ; sans français ne tentez pas d'apprendre l'anglais.

Les Acadiens ne donnent pas une moyenne d'une heure a l'anglais, quand ils vont à l'école. Pendant cette heure ils suisissent peut-être bien deux ou trois mots; en cinq ans ou six ans, ils arrivent à peine à se faire comprendre ; puis, vivant en dehors de l'école et de l'influence anglaises, toutes médiocres qu'elles étaient

réduites à rien, ils reviennent à leur acadien, à leur patois, à leur ignorance, à leur décadence, pires qu'avant l'école, du moins, pas beaucoup plus avancés.

Si l'on avait consacré trois ans, sur ces six, à les instruire de leur langue maternelle d'abord, ils n'auraient point dans la suite à déplorer leur ignorance du français et faire piteuse figure dans le monde. Et l'anglais serait toujours à portée comme une réserve.

J'ai entendu des partisans de la réforme des écoles acadiennes demander une éducation purement française.

Voici ce que j'en pense—Nous sommes en pays anglais, nos plus vastes connaissances et nos plus profondes doivent être en anglais. Autant vaut l'éducation anglaise, autant vaut l'homme. Deux langues bien sues donnent à un même individu la valeur de deux hommes.

Mais, comme l'enfant acadien est arrivé, en entrant à l'école, à un âge où il compare déjà, parle une langue et la comprend, pratiquement, il devrait s'en servir dans ses efforts vers toute autre langue.

Ainsi donc, avant de lancer l'enfant dans la grammaire anglaise, j'exigerais.

1° Qu'il lise le français, l'écrive, l'épelle et le parle bien, du moins passablement.

Supposons que ce soit l'affaire de deux ans.

J'aurais pour cela seulement une grammaire pûrement française, un manuel d'exercices et un livre de lecture.

2° J'aurais une bonne grammaire française-anglaise au début de l'éducation anglaise, avec cette différence que les Acadiens doivent arriver à l'usage parfait de la langue qu'ils étudient, précisément comme je l'ai suggéré, en lisant, analysant, traduisant, imitant et parlant.

Aussitôt que l'élève peut parler l'anglais, le comprendre sans laisser de vides en son intelligence, je ne vois pas de mal à ce qu'il étudie la géographie, l'histoire, les mathématiques etc, dans cette langue. Grâce à l'intelligence des choses qu'il a acquise en français et sa promptitude à saisir les nuances du langage—laquelle intelligence il ne posséderait point sans le travail primordial de traduction d'anglais en français et vice versa qui s'exécute maintenant inconsciemment—il peut se servir uniquement de l'anglais.

Il n'est point nécessaire de changer le programme des études pour cela, seulement d'en classer les matières différemment, ne pas mettre la voiture avant les bœufs Les auteurs indiqués pour l'académie sont tout ce qu'il faut comme lecture. En fait de grammaire et de manuel d'exercices le surintendent de l'éducation trouvera les auteurs les plus pratiques et les plus attrayants sans difficulté.

Tout ce que je demanderais pour les écoles communes, pour me confiner dans la justice et la vérité, serait donc.

1° La lecture ; 2° l'épellation ; 3° l'écriture ; 4° La conversation francaise à la base-Premier stage.

1° La lecture ; 2° l'épellation ; 3° l'écriture ; 4° la traduction en français ; 5° la conversation anglaise. Deuxième stage.

Viendraient ensuite toutes les branches de l'éducation propre à notre province, en anglais, avec les auteurs français qui sont : *ad libitum* : ailleurs, obligatoires pour les Acadiens.

Le français serait ainsi premier suivant l'ordre, second, en importance, mais d'une importance notable.

Dans les collèges où l'on peut, veut et doit faire toutes choses en grand, que l'on étudie la littérature française et les auteurs, nous y applaudissons tous, mais dans les écoles communes il faut arriver à apprendre l'anglais, allons-y par le chemin le plus court et le plus sûr, certainement, celui du français.

Ensuite je verrais avec plaisir les examinateurs demander aux Acadiens, en compensation de leur faiblesse relative et inévitable, une composition française sérieuse et un entretien de vive voix sévère en français.

Tout en suivant des cours de collége, fréquentant les maitres de la langue française, les Acadiens ont la fausse honte déplorable de ne se servir que de leur patois en rentrant chez eux.

Si le ministère de l'instruction publique prenait la peine de changer son programme pour les populations françaises, ce serait la moindre des choses que chacun et les instituteurs surtout, s'efforçâssent de parler correctement en classe et aussi bien en dehors de l'école.

Il me semble que j'ai été un peu long, mais, je traitais d'une question qui à bien son importance puisqu'elle prend tant du temps des élèves de nos écoles, sert sur une si vaste échelle au commerce d'hommes entre eux et, pour en revenir aux Acadiens, doit rapprocher les fils des colons français des fils de la libre Angleterre, les rapprocher de langage, de sympathie, d'entente fraternelle pour le plus grand bien de la patrie une et indivisible, le Canada.

# THE FRENCH LANGUAGE IN NOVA SCOTIA.

*(Translation of Prof. Lanos' paper by J. W. Tupper, Ph. D.)*

The heading I use for this paper is slightly vague, because the principles I propose to set forth in the course of my work may apply as well to the study of the English language by the French, as to that of the French by the English.

If I were discussing merely the theory of languages I should content myself with indicating authorities—since books are not wanting,—which suggest plans and methods. I intend, however, to supplement my theories by my experiences This paper then will indicate what I have attempted.

I experimented with individuals of different temperament, of unequal intelligence, and with those whose primary education varied, and I found that theories are only valuable when they really reach that class of individuals for whom they are intended. Theory has a larger following than practice; and the reason is evident. Theory is but the rational recognition of principles which come under the observation of everyone. Practice, which encounters difficulties and dangers of all kinds, needs an able, experienced and reliable guide. The theoretical part of a language may be taught by anyone; but the practical part can only be taught by a born master, by one who has explored its inmost secrets. The general principles of education apply to language as well as to any other science; but there is something additional. Theory is often the key-note of a category of studies; for language, however, the key-note is practice. A book is but an instrument of labor that has its value in the hands of the laborer.

The quality of my theme is apparent: in every line of education both theory and practice are needed. But in what order and to what extent? Some say, "little theory and much practice"; others reply, "What is practice without principles?" The one party claims that in the present state of affairs theory must precede practice; the other answers that all nature warns us on the contrary not to formulate laws on what is not already known and carried into practice. Of these, who are right, who wrong? Perhaps both. Education should consist in developing the judgment, in producing a sound mind in a sound body, what the ancients called "*mens sana in corpore sano.*"

Former education, in effect, endeavoured to spread over the surface of a good mind, like varnish on fine oak, a layer of general culture, the fundamental principles of science. The student did not know anything very thoroughly, but he was in a position to learn very rapidly and well the details of his chosen trade or his special science. The main point is not to know books by heart; it is to develop the mind and lay a foundation of learning by means of which books may be effectually utilized. Such is, it seems to me, true and profitable education.

But, when language is concerned, a large element of practice must be added to general ideas. How should we deal with it? The old system of education, which indeed was not without a good foundation, can perhaps instruct us on this point. Let us consider the instance of Latin. When Latin was the medium of educated speech, when through it all knowledge was obtained, it was necessary to be able to speak it fluently, and to obtain that end the school annals testify that the

students theorized little and practiced much. As Montesquieu says, "*qu'en fait de pratique on ne sait que ce que l'on pratique*;" and this applies with much more force to language than it does, for example, to physics or botany. Accordingly the old Latinists spoke Latin; they constantly trained themselves in it; their conversation was in Latin; the intercourse of schools and countries was through the medium of Latin. How is it that a language once so vigorous should so suddenly become extinct? Latin did not die out at once; it gradually disappeared; it insensibly faded away, till it came to be regarded as a 'dead' language. To-day it is petrified, because it has ceased to be spoken.

Now if Latin has ceased to exist, since it is no longer spoken, so will French, unless it is spoken. That which has befallen the languages of Rome and Athens, which died out when they were no longer spoken, will befall modern French, unless it keeps abreast of the times. In fact, what is the difference between the old man, unable any longer to use his limbs, and the infant, as yet ignorant of their use? None whatever. So then if we are contented with a superficial acquisition of rules and words, we shall not be long in perceiving where our knowledge of the language is deficient. A language so acquired would have no practical value. It would hardly enable us to pass a merely theoretical examination.

The study of languages, since the almost total disappearance of Latin, has nevertheless gained in importance. Latin was what Volapük professes to be for the present and the future. At present the worlds of literature, science, art, commerce and politics have in reality no language nor bond in common, and in order to enter upon relations with these various "worlds," it is necessary to know about as many languages.

But if we devote ourselves to the study of a language, it is necessary that we do not allow grammar to absorb all our attention. Without observing this precaution, we fall into the methods of history, statistics, genealogy, anything but language itself, which should always under the vigilant eye, however, of master principles, be eminently practical.

In the middle ages, as long as Latin held the front rank in education, the barbaric languages remained in an embryonic condition. But as soon as the scholars of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries began to study them, and to refine and enrich them in writing and speech, Latin immediately began to lose ground. It received its death blow. At present the Church of Rome alone gives it serious attention, it being still the language of the liturgy and the Councils. Had not so many intelligent men in the past encumbered their genius with the study of Latin, it seems to me that English, French and some other modern idioms would have attained their present form one hundred and fifty years earlier. But let us not complain of an accomplished fact, which has after all more good than harm, perhaps, to these languages. We cannot, however, conceal how necessary it is that one, who desires to keep pace with his times, should be proficient in some of the languages that succeeded Latin. This is just what has suggested to me the idea of this paper, and so, after this general survey of the subject, I shall enter at once into the heart of the subject.

Let us consider in the first place the teaching of French to the English

### IN THE ENGLISH SCHOOLS.

If ever anyone thought to make study a mere pastime, he was deceived. There is no royal road to learning. Would you know a language at a time? Devote to it time and arduous labor. By these forces you will clear the first and greatest obstacles. I do not deem it advisable to exalt the study of French before my English readers. They know its importance and place among the European languages, in the world of letters, arts and science, as well as in politics. They know how widely it is spoken throughout Asia, Africa, America, and above all, Canada and Nova Scotia. For clearness, conciseness and harmony, they know

what position *le doux parler de France* holds, and if I were to say that after English French deserves the first place in our schools, they might perhaps smile at my naïveté, but they would not dispute my contention. However, I find on consulting the statistics that in the High Schools and Academies French leads the living languages. This is very flattering to me, and I should like to render its study as easy and beneficial as possible.

In teaching French to the English, two excesses must be avoided: on the one hand, too much grammar, on the other, too much practice without grammar.

Firstly, too much grammar. Let us recall the wise precept, "*non modus rei sed rem.*" First the text, then the comment. If you begin with grammar, without the pupils having the fundamental knowledge and experience of which I spoke above, your work is vain. How do you suppose the rules and exceptions of French words, phrases and constructions can awaken any interest in a child if he has not already to a certain extent an idea of these forms and anomalies? "*Nihil est in intellectu quod non prius fuerit in sensu.*" We cannot hold intercourse with a child's intelligence, unless his eyes have seen, his ears heard, his fingers felt, his tongue tasted. To reach the soul, knowledge must force three doors opening on the same corridor, the one after the other. These are not side doors, as you see; they are called the Senses, the Memory and the Intelligence.

I would propose then as the most practical plan, and that which has secured in my experience the greatest success, the following:—

(1.) Reading.

(2.) Translation of passages read.

(3.) Grammar confined within the limits of the reading.

(4.) *Propos d'érudition*, that is, a review of words and the rules of grammar already met.

(5.) Conversation on the passage studied or imitation, that is, *viva voce* construction of sentences on the model of those in the text.

So French would be learnt by use rather than by rules, by hearing, reading, and re-reading, by transcribing, 'imitation,' and conversation. Rules assist and confirm practice, but they must follow, not precede.

To develop somewhat, as nature shows us, the senses require the first attention of the teacher. Now by reading are trained the eye, the ear, and the organs of speech. A condition of understanding well, is reading well; if you read perfectly you will understand the conversation of the master without difficulty since he speaks as he reads. One may object, 'the sight of your words is misleading; your speech differs so from its printed form. But it is not so; your reading is at fault.

The following is a good method for reading:—The master reads first slowly and distinctly the passage selected for the lesson; the pupils then follow in the order of their proficiency, until their pronunciation is satisfactory. The master should never let a mistake pass unnoticed; he should either correct it himself or have the class correct it. This done, he will then consider the translation, relieving the class as much as possible of the difficulties of idiomatic constructions. In taking up the grammar, he will question the pupil concerning rules previously explained; he will, however, guard against burdening their minds with theories new and long. Two new rules in one lesson are sufficient.

There is no harm done if the old ones are repeated twenty times. Never will a class, however well disposed, listen with attention to more than two rules of grammar. He may with advantage have repeated the rules governing a whole category of words, the article, the possessive pronoun, etc., with reference to an example found in the exercise. As the illustration of this kind in the *propos d'érudition*, the master might meet in the lesson the name of one of the parts of a house. He might then mention all the parts and have them repeated, so that the pupils may freshen their memories, enrich their vocabulary and thus render themselves familiar with what they know more or less already.

Conversation is the stumbling block for masters and pupils. The questions at

the outset should be set, so that the answers may flow readily from the contents of the lesson, but without confining them to the "yes" and "no" of the timid. Now the teacher may change the number of the nouns, objects and verbs, and again the form and construction of the phrases. Thus you will observe that the pupil is supposed to have received some grammatical instruction, in order that he may follow the phrase in its various metamorphoses. Thus after having made his class familiar with ten different methods of expressing in French various actions as, 'take a book,' 'change it,' 'open a door,' 'sit down,' 'rise,' 'go to the blackboard,' etc., he should invariably use French.

I should not recommend constant conversation in class; in the first place it is difficult, and in the second, does not ultimately obtain absolutely practical results, when measured by the examinations to which we must submit at the end of the school year. But a master can venture on conversation before his pupils are able to understand easily or answer correctly. Did ever a man exist capable of correct speech at the first effort? It is by dint of repeatedly hearing and speaking the same words, that an accurate pronunciation is acquired. When the ear becomes habituated to sounds and their combinations, especially when these correspond faithfully to the written form of the word, the student takes pleasure in trying to speak the language he is learning. Soon, too, his dignity will be offended if you tell him anything in English he is capable of understanding in French.

Thus grammar is not necessary in learning to read, and is merely secondary in the study of the language. Grammar is not the art of reading and understanding a language. Both of these are accomplished without it; it dominates them merely to improve them. For adults, however, who are capable of reflection, who know their language well, grammar is ultimately related to conversation and reading. I insist particularly on this point: it is not wise to indulge solely or almost exclusively in conversation when pupils are in need of grammar.

At this point I may be allowed a word on the Berlitz system, a system, which I do not admire, although I believe it the only practicable one for children who merely lisp their mother tongue. In the kindergarten and the nursery it is perfect; but we are concerned here with the high schools and academies, where French is taught the boys and girls of a certain intellectual culture. The natural highway to French is English; French is learned by means of English. So I reject the Berlitz system *in toto*.

The following are my reasons:—1. Because it is opposed to the use of the child's mother tongue; 2, because knowledge is merely juxtaposed to the intelligence, and not assimilated by it; 3, because the pupil is not sufficiently equipped for an examination under the present system. These are grave charges, no doubt I shall be severely criticized. I should hold myself open to conversion, if I could find a student in our academies who has thoroughly mastered his subject by means of the Berlitz system.

I said that a method opposed to the use of the mother tongue is defective. After ten years of age a child reflects and compares; every familiar idea has its mould and its word in the mother tongue. To understand and appropriate an idea expressed in a foreign speech, it is necessary to disengage it from this word, and to dress it in a word of the native idiom, to cast the idea into another mould. Now the child who has no well formed mould for any idea, nor even well defined cells for any conception, has no need of this translation. As the idea and the word, the conception and its form fit into one another, they form their mould. Once the mould is complete, it is necessary to compare and reflect if the content of another mould adapts itself to ours, and how. As a consequence, let us employ translation and exercises.

First, have the young students know their English well, that is, have their moulds perfectly formed. Nothing is more natural at first than mentally translating in one's native tongue a word heard in a foreign language. Later on there is no need of translating, of forcing one mould into another; they become one,

with two words of which one or the other may be employed indifferently. How will you establish this comparison, or cause one mould to enter the other if the language, which should be your guide, is defective, if your mould is misshapen or non-existent? So then if you intend to study French know thoroughly your own language; otherwise, your labor is vain.

You know the parable of the blind leading the blind. They both fell into the ditch; and there probably they still remain. And so, to undertake the study of two languages, of which one is no more familiar than the other, is only to lead to a repetition of the catastrophe.

Secondly, let us not merely put knowledge in juxtaposition to the intelligence, let it be rather assimilated. "*Stude potius ut pauciora clare distincteque percipiant quam obscure pluribus imbuantur.*" A method by which one apprehends all by the memory, the memory of the eyes or ears, is of little significance, and cannot commend itself. Learning by heart is not learning.

In French there are two words, *connaître* and *savoir*. *Connaître* differs widely from *savoir*, and he who is satisfied with the latter is not wise. Later in life he is not the man who knows most, that succeeds, but he who knows best, the man *qui connait*. Between the most learned, and the ablest, do not hesitate to choose the latter. There is a good old saying of the schools, "*memoriae minimum fidant*," trust little to your memory. This faculty of ours is not the intelligence, consequently it should not be the depository of our treasures of science. Who can rely on knowledge based solely or almost solely on the memory of sounds? By frequently repeating a song, one may vaguely retain the air for a few days or at the most months, and then it is forgotten. If on the contrary he has exercised his eye in reading the scale, and his voice in singing, if his intelligence has been trained to assist his memory, he may at any time take a copy and render the song, though any remembrance of it may have passed away. In the one case he has an intelligent understanding of music, in the other it is merely a parrot-like imitation. As a preparation for passing an examination, it is useless—even detrimental. In fact the Berlitz system does not afford any assistance to the students of our academies.

At present the candidates undergo a written examination which consists of translation and some more difficult questions on construction and gallicisms. Is it possible by that alone to estimate the proficiency of a pupil? Certainly not. We may ascertain perfectly that he has absorbed some vague principles, but we do not sound the full depth of his mind—his senses, memory and intelligence—to ascertain not only if he *sait* but if he *connait*. And from this we proceed to judge for good or ill the pupils and the teachers. This is a blind-folded justice, a blind fate. I am certainly not opposed to written examinations; they are necessary and commendable, but they represent merely the theoretical side of instruction. What then is done for practice? In all justice an oral examination should be held, in which reading and conversation would form the principal part. In the universities of France candidates are required to pass both written and oral examinations. Where the subject of examination is a language, the candidate is allowed, in order to redeem a weak record or improve a good one, to speak in this language. The examiners are always pleased with, and give credit to such efforts. Reading and translation, *aperto libro*, are part of this examination.

Can we not, now, do the same, though on a smaller scale, in our Academies? I am certain that the prospect of having to speak French at the examinations would stimulate the pupils in the course of the year to listen more carefully to the master's instruction. This would be a double gain; his grammar would be useful to him, and his conversation would not be a mere loss of time and labor Add to the requirements of the examination obligatory conversation, and a complete change will be noticed in the treatment of this subject. It is very rare that a pupil of good ability who has assimilated certain elements of knowledge, is able to give the measure of his intelligence in a mere written examination. He almost

always does himself an injustice; doubly so without an oral examination, and even more so if the questions have not been judiciously weighed.

I believe the examiners should confer with masters in reference to the papers set. Why should not conscientious teachers have the privilege of examining their own pupils under the supervision of the official examiners? That would not be a mere lottery, but an intelligent estimation of the scientific acquirements of the child. If any trickery were detected on the part of the teacher, it would be always easy to make the necessary deductions when the marks were being assigned. As it is, a failure of memory or mental nervousness may lead to complete failure. Chance now plays a great part in our examinations; it should be impossible. With the oral examination there would yet be surprises, doubtless, but they would be greatly lessened, and gross ignorance would not remain undiscovered. From time to time a skilful teacher will put the class through a preparatory drill, a sort of sham fight, so that the pupils may be prepared as well as possible for the final review. An hour so passed will always lead to excellent results.

Before passing to another subject, let me illustrate by example what I have said of the advantages and disadvantages of the methods of conversation, and of the composite system, which in my experience has proved the best. I had as a pupil a lady, who in consequence of illness had lost her memory. She had been giving piano lessons, but had forgotten all her music. She was learning again her mother tongue, English. "It is necessary for me," she said, "to regain my education. Can you give me lessons in French? I commenced, and at first tried the method of translation and exercises; but I was soon convinced that my pupil did not always distinguish between a French and an English word. Her native language was no assistance to her, so I decided to ignore it altogether, and gave her nothing but French to read, write and speak. I pointed out and named objects for her, indulged in mimicry, and, where it was possible, I translated. This was practically the Berlitz system, the method of the kindergarten. This lady was a child, as far as her education was concerned. The composite system, had I made use of it, would have been a repetition of the blind who fell into the ditch. I should really have been teaching two languages under insuperable difficulties. Now if this lady were to present herself for examination in our academies, she would be promptly rejected, even if she could read well and intelligently, and speak a little. In an examination, partly written and partly oral, she would deserve half the marks allowed as a maximum.

Another example. A lady teacher remembered from her experience with the Berlitz system many common phrases, which she could use on occasion fairly well, but she could never use the separate words in any other connection than that in which they had occurred in the sentence learned. If a word was displaced from its original setting, she was put at a loss. She was condemned to acquire nothing new; there was nothing left her but tradition. Her powers of induction and deduction had never been trained. It was impossible for her to spell or read, and often to translate, while to pass a French examination anyways advanced, was absolutely impossible. Her education was resting on a false basis. With her cultivated intelligence and perfect knowledge of English she would have done better by following the composite method.

To sum up, let us imitate the architect, who strengthens his foundations, and gives a tangible form to his constructive ideal, before he considers less important matters. In language, words, phrases, &c., a rough knowledge of essentials are the material; the construction is erected on this foundation by grammar, under the superintendence of the intelligence. But all this work occurs almost simultaneously. We cannot place what belongs to the senses, the memory and the intelligence, as we number houses on a street, or sort books on the shelves of a library. What we must avoid is acting the part of the parrot or the phonograph.

I tried my composite system with the pupils of the Blind Asylum, and I, and others, are delighted with their work. The first year we dealt lightly with gram-

mar, but we read, translated, conversed, and composed as much as possible. They used to write, according to the Braille system, a selection on daily topics or events of history, now one subject, now another. I helped the pupils to make out the meaning, and then when they were thoroughly familiar with the pronunciation, the meaning and the spelling, I set them at easy *viva voce* composition, and initiated them into the mysteries of the metamorphoses of words due to the various applications of grammatical rules. Thus I taught grammar rather in the shape of information than as dry precept.

I hope I shall be able in three years to give my pupils of the Blind Asylum a good knowledge of French. In the first year I shall have them collect material—reading, acquiring a vocabulary, conversation—; in the second year there will be grammar combined with reading and conversation. this is construction in the proper sense of the term; in the third year, they will study the authors—adding a finish to the work by reviews of grammar, and constant conversation After that they will fly with their own wings; they will learn without a master, they will be *connoisseurs*, they will be capable and learned teachers,—having learned well with a master, they will be in a position to acquire the most by themselves.

Let us now glance at the question of the French among the Acadians.

### THE FRENCH SCHOOLS.

In addition to the English schools there are some schools in the French sections of Nova Scotia, which merit our attention. You know already that the counties in the extreme East and West of the Province are settled by Acadians, whose mother tongue is not English. Very rarely do the Acadian children hear English spoken in their homes. Unless they travel or otherwise come in contact with the English, they are ignorant of the language of the majority of Nova Scotians. 'How is it,' one may ask, 'is English not taught in the schools of Cape Breton, Digby and Yarmouth?' Alas! it is a fact that English, which is almost the only language taught, is hardly worth mentioning. 'And French?' Perhaps it I tried, I might find cause for the ignorance, the decadence, the pitiable state in which the language of the first colonists of the Maritime Provinces is found.

Let it not be forgotten that I am considering the subject merely as it relates to Nova Scotia. The French of the Acadians is worse here than anywhere else. I do not regard that as a reproach to them. The first masters of the soil were so occupied with clearing the ground, with disputing with man and the elements for the fruit of their labours, that they were not troubled to preserve the pure forms of the language they brought from France. So *patois* prevailed. In the track of *patois*, itself an immense step towards decadence, followed ignorance. Many of the Acadians were in the past without teachers, and a reform of this impure dialect was thereby rendered impossible. Later English poorly understood was mixed with this corrupt French, and to-day we have the most astonishing hodge podge of obsolete and passable French, and of distorted, mutilated and pure English, that can be imagined.

These statements of mine may raise a tempest, but I am bound to tell the truth, and no one has a better right than myself to reveal an evil I am trying to remedy.

The Acadians are the most striking instance of my theory, that an adult should never be taught a foreign language until he knows his own *ad unguem*. You cannot speak ten minutes with an Acadian without hearing him employ most candidly English words with French terminations, and even English locutions as if he did not know whether they were English or French.

I have heard very sensible persons raise the question, whether they had not better abandon their *patois*, and replace it with good English. It would be, if it were possible, but it is not possible. The Acadians are very numerous, and thickly massed together, and they remain too faithful to their traditions to admit of any sudden change. Instead of eradicating their French, let us rather improve it.

Besides the shortest way to English is through the medium of the pure French. We shall not do well if we disregard this method. If the present system remains, French will certainly be prevented from being a properly spoken language, and English will be condemned to remain at the door of the Acadian intelligence. Unless the Acadians know their French well, they will never succeed in their efforts to study English. I do not recommend the exclusion of one language; I desire the advantage of English.

If the Acadian children were taken from their homes, when young, and placed in an English environment, at times when their faculties are developing, when their ideas are being moulded and their intellectual materials are accumulating, I should advise the exclusive use of English. But such is not the case. In their homes, with their fellows in the play-grounds, they speak Acadian, and when the school-teacher exhausts himself in his explanations in English of English books, the children whisper their nonsense in one another's ears in Acadian. Between the teacher and pupil there is often not merely no bond of union, but there is a veritable Chinese wall of separation. The master does not understand the pupil, the pupil has in his hands English books that are simply enigmatical. He may read but he does not understand them, like some so-called Latinists who read Cæsar, but cannot translate a line. When an Acadian child comes to school his mind is no longer a blank, but is scribbled all over with French characters. It is necessary first to classify these, and then take them as guides leading to English.

At present the Acadian and English pupils are placed on the same footing. As a principle of equality this is all very well, but in its practical results it will not hold. The same books that are used in the English are enforced in the Acadian schools; the language of instruction must be the same in the two diametrically opposite cases. The examinations also do not differ, except that they generally result in the discomfiture of the Acadians.

We have indeed a reading book in the two languages for the use of the French schools, but of what benefit is it? This is a question of prime importance. However I do not believe in condemning without giving my reasons. The Royal Reader in its double text is more harmful than beneficial, because,

(1) The translation is not faithful,
(2) It is useless, even harmful,
(3) It is not based on any principle of education.

I do not need to delay on the first charge. It is the duty of masters to warn young pupils against the danger of false notions, which may last as long as life. They receive instruction as it is imparted by the teachers, be it wholesome or poisonous. The greatest misfortune of a school is a teacher of limited resources, or a text book of false principles.

My second charge is that the translation is useless. It does not enable the child to understand French. Supposing he is able to read French, his mother tongue, what advantage is the English in the opposite column to him, if he cannot understand it? Was this free translation given him to comprehend the meaning of the English? And if so, why is not the same done for history, geography and arithmetic, which have no other interpreters than the English authors? Consequently these book are useless. In fine, no educational principle justifies the use of such methods.

Either the bilingual reader is merely to teach reading, and then these languages are mutually unserviceable, or the French text is the Alpha and the Omega of the French education of the Acadians, and that we should all deprecate.

I repeat my statement of the beginning, when speaking of the pupils of the high schools and academies: do not venture to learn French without knowing English; and now speaking of the Acadians, I say, do not venture to learn English without knowing French.

When they are at school the Acadians do not give one hour's thought to English. After five or six years spent in school, the few English words they have

learned hardly enable them to understand English with any degree of readiness. Once outside the rather insignificant influence of the school and the English inhabitants, they return to their Acadian *patois*, to their ignorance and decadences, to a condition worse than before entering, or, at least, not much better.

If out of these six years they devote three years to their mother tongue, they would not have to deplore their ignorance of French, and make such a pitiful figure in the world. English will always serve moreover as a reserve. I have heard partisans in favor of the reform of the Acadian schools, demand a purely French education. I think that since we live in an English country, our education should be as thoroughly English as possible. Here the man is measured by the standard of an English education. Two well acquired languages give a man a double value.

But since an Acadian child on entering school is of an age when he reflects, and speaks and understands a language, he ought to be able to make it subserve his endeavors in learning every other language. Thus before a child begins the study of English grammars, (1) I should demand that he read, write, spell and speak French at least fairly well. Suppose that this is a matter of two years. I should have for that alone a purely French grammar, an exercise book and a reader. (2.) I should have a good French-English grammar at the beginning of their English education, with the distinction, that the Acadians should have a perfect knowledge of the language they are studying, as I suggested above by reading, analysis, translation, 'imitation' and conversation.

As soon as the pupil can speak English with a certain degree of intelligence, I see no reason why he should not study geography, history, mathematics, etc., in the new idiom. By virtue of the knowledge that he has acquired in French, and his quickness in noting the niceties of the language,—which intelligence he has not acquired without the previous work of translation of English into French and *vice versa*, now unconsciously performed—he is able to make a ready use of English.

It is not necessary to change the curriculum, but merely to classify the subjects differently; we should not put the cart before the horse. The authors specified for the Academies are all that are necessary for reading. The Superintendent of Education will easily select the most practicable and attractive texts books in grammar and composition.

All that I demand for the common schools within the bounds of justice and truth are for the first stage,—(1) reading, (2) spelling, (3) writing, (4) French, conversation as a basis; for the second stage,—(1) reading, (2) spelling (3) writing, (4) translation into French, (5) English conversation.

All the branches of Education in our Province will be taught in English with French authors optional, but for the Acadians French will be obligatory. French will thus be first in order of time, but second in importance.

In the colleges, where a more exhaustive study is possible, French literature will be studied from the highest point of view; but in the common schools English must be learned, and by no means easier than by French.

I should like to see the examiners demand of the Acadians, in compensation for their relative and inevitable weakness, a difficult exercise in French composition, and a severe ordeal in French conversation. Even after a course in college under good French instructors, the Acadians have a lamentable fashion of returning to their *patois*. If the Council of Public Instruction would take the trouble to change the curriculum for the French population, the least that could be expected would be that all, and especially the teachers, should strive to speak correctly in and out of school.

My paper seems rather lengthy, but the subject it treats is important since it engages so much of the time of our pupils, serves to such a great extent in the commerce of men, and to return to the Acadians, it brings together the descendants of the colonists of France and the sons of free England, it draws them together by the bond of language, of sympathy, of brotherly kindness, for the supreme good of our country, Canada.

DISCUSSION.—REV. ALPH. B. PARKER, of St. Ann's College:—We need a French grammar and reading book in our schools and French-speaking districts. I wish to raise no religious or national feeling nor do I wish to have French taught to the detriment of the English language, but only as a means of arriving more perfectly and quickly to a thorough knowledge of English. This is the universal opinion of the Acadians who could judge in the matter, and it is in this light only that I am there as their delegate. The primary teaching of the children for two years in their mother-tongue would make them learn English better afterwards: experience has shown the difficulty of teaching them to read, write and speak in a (to them) *strange* language, all at the same time. The Acadians would acquire a knowledge of their own French language at the same time and would end by speaking *two* languages correctly, whilst now they can only speak a patois of one and a jargon of another.

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*2nd Session—WEDNESDAY.*

Discussion on Professor Lanos' paper continued.

The following resolution was moved by the Rev. A. B. Parker and seconded by Dr. Hall of the Normal School:—

*Resolved*, That in the opinion of the Educational Association it would seem desirable that the Council of Public Instruction for this Province should allow such change to be effected in the books in use in the schools in French speaking districts, as would give to pupils in said schools text books in their own language at least in reading and grammar, in order to facilitate their acquiring a knowledge of English.

PRINCIPAL CALKIN, Normal School:—I have listened with great interest to the able paper with which the Association had been favored by Prof. Lanos. I did not previously understand that the schools among the Acadians were as described, and I feel that there is a grievance which demands some remedy. While I honored the Acadians for their loyalty to the beautiful language of their fathers, I agree with Professor Lanos that a knowledge of English is to them a matter of the highest concern. I feel that one of the first duties which they owe their children is to provide them with the means of becoming acquainted with the prevailing language of the country in which they live, as without such knowledge they can never take high position or exercise commanding influence in the affairs of the country. But while I am in full sympathy with the object sought after by Prof. Lanos, I differ with him in regard to the method proposed for effecting that object. That gentleman would confine the Acadian children in the schools exclusively to French until they were thoroughly acquainted with that language in order to lay a foundation for their subsequent instruction in English. I fear that such a course would utterly fail in its purpose, as the whole of the school life of these children would be spent in securing such mastery of French. I believe that they should be instructed in English from the very first, and if the French in the bilingual readers is unintelligible to them, as had been stated, the English lessons should be translated into a language which they can understand. Especially and above everything else, I hold that the teachers in the Acadian schools should be familiar with the mother tongue of the children as well as with English. Young men and women drawn from the Acadian people should be qualified and placed in charge of these schools.

INSPECTOR MORSE:—I have listened with pleasure to the very interesting and able paper which has been presented by Prof. Lanos. It is a very timely contribution, and one which merits much consideration at the hands of this Association.

The Acadians of this Province are to be congratulated in having in Prof. Lanos so able a representative. They are also to be congratulated in having another able champion in the person of Rev. Prof. Parker of St. Anne's College, to whom we have just listened.

I rise, Mr. President, more particularly to support the resolution which has just been moved by Prof. Parker, knowing, as I do, the disadvantages under which the Acadians labor in the matter of text-books. There are about *thirty* purely French schools in inspectoral district No. 4 under my supervision. The children on entering these schools in most cases can neither speak nor understand the English language, and some text-books in their mother tongue are a necessity. The only French text-books now prescribed are the bilingual Royal Readers. As this series does not extend beyond the No. 3 reader, a more advanced French reading book is a necessity in these schools If a suitable reader for the advanced classes were prescribed, and also a small French grammar, I believe that the Acadians would be satisfied, and it would at once remove any desire on the part of their teachers to introduce unauthorized books on these subjects. If Prof. Lanos' theory be correct, that a knowledge of pure French would materially aid the Acadians in mastering the English language, then by all means let a more advanced French reader and a compendious French grammar be prescribed for the Acadian common schools. I have much pleasure, therefore, in supporting the resolution which is now before the Association.

Principal McLeod, Kentville :—I am strongly opposed to any such resolution, I believe it would only set back the time when the French would speak English, which is the language of the land. The Scotch have overcome the difficulty, why have not the French? If they were really in earnest they, too, would soon overcome the difficulty.

"Professor McDonald, of the Normal School, who has also had much experience in French schools, and considered that as present constituted, the French school could not do good work in the English language. They must have access to their own language in the earlier years. He also was Scotch and he could speak Gaelic, but he felt that the views of Professor Lanos and Father Parker were correct, provided the English language was thoroughly taught in the end."

Principals O'Hearn and Kennedy also took part in the discussion.

The resolution passed unanimously.

# DISTRICT INSTITUTES.

By C. W. Roscoe, A. M., Inspector of Schools, Wolfville.

For many years the teachers of some of the inspectorates in the Province have held meetings at stated periods—sometimes annually—to interchange views on educational topics, to discuss subjects pertaining to their work, to see and to hear some illustrative teaching done by persons selected for the purpose, and to form the acquaintance of each other. These meetings were styled Associations. In them the subjects for consideration were introduced by reading papers, prepared by the members, and these papers were freely discussed by the Association. These Associations have to some extent promoted the efficiency of the teaching service. The two days allowed for the meetings were too short a time for the accomplishment of much. The attendance, which was voluntary, did not include more than one third of the teachers in the inspectorates, where the Associations were held; and such Associations were established in not more than five or six counties of the Province, so that not much has yet been done, in this way, for the more than two thousand teachers annually employed in the public schools. As a rule, those who attended were from the best schools, knew most about school management and teaching, and could best do without the help of such meetings. They manifested a deep interest in the work, and expressed themselves as much benefited by such gatherings. The name Association has been changed to District Institute. I do not know what intended significance there is in the name, but I shall take the liberty to describe the Institute to which I wish to direct you as follows:—

1. I would have the Institute a school, in the best sense of the term, in which the subjects should be thoroughly taught and special attention should be given to the method of teaching. It might be of the nature of a summer school, but giving more attention to elementary subjects, and especially to the best way of presenting and dealing with them. How to do school work, how to economize time, how to conduct class exercises, how to reach all the pupils, including the dull ones, and many other things, make such work of vast importance to the mass of teachers in our schools to-day.

The fact that not one fourth of the teachers engaged in the schools have received any training to teach, shows the necessity of some greater effort than is now being made to provide such teachers as the times demand. Three fourths of all our teachers go into the school room with little conception of what should be expected from them. They practise upon the schools—often doing more harm than good—at the expense of the school section and to the detriment of the whole Province. This is not altogether the teachers' fault. They often do the best they know how to do, and in many cases succeed in learning how to teach fairly well, but what a loss of time for the teachers, and what an immense loss to their pupils! Their loss cannot be estimated. It must be apparent to all who are familiar with the work of the schools as they now exist.

Our need now is teachers for the schools, not schools for the teachers. The interests of the children in the schools far transcends the interests of those who want

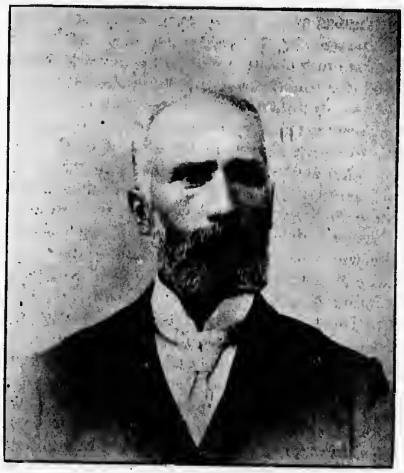
to teach them. The matter of providing teachers should be viewed, primarily, from the needs of the schools, and not from the needs, however pressing, of candidates for positions in them.

Now in some measure to meet this need, and in a general way to improve the teaching force of the Province, I shall outline the kind of Institute and institute work which I regard as likely to accomplish these ends.

Before doing so, I wish to say that experienced teachers and those who have undergone a thorough training at our Normal School, would perhaps receive more benefit from such work as was done in the local associations than from the Institute I am about to recommend; but even in this I can conceive of the work being so graded as to meet their case. In my opinion, as long as teaching continues to be a progressive science, which it is always likely to be, the occasion will exist for gathering all teachers together to get instruction and inspiration.

1. In the first place the time allowed by law—two days—is far too short; I would have it extended to five days.

2. I would have the Institute combine the best features of our Model and Normal Schools and of our old local Associations, and perhaps in some respects of the Summer School of Science.



C. W. Roscoe, M. A., Inspector of Schools, Wolfville.

3. I would divide the Province into districts, equal in size to about the half of such a county as Kings, and require the attendance of all the teachers.

4. I would recommend the selection and appointment of specialists to conduct this Institute work and allow them to select any teachers from the district who may possess special aptitude for the work to aid them.

5. I would recommend a judicious expenditure from the Provincial and County Funds to meet the salaries of the teachers appointed to conduct the Institutes, and in some measure the expenses of those required to attend.

(1st.) The two days now devoted to this purpose serve only as a beginning, and by the time the teachers are organized for work and become a little acquainted as to what is required all is over. They therefore attend more to have a holiday and

a pleasant time socially than for solid work. Five days would enable teachers to take hold of some lines of work and follow them far enough to be able to pursue them after the session is over. Especially will this prove true of the methods and devices presented for their guidance in teaching. Ten days would be still better than five; but it may be too soon to advocate so great an advance.

(2nd.) What should the Institute be, and what should it do?

All the work on the school courses cannot, from the shortness of time, receive attention at any one session of the Institute; but any subject selected from the high or common school course may properly be taken up and taught either to the members of the Institute or to pupils from the schools who shall be selected to be practiced upon, so as to illustrate methods of teaching.

It may be found advantageous to give considerable time to a few subjects at the outset. Chemistry and Physics, for some teachers who are expected to teach them, but who have never had the opportunity to learn them except from books, may come in this list. In the common school subjects I would put music, drawing, nature lessons, and calisthenics. To these latter I would give two lessons per day while the Institute is in session. As to the time for each lesson, that will depend upon the class. Where the members of the Institute form the class, one hour should be the maximum. Where pupils are brought in for practice the time should not exceed thirty minutes.

At the first meeting I would have each teacher give an outline of the course of lessons in which he has been selected to give instruction, and when outside study is needed I would assign a lesson for the first class exercise. The talk at this time should be a preparation for what is to follow.

To put before you the idea, in my own mind, of what is to be done, I will suppose that some one who has succeeded in teaching history has been appointed to give a lesson each day for five days in the history of Canada or Britain. A lesson of reasonable length was assigned, we will assume, at the proper time, to pupils of the grade for which it is suitable, and they have prepared it. Now, I would have each lesson so taught, and the exercise so conducted, as to exhibit the best method of teaching This should be made apparent by what is actually taught, as well as by the interest awakened in the class and the stimulus given to pursue this study. The teachers attending the Institute would make a note of how much or how little stress if laid upon the text-book part of the lesson, of the points emphasized, of the new points introduced, and of the general results.

Any other subject such as Arithmetic, Grammar and Geography may be selected as the committee of management may decide. The aim in choosing a teacher should be to get one who knows his subject, and, better still, who knows how to teach it. In a course of five lessons, giving one for review, the plan will be fixed in the minds of the listening teachers, and they will carry away with them something that may be adopted, something that will prove of inestimable value to those who have not hit upon the best plan heretofore. I would have the time for the lesson, the amount of text-book to be committed, and everything connected with the lesson, natural, and as nearly as possible like what the teacher would do in his own school, were he teaching there instead of before the Institute.

To proceed from what is comparatively easy to what is more difficult and of much more importance, I would have you think of five lessons in reading taught as examples before the Institute. Let the teacher, as before, be selected on account of his aptitude to teach the subject, let the pupils as regards grade and attainments be chosen for this particular work, and the lesson in length, etc., be a model. Now let the teachers observe *the teacher* as he proceeds. What does he do to prepare the pupils to read! How much time does he spend in talk about words, places, men, etc., of which the lesson treats? When he asks a pupil to read, does he expect him to imitate the teacher, or to express the thought referred to in the introductory talk, or both? In brief, what is good teaching in this subject? The

best answer should be found in what the living teacher has done for five consecutive days under the foregoing circumstances.

He must be dull of apprehension or comprehension, who does not discover something in such an exercise to carry to his own school and use in his own teaching.

There are four subjects that must for some time, engage the attention of District Institutes, and I would give prominence to them here. These are, Nature Lessons, Drawing, Calisthenics and Music. I am of opinion that the sentiment favoring these, is, in many instances, dormant, or at best, only a smouldering spark in the hearts of too many teachers It needs fostering and stimulating. We need not fear or hesitate to talk it up. In fact these subjects need booming. I think that is the word that best expresses it. The more this is done the more popular will they become. They have come to stay; and none too soon have the schools been required by law to teach them. For those who have little or no opportunity to be taught these subjects or to be instructed how to teach them—and a large number of our teachers are in this condition—I would recommend that something be done at the Institutes. The work that I am mapping out will necessitate a much longer time, and greater expense than now, for Institute work; but if time and money spent in this way shall be made to contribute in a marked degree to the advancement of the schools, and to their value in fitting the young for the duties awaiting them, at the completion of their school days, we need not hesitate to go forward in this direction.

I would have five model lessons, given on some two topics, that come under the head of Nature lessons. Say for the first year, five on minerals, and five more on plants. In these we may safely imitate the summer school of science and do part of the work in the fields. Let these lessons be simple and models for the teachers in their own schools. They should be given to children and should be neither too prosy nor too trifling, neither too bookish nor too original. They should not be for half of the class, nor for pupils out of the class, not for show, and not lacking in interest. What should they be? They should be the best model lessons that can be conceived of in this line. When the lesson has been given and the class dismissed, time should be given for questions and suggestions or remarks from those who have tried other successful methods of doing the same kinds of work. There is no royal road to teaching any more than to learning.

*Calisthenics.*—This should be made prominent in Institute work. Classes of pupils may appear before the institute and be drilled to show how to conduct an exercise in school; but a majority of the teachers will do well to submit themselves as pupils, and be drilled. Here too, the method is an important part of the work. It seems to me the sooner we can convince everybody that time is not wasted, and that pupils are fitted for more and better work by this exercise, the better.

How many teachers receive messages from parents that they do not want their children's time wasted in that way, and how many faint-hearted ones yield, and give only so much time to this drill as will justify them in reporting it in their registers and returns? All schools have pupils in some of the grades who need physical drill regularly, and it may be said that all who attend, whether large or small, would be benefited by engaging in some exercises of the kind. How often it occurs that the teacher is worried by the restlessness of little children. She scolds —sometimes punishes,—and continually irritates the nervous little things by attempting to compel them to keep quiet, when the atmosphere of the room is bad, and the children need a change of position, and a good lively time for a few minutes. This state of things can be quickly changed by opening windows and doors, so as to admit plenty of pure air and remove the vitiated air, by swinging the limbs and exercising the muscles at the dictation of the teacher. This done with exactness and precision secures individual attention, gives spirit to the listless ones and fits all for a pleasant season of work and quiet. More can be done for the next half hour than could have been done in twice the time under the former

conditions, and all feel pleasant about it. Now what to do, how to conduct this drill, how much time to devote to it, &c., &c., I would have taught at the Institute. I am aware that I am treating of what will seem a small matter to some of you. I expect to hear you ask, Why spend the time of the Institute in teaching what may be easily learned from a book? To answer this and convince you of the need in this direction, I would invite you to visit a half dozen ordinary country schools, and I believe you will come away feeling that the small and apparently trifling matters connected with school work are the ones of importance and needing careful attention. You will be convinced that "the cookies must be put on the lower shelf to be eaten."

*Drawing.*—Most of the teachers in the Province have done something in drawing, and realize that it must be taught. Many are not quite sure of the best methods of teaching it. To do the most for all, I would have a specialist in this subject give two half-hour lessons each day of the Institute to all the teachers, not so much in the expectation of training them in so short a time to use the pencil well and to produce good specimens of drawing, as to show how to teach it in the various grades of the schools. Therefore, in the Institute work, *many* lessons for children may be gone over in *one* for the teachers. So long as the teachers catch the idea of how to do it right and well, they can fill in the details themselves. Many specimens may be put on the board by the specialist to illustrate what is to be taught and how best to present it to the children. The suggestions thus given will prove of incalculable value to those who have not succeeded in this matter before, because they were not quite sure of the best way to teach the subject. I have dwelt upon this, because one of the weaknesses of the miscellaneous schools of to-day is, that drawing is not taught at all, or taught to little purpose, because not taught with any definite aim in view. Considerable time is consumed in allowing pupils to draw at random, without instruction; though in some cases fair specimens of drawing are produced. But in the main the work is of little value because of the way in which it is taught, or rather because it is not taught at all. The time is long past when an argument is needed to convince the thoughtful of the practical utility of drawing, or of its importance as a means of mental discipline. The teachers who were licensed without an examination in drawing can scarcely be censured for their lack of knowledge of the subject; but when the means to acquire the knowledge is put within their reach they should be pressed to avail themselves of the opportunity. The schools of the United States—especially the town schools—spend much time in learning to draw. Perhaps they spend too much time in this way. If they go to one extreme we are at the other. They spend weeks in making drawings of plants, at the different stages of germination and growth. They thus combine lessons on plant growth and drawing. In this we may well imitate them. Our backward condition in this subject will not be apparent to the teachers of Halifax, Truro, Windsor, or other towns, where are situated county academies and high schools. The most of the schools in Nova Scotia are miscellaneous, and in such schools the time must be carefully divided and each period put to the best account. Hence it is that we need the best teachers in such schools. And for this reason I would, by means of the Institute, put the teachers of such schools in the way of saving their time and accomplishing the best results. Hence also the greater need of teachers in such schools having intercourse in teachers' meetings with those from more favored places, so as to keep in touch with all that is new and good in the line of methods.

*Music.*—This subject I would have taught at the Institutes as it is now taught to the teachers of the Summer School of Science. If possible to find the time, I would plan for two lessons each day while the Institute lasts. More teachers find it difficult to teach this, from lack of knowledge of the subject, than from any other cause. The teachers throughout the Province received such a scare on receipt of the *Journal of Education* for October, 1894, that most of them began

and did commendable work in learning and teaching music. As a rule, it is not well to frighten people, but here is an exceptional case. Those that have thus made a beginning are at a stage when some instruction would be very valuable and much appreciated. For these and for all teachers who have not entered upon the study, I would have the best teacher that can be obtained to give instruction at the Institute and have as many lessons as can be thoroughly given in the time, so that all teachers may go home with such a foundation laid that they can do good elementary work in their schools. Many parents are yet to be convinced that time is not lost in teaching music in the schools. Those, however, who have done the most and best work in teaching this subject, assure me that the time spent in learning to sing is more than compensated for in the increased ability for doing work which comes as the result of engaging in singing There is no exercise so well calculated to drive away drowsiness and brighten up the pupils as this. It is found, after the music lesson, that the pupils' minds are active and that they can do their work rapidly and correctly. From personal knowledge I am prepared to corroborate this testimony, and, as far as possible, to provide that teachers shall be *instructed* and *give* instruction in music in all the schools.

To conclude, I am of opinion that Institutes should provide for their members instruction of a high order of merit, by supplying teachers to illustrate methods of teaching and school management, which would be a model for the members in their own schools. During the evenings of the Institutes I would have provision made for round table talks, lectures on method, quizzing by the members, and giving new devices or methods that have proved helpful. I think it would be well to provide for one lecture each day on some phase of school work.

Now the Institute that I have imperfectly outlined should possess the following features :—

1. The time devoted to it should be at least five days.
2. The work done should be primarily that of training the teachers to do their work in the best way. Provision should be made for graduates of the Normal schools and experienced teachers to do additional work along some lines where it is most needed, and to read papers and discuss topics pertaining to their work, as in the old Association.
3. The extent of the Institute district should be equal to about half the size of Kings County.
4. The attendance should be made compulsory on all who have not attended the Normal School, or who have not had at least five years' experience.
5. Specialists should be appointed to conduct this work, who may select competent teachers of the district to aid them. By dividing the Province into thirty-six or more districts the whole time of these specialists would be needed.
6. An expenditure of public funds is recommended for this purpose. The specialists might be paid from the Provincial Treasury, and an allowance made from the County School Funds, to make the attendance of the teachers easy and possible.

I am aware that I have touched this subject in only a few points, but hope enough has been said to provoke discussion and result in some advance in our work.

Discussion :—Inspector Morse : I notice by the programme that I am expected to open the discussion on the paper which has been so ably presented by Inspector Roscoe. I regret that I had not seen Inspector Roscoe's paper before these meetings, and that I am therefore not prepared to deal with the subject in a manner worthy of this occasion. The subject of Teachers' Institutes is one of great practical importance in view of the fact that so large a proportion of the teachers throughout the Province have not received a Normal training, and that so many of them are comparatively inexperienced. Under existing regulations these Institutes are designed to promote the efficiency of the teaching service. So

far as my personal knowledge is concerned, I may say that the meetings of the Institute held annually for the past sixteen years in Inspectoral District No. 4 have been productive of much good, not only in diffusing among the inexperienced more correct ideas in regard to imparting instruction, but also in establishing an *esprit de corps* in the profession which did not exist before. Many teachers however, whom the Institute was especially intended to benefit did not attend the meetings—partly from indifference and partly for other reasons which might be mentioned. If all teachers had attended these meetings far greater benefits would have resulted. I agree with Inspector Roscoe in thinking that an inspectoral district is too large a territory, and two days too short a time for the meetings of a local Institute if the attendance of all teachers be made compulsory.

I indorse the scheme outlined in the paper to which we have just listened, and believe that if something were done on the lines suggested, an incalculable amount of benefit would accrue therefrom. If this scheme be adopted and the best results are to be expected, a specialist should be employed in conducting Institutes, and the attendance of teachers should, within reasonable limits, be made compulsory as suggested. A portion of the educational grant could be profitably

L. S. Morse, M. A., Inspector of Schools, Digby.

employed in the manner indicated. If, however, the Council of Public Instruction should not feel disposed to adopt the scheme suggested, a revision of existing regulations could profitably be made whereby a larger attendance at the district Institutes—especially of untrained and inexperienced teachers—could be secured, and better results attained than have been reached in the past.

I regret, Mr. President, that for the reasons before stated I have no written paper prepared for this occasion, and I must ask the indulgence of the Association on that account. The subject has been so ably treated by Inspector Roscoe that but little further need be added, and on that account I will, with these few remarks, give place to any others who may wish to discuss the subject further.

PRINCIPAL KENNEDY of the Halifax Academy :—The paper just read is exceedingly practical, and contains suggestions which if carried into effect would inevitably result in much good. No matter how large and well-appointed a school building may be, no matter how well supplied with apparatus and all facilities for work, no matter even how interested and sympathetic the local public may be, *it is the teacher that makes the school.* I would urge the formation of a comparatively large number of district Institutes in each Inspectorate, at which papers would be read and discussed, round table informal talks held, and lessons in different subjects given to classes of pupils. At these institutes let some of the very poorest teachers in the district be made to take part, and let the subject assigned them be the very one of their greatest weakness, or one closely related to it. They will thus be set thinking upon a matter which they have by no means mastered ; they will be brought face to face with some of their very serious defects ; they may be set thinking to some purpose ; and if they are, the probability is that they will either improve or do the next best thing—leave the profession.

I would further suggest, that when an Inspector is about to visit a settlement where there are two or more sections, or a village where there are two or more teachers, a public educational meeting be announced to be held in the most central and suitable place. At this meeting each teacher would either speak or read a short paper on a subject assigned by the Inspector or chosen by the teacher with the Inspector's approval, and the Inspector would have a grand opportunity of giving practical suggestions to both teachers and parents and of doing much to the people, and to aid and popularize the claims of education in the settlement.

Mr. Kennedy then moved the following resolution, which was seconded by Miss Graham :—

*Resolved*, That this Association record its sympathy with the sentiments expressed in Inspector Roscoe's paper, and that we commend the matter of district or county Institutes to the earnest attention of any Inspectors who have not already established such.

INSPECTOR CRAIG :—If we are really progressive and ambitious in our educational work we have been repaid for our trouble in attending this Association by having the privilege of listening to the paper so ably presented by our excellent friend Inspector Roscoe.

The value of teachers' Institutes can no longer be questioned and it is surprising to me that in so many districts of this Province none have been established. They have become one of the permanent Institutions of Cumberland and Colchester, and so impressed are the teachers with their usefulness that I know one would be held yearly did the executive head will it or not.

Mr. Chairman, a Provincial Association is of secondary importance to these. Of course each has its distinctive field of operation, but in our local institutes teachers are able to commune with teachers ; to became acquainted ; to learn that they are a power in the land for greatest good. Mr. Roscoe's recommendations are not along the lines on which Institutes have hitherto been conducted, indeed, I have with him recognized that some change was necessary in their management that the greatest good might accrue from them.

Last year we enlisted into the service of our Institute much new talent by a departure from the old stereotyped papers. Quotations from leading educationists were chosen as texts for five minute papers, which were not subject to discussion. Many young teachers, who on account of excessive modesty, could not express themselves at greater length, were emboldened sufficiently in this limitation of time to make the Institute much more interesting by their short pithy exercises.

Yet we need less theory and more practice ; this, I understand, is the idea Mr. Roscoe's paper intends to convey.

Over three years ago my very worthy predecessor, Principal Lay, carried out to

a successful issue many of the suggestions made by Mr. Roscoe. Ten or twelve convenient centres were selected for these meetings, and the average attendance was about twenty-five. Teachers of the ripest experience were selected to give lessons in those subjects most poorly presented in the school room. The plan worked admirably.

The idea is not to supersede the system of inspection but to supplement. The sectional wants must still be frequently and personally attended to.

Inspector Roscoe's happily conceived ideas are extended and carried out in the State of New York. There, state aid is given for the training of teachers' classes which are presided over by paid conductors; wilful failure on the part of a teacher to attend a teachers' institute is considered sufficient cause for the revocation of such a teachers' license.

PRINCIPAL LAY, of Amherst Academy:—In praising Inspector Roscoe's very thorough treatment of the subject of Institutes, G. J. Lay spoke as one who had some practical knowledge of the proposed plan. In the summer of 1891 he had divided District No. 10 into eleven sections, and at the most central point in those sections had met the teachers, twenty on an average, in each section.

These remained with the Inspector three days, during which time he and others gave instruction in some of the natural sciences. The work was carried on after the plan of the Summer School. Beginning at 9 o'clock, an hour would be spent in practical botany, an hour in music, and another hour at mineralogy. Those lessons were repeated in the afternoon; another was given on insects, and then a tramp to collect specimens. In the evening a public meeting would be held for the citizens and teachers, or for discussion of register, returns, &c. In botany, plants were analyzed and named; in mineralogy, blowpipe and acid tests used; in entomology, insects examined and described.

The plant, the insect, the mineral, in every case was in the hands of the students. So far as could be judged by the expression of the teachers themselves, the movement was popular, for every institute signed a unanimous request to the C. P. I. for its continuance.

Further, the Inspector was the proper person, nay, almost the only one who could carry out such a scheme as Inspector Roscoe had outlined, and he had no doubt that such assistance would be found in each district, among the teachers themselves, as would make the movement a success.

PRINCIPAL MCVICAR:—I am in full accord with the motion made by Principal Kennedy. With small districts as proposed, teachers could attend at little expense. Compulsory attendance might be salutary in its effects. Those who attended the present Institute regularly are no better able to afford it than those who remained at home, but are showing their willingness to make sacrifice for the sake of gaining professional knowledge. If specialists would not be forthcoming, I think that the work might well be done by the rank and file.

The inexperienced could learn better methods in watching the work done by their elders, while nothing would more stimulate the activity of the young teacher than preparation of work to be submitted to the sympathetic consideration of his fellows.

Miss Graham also spoke very strongly in favor of District Institutes as endorsed in the paper.

There was some further discussion by Mr. Andrews, Principal McArthur, of Pictou, and Principal McLeod, of Kentville.

The discussion was closed by Inspector Roscoe, after which the resolution passed unanimously.

# CORRELATION.

By J. B. Hall. Ph. D., Normal School.

The general interest manifested by teachers in practical school work is an assurance that improved methods and more scientific principles of teaching will prevail.

This practical interest indicated by those who have in charge the training of the children of this country gives peculiar character to the work of education at the present time, and a bright and hopeful outlook for the future.

The recent educational reports, discussions and reviews, have treated every phase of educational work. From these educational movements important results must ultimately follow, in a broader and more enriched educational literature, a deeper interest in the practical work of the teacher, and finally the investigation, testing and acceptance of more scientific educational principles.

This quickened interest has already manifested itself on both continents. The reports of the Committees of Ten and Fifteen have crystallzed this educational movement in America.

The Elementary Education Act of 1871 has given an impetus to common school education in England, which has been moving forward with accumulating force to the present time. The continental countries have given character and direction to the movement by their devotion to the study and practice of scientific pedagogy. Any real advance in educational work must include a more careful study of the child, and the means to be employed for its highest and best development. The results that come from the acceptance of any educational principle will be conditioned by a natural hostility to new ideas and by local educational experiences.

The people are the product of text-book learning and they are influenced by their early training.

An educational principle sufficiently broad to meet the needs of the present must aid the teacher in answering the questions that arise concerning: the child and its environments; the subject matter of instruction; and the *end* and *aim* of education. These three important and practical questions have been but partially answered, and any system of education that promises a solution of them should receive the cordial support of every friend of education.

Every century has thrown some light on these questions, but it has been reserved to the 19th to find a comparative solution of them in the practice and principles of Pestalozzi, Frœbel, Herbart and his followers.

The educational principles of Pestalozzi and Frœbel have exercised a sweet and beneficent influence on primary education throughout the civilized world.

It is, however, to Herbart and his system that your attention is invited for a few moments.

Herbart was born at Oldenburg in 1776. His written works embodied his views on the following subjects: viz, Metaphysics, Philosophy, Ethics, Psychology, and Pedagogy.

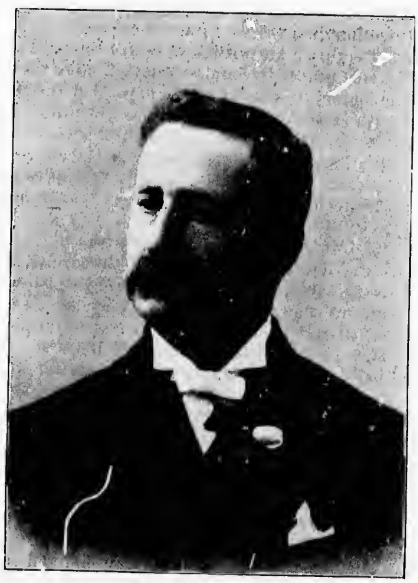
The relation of the pedagogical principles of Herbart to those of Pestalozzi and his contemporaries is well expressed by the Hon. W. T. Harris, as follows :—

"The progress of Education is in a zigzag line from extreme to extreme.

"This appears throughout all history; at one time the schools tended almost exclusively to memory-culture, with very little attempt at verification by original research and observation. But Pestalozzi exploded the theory on which this idea rests and substituted another.

"He laid stress on sense-perception, verification, and original research.

"But while this reform is progressing towards its extreme, another tendency has begun within a few years, and it promises to force a new departure on our zigzag line.



J. B. Hall, Ph. D., Normal School.

"This is the doctrine of Herbart, which holds that it is not so much sense-perception that is wanted, as apperception. The Herbartian trend on our zigzag of progress, helps to re-enforce sense-perception by the memory, through the use of the causal series of ideas.

"It therefore combines the two former trends in a higher."

It is evident that previous educators left the following work for Herbart to do :—

1. The development of a psychology that would have an immediate bearing on the problems of teaching, and the application of this psychology to Education.

This work having been accomplished, it became necessary that more attention should be devoted to the order and relation of the subject matter of instruction in the course of study.

This is necessary in order: first, that the principle of apperception might be put into practice in teaching: and second, to prevent duplication of subject, to

eliminate non-essentials, to save time and labor, and finally to develop the best possible character in the child.

The study of psychology and the observation of the child have proved pretty conclusively, that the principle of apperception, or the reception of new ideas by those already present in consciousness, is a sound pedagogical principle.

According to this principle, the teacher offers to the child that knowledge for whose thorough assimilation, the most favorable conditions are presented. If this subject matter is presented in its proper relation it will be so arranged that the vital relation existing between the different parts of the same subject or between the different subjects will be clearly indicated.

This idea of unity in the material of study is as old as teaching.

Many of the old philosophers were pronounced in their views concerning the unitary character of nature.

Comenius, over three hundred years ago, was constantly seeking after a unity in education which should embrace knowledge of every kind. He says: "We see that the branches of a tree cannot live unless they all alike suck their juices from a common trunk with common roots. Can we hope that the branches of wisdom can be torn asunder with safety to their life, that is to truth?"

Again he says: "My aim is to shew, although this is not generally attended to, that the roots of all sciences and arts in every instance arise as early as in the tender age, and that on these foundations it is neither impossible nor difficult for the whole superstructure to be laid; provided always that we act reasonably with a reasonable creature."

Pestalozzi said: "Education then must consist in a continued benevolent superintendence, with the object of calling forth all the faculties which Providence has implanted, and its province, thus enlarged, will yet be with less difficulty surveyed from one point of view, and will have more of a systematic and truly philosophical character, than an incoherent mass of lessons, arranged without unity of principle, and gone through without interest, which too often usurps its name."

Frœbel was dissatisfied with the disconnected character of Common School Education. His desire was to introduce unity into it.

He said: "There must be in the impressions given the child by instruction, a regular gradation, and the beginning and progress of this knowledge must exactly correspond with the beginning and increase of the powers as they developed."

Again he says: "The continued sinning against this truth (i. e., unity) is the chief cause of antagonism and contention, and causes mistakes and failures in education."

Dr. Harris says: Frœbel's great word is inner-connection.

He continues: "This exists first, in the pupil's mind and those objects he has to study (his environment); secondly, there is an inner-connection in these objects (and subjects) among themselves, which determine the order in which they shall be studied."

Finally Dr. Parker says: "The doctrine of concentration will serve intelligently to suggest, guide and control study on the part of teachers."

Many teachers are very anxious to study—indeed do study persistently—but very much of such study is groping in the dark, is blind, but honest stumbling.

The theory of concentration presents a distinct plan for economical study on the part of teachers, and at the same time demands increased and progressive movement.

It proves conclusively the absolute necessity of knowing the central subjects and their auxiliaries thoroughly, and it proves also that the teacher should have masterly skill in the modes of expression.

The realization of the ideal, you say, is an utter impossibility.

Certainly, for us, the victories of quantity teaching; but the thing to do, the thing that must be done, if we are true to our sacred work, is to move steadily and unfalteringly towards the ideal, along the infinite line of unrealized possibili-

ties. I firmly believe that the theory of concentration throws a strong light along the "path of progress," and although in that light difficulties stand out clear and distinct, difficulties multiplied do not produce doubt: "to know is to conquer." Indeed, many have striven to unify the subjects in the common school course of study, and proportions of these have succeeded admirably in this very beneficent and worthy work.

The necessity and desire on the part of the teacher to unify the school subjects have increased as the number of subjects have multiplied in the Common School Course.

Teachers have been unable to present the whole list of subjects in a proper manner, and the child has often been confused and discouraged by the presentation of so many disconnected subjects.

Under these conditions superficiality and pride have in part usurped the place of the solid training, retentive memory, sound judgment and solidity of character that marked the student of a few subjects.

The teacher needs to keep the fact constantly before him that the mind is essentially a unit and that it develops as one whole.

To adapt the material of study to this inner unitary development is the first and great problem of the educator.

The study of pedagogy has demonstrated that all the branches comprised in a common school course may be divided into two distinct and well defined classes—the natural complements of one whole—thought-studies and form-studies.

Thought-studies deal with the subject matter of the course, the child and its environment, geography, history, literature and the natural sciences. Form-studies treat of the mode or form of expression This simple classification of the studies in the common school course reduces the difficulty of applying the principle of correlation to the preservation of the proper relation between thought and expression.

All the subject matter should be presented to the child in its relation, and be arranged with respect to his present information, as well as that which he will aequire.

The material of study begun in the home should be continued, enriched and unified in the schools. These home subjects consist of the beginnings of knowledge, in language, moral and religious instruction, domestic and social organizations, changes in climate, food, clothing, shelter, commercial and industrial ideas, vegetable and animal life. Indeed the home forms a world of it own. These home subjects develop a many-sided interest in the child, and therefore become the centre or arc of study around or to which the others naturally adjust themselves.

This course of study, properly presented to the child, will arouse and sustain an interest in the work and render educative instruction possible.

Under these normal conditions the child is a questioner, an investigator. He examines and tests everything within his reach and is therefore in full sympathy with his work—in learning

Among the various home-studies elementary geography holds an important place, on account of its human side or nearness to the child, and its relation to, or source of relative subjects. In the study of geography, the child should have an opportunity, of seeing the objects of study with *his own eyes*, of handling them with his own hands, and of expressing the ideas received in his own words.

Closely related to or arising out of this central subject, are the following: soil, climate, vegetation, animal life, food, clothing, shelter, industries, commerce and the various phases of social life.

The home subjects present material suitable for exercises in reading, language, history, literature, drawing and music.

The value of expression is much increased, by the use of subject-matter that is corrected, and apperceived by the child.

If the child properly apperceives the new material, the words become a symbol of thought, an outward sign with an inner meaning.

An oral or written review of a lesson, a description of a picture or object, or the narration of events observed by the child afford excellent material for language lessons or other forms of thought expression.

Every sentence oral or written should be charged with thought, and from such exercises there is an easy and natural transition to the study of short selections of choice literature.

Practical exercises suited to develop the idea of number, form, and direction will be easily developed in connection with the study of the central subjects.

By the use of this connected material, the child is enabled to advance naturally and gradually in its study; its perceptive powers will be properly developed; its interest sustained; its judgment and imagination strengthened; its powers to retain and recall its knowledge increased; and the value of its information will thus be enhanced.

The necessity of greater unity in the subject-matter of instruction is generally recognized, and this principle is receiving very general recognition in the best schools at the present time.

Educators are studying the child with the view of more fully understanding its needs, and more intelligently supplying them.

There are many difficulties to be overcome before "correlation" becomes a practical working principle suited to the needs of every school, but by patience, industry, and a noble purpose greater difficulties have been and still may be overcome.

Every teacher needs the inspiration that comes from a sincere desire to improve his work and to avoid educational mechanism and paralysis.

A study of the theory of Correlation will furnish this inspiration.

The practice school at Jena, which adopts Herbart's principles and Tiller's practice, occupies a central position in the educational world, from which light will be radiated that will illuminate every school and brighten the life of every teacher and pupil in our land.

In closing, allow me to quote briefly from Dr. Klemm. He says of Dr. Fick, the foremost leader of the Herbartian principle:

"I spent several days in this 'city within a city,' and more than once sat in speechless admiration at the manner of teaching and the results I witnessed. When I noticed the absence of that rigorous discipline under which many schools suffer, when I saw the children converse with the teacher as though speaking with a friend, when I saw them working with their hands and giving an intelligible expression of what they had seen, heard and experienced; when I noticed that they learned as though by means of play, I felt as though the millenium was near at hand; and again, when I considered that after all this band of teachers was in the most hopeless minority, that there may be an approximation to this kind of procedure, but never a perfect imitation of it in the vast majority of teachers in the world; that, after all, this was a mere oasis in the desert, I seemed to feel the millenium recede."

Discussion :—Principal McVicar said it would be impossible in the time at his disposal to more than hint at the many excellent points in the paper presented for consideration. Instead of attempting to speak to any of these, he would mention the impression which the paper as a whole made upon him. This was the need of thoroughness on the part of those who might attempt to carry out in practice the principles enunciated. Certainly, no slip-shod method would suffice, when in presenting a subject before a class, there needed to be united with it other subjects, few or many, bearing upon it or allied with it in various ways. Such teaching required intimate acquaintance with each individual subject in all its relations. Otherwise, how could the instructor hope to be able to summon at the

proper time the proper correlations in fitting order? Teachers then should become familiar with their subjects, hold them up in various lights and inspect them from different points of view, to gain that comprehension that would enable them to fully understand what the subject was and the place it held in the class to which it belonged.

W. M. McVicar, A. M., Annapolis Academy.

Miss J. A. Hamilton thought concentration to be one of the most important subjects of educational study. If it were properly and generally understood there would no longer be any trouble about cram and over-crowded courses of study. She had seen it carried out at the Cook County Normal School under Col. Parker and it more than realized all that was claimed for it.

By permission of the meeting Miss Margaret Graham, of Central Economy, was allowed to read the following paper.

On Woman's Right to Vote at School Meetings:—

Reformers in general, and women in particular, are accused of being very theoretical. "Your beautiful theories are all very well," we are told, "but we want facts, plain, solid facts." Now in regard to establishing a truer relationship between the public school and the home, I shall bring before you no cut and dried theories to which I ask your assent, but I shall present a few facts that speak for themselves. A few years ago I taught in a section only a few miles from Truro where lived a family who, owing to the illness of the father, were very poor. With the aid of one or two kind-hearted mothers I succeeded in getting two of the children, a girl of 13 years and a boy of 11, to attend school a short time. Thinking that the rising generation of Nova Scotia were being properly educated, I spent some time in teaching Hindoos to read and write English. Last week I returned to this section and found that in this same family there are four boys, between the ages of 6 and 18, who can neither read nor write. The girl already referred to never attended school after I left and is now—poor child—an ignorant wife, nineteen years of age. Yet these four boys can, by their united

votes, help to send a man to Ottawa or Halifax to represent the people of Colchester, while the intelligent mothers of our land who *can* read a newspaper—tho' they may find it necessary to ask their husbands to explain the profound (?) editorials in our Canadian papers—have not the right to vote at school meetings! If the mothers in the section referred to shared with men the responsibility of attending the annual school meeting and voting at least in the selection of trustees, would they not have known (what few, if any, seemed to know) that there was such a law as the Compulsory Education Act?

But 'tis not for the sake of the poor classes that I would like to see women represented on our school boards, but 'twould be for the benefit of every boy and girl attending our public schools.

That it would be for the better were our schools more homelike no one will dispute, how then shall we give mothers a deeper interest in the school? True, individuals here and there may do much to improve school rooms, surroundings, etc.,

Miss M. Graham.

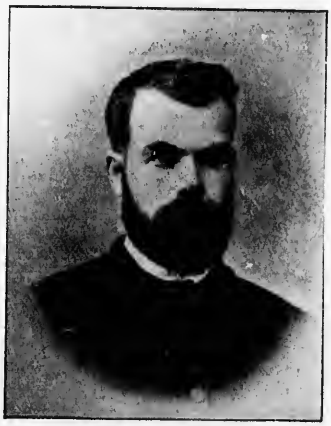
but institutional wrongs can never be righted by individual reform—though moral reforms can—and to my mind it *is* an institutional wrong that women should not vote on all that pertains to the educational welfare of their children, and it can be righted by amending section 44 of the Revised Statutes, "Of Public Instruction," so as to include women. True, the few women who as ratepayers already have the right to vote at the annual school meeting do not perform the corresponding *duty* which this *right* brings, but only a very small number of women are thus enfranchised, and they are those who have no children, or widows whose children are perhaps grown up. The section of our school law referred to deals, of course, only with schools outside of the city of Halifax and incorporated towns, but it would be an easy matter to appoint women on the latter school boards without waiting until women serve as aldermen and councillors. This is not a political question, as the poll tax is levied solely for school purposes, and we are not trying to enter even the thin edge of the wedge in the direction of women suffrage. As I have already said I have no cut and dried theories to support. I merely suggest

this as being to my mind an easy way of throwing more responsibility upon the mothers of our province in regard to school duties. If any teacher has anything better to suggest I shall be glad to hear it and will gladly aid any movement to increase the general interest in our schools. Let us educate our pupils as *citizens*, and if our law-makers refuse to make the ability to read and write a test of a man's fitness to vote, let us as educationists see that all future citizens cannot only read but take an intelligent interest in their country and government

The following resolution was moved by Insp. Craig and Principal Miller:

Believing that a closer relationship between home and school is desirable, and that much good will result from having the mothers of our public school children take a more active interest in the school, this association endorse every effort made to amend section 44 of the statutes of public instruction, by adding the words "and female."

Discussion.—Principal McLeod, Kentville Academy:—Women are all right where they are. Their sphere is the home, and if they do faithful work there, it will not be necessary for them to take an active part in affairs outside the home. We have it on record where woman's influence over man, when on an equality with him, resulted far from satisfactorily. Do not want to see the like repeated?



A. McLeod, Kentville Academy.

Mr. Andrews said he thought women took a deep interest in teachers now, as was often evinced when a child was punished.

Principal Kennedy said that women had the power now, and if they desired to pay a poll tax he was thoroughly in favor of it. They were going to run the civic machine anyway, and it was just as well to stand out of the road.

On the vote for the resolution 23 voted for and 28 against, and it was declared lost.

# MANUAL TRAINING.

By Mr. Nelson H. Gardner, Halifax Academy.

In speaking to day of manual training I wish first to present the cause or causes for the introduction of the manual element into general education: then to trace briefly the origin and growth of this element up to the present; and finally to consider Manual Training as a feature in general education. Let me then at first try to present the cause or causes for the introduction of the manual element into general education.

*Cause or Causes for.*—The leading cause undoubtedly is the vast difference between the ideal man of the present and that of the past. Education has ever had one general aim to produce the ideal man of the age. Hence as ideals have differed in the different ages so too have the systems of education. Roman culture aimed to produce the orator, the poet and the warrior.

The training of the "Age of Chivalry" aimed to produce the *knight*. As the ideal Roman differed much from the ideal knight, so too did their systems of training differ. Then too, we may note the marked difference between the educational methods in the days of chivalry and those of the sixteenth and seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. The invention of printing had brought into Europe vast stores of ancient literature. The *scholar* replaced the *knight* as the ideal man. The pen replaced the sword and lance. Education became then wholly literary. The ancient classics became the language of the courts and schools.

Now since such marked changes in educational systems have taken place in the past, changes demanded by the standard set up, changes due to the ideal aimed at, certainly we must expect that, in this nineteenth century, this century preëminently marked as the age of scientific research and invention, a new ideal will be set up, and consequently, that new methods of training will be required.

This we claim is what has actually taken place. A new ideal has been set up. A new system of education or rather an enlargement of the old system has been found necessary to produce that ideal. Consequently we have what is known today as the *New Education;* a system of education that has added to the purely intellectual training that also of the hand and eye, as acquired through the performing of numerous experiments in *Applied Science;* and the manipulation of tools together with a variety of drawing in *Manual Training.*

Other, though minor causes leading to this *new movement* were the demands for skilled laborers among the leading industrial peoples of the day, and the inability of the old system to meet these demands. But this brings me to my second topic.

*The Origin and Growth.*—As early as the latter part of the eighteenth century the Russian government in order to cheapen the cost of production of manufactured goods as well as to improve their quality, established trade schools. Later on such schools were founded in France and Belgium; while during the past thirty

years hundreds of them have been established throughout Europe. Not only have these schools greatly improved the manufacturing interests of the people, but they have also given birth to new educational ideas that have now spread over the entire civilized world. However, such schools, though well adapted to secure the object aimed at in their establishment, are by no means suited for the purposes of general education. They are far too narrowing in their influence for this, the pupil being kept to one trade.

*Broader Lines of Development.*—For the development of manual training along broader lines, we must turn our eyes from Europe to America. In the neighbouring republic, in 1865, a free institute for the youth of Worcester County, Mass., was founded by John Boynton, Esq., who gave for its endowment and support the sum of $100,000. His aim was "to instruct the youth (of Worcester Co., Mass.) in those branches of education not usually taught in the public schools, and which are essential and best adapted to train the youth for practical life."

Nelson H. Gardner, Manual Training School, Halifax.

The next year, to further this object, Mr. Washburn gave $75,000 to erect, equip and endow a machine shop to accommodate twenty apprentices and a suitable number of skilled workmen to instruct them. This shop, however, was carried on as a commercial establishment. Its pupils were limited to those in the course of mechanical engineering, and were over sixteen years old.

*The Russian System.*—However, in 1876, at the Philadelphia Exposition, the Russian method of class instruction in the use of tools was exhibited. This method had been introduced into the Imperial Technical School at Moscow in 1868 by Victor Della-Vos. At that school, however, the students were all to be engineers and were over eighteen years old.

Della-Vos, recognizing that the parts of a complicated construction are for the most part quite simple, abstracted the parts from the whole and then arranged the principles of their construction into a series of graded exercises suitable for class instruction. This method opened the way clearly for the introduction of tool instruction into general education.

*First Manual Training School.*—In 1880 the first manual training school was opened at St. Louis. Pupils were admitted at fourteen years of age. The instruction given was very liberal. The course embraced mathematics, drawing and the English branches of a high school course, along with instruction and practice in the use of tools. The time of the students was divided about equally between their mental and manual exercises. The success of this school was very marked. From a beginning with one class of about fifty pupils, in 1880, the attendance had reached two hundred by 1883. The growth of manual training since, as shown by the establishment of similar schools throughout the United States, has been most remarkable.

Chicago opened a manual training school in 1884. The Scott Manual Training School was organized as a part of the high school of Toledo the same year. Since 1884 many of the high schools of American cities have opened manual training departments, while in our own province we have one well equipped manual training school at Wolfville, a shop for wood-work in connection with our high school at Halifax, and another similar shop at the Normal School, Truro.

Having thus briefly given the origin and growth of manual training, let us consider it as a feature in

*General Education.*—I previously mentioned the new education, stating that it had added to the old, two very important branches, one, the natural sciences, the other, manual training. We thus see that the new education does not destroy the old; there is no tearing down but rather a building up. The old was very good so far as it went, but it did not go far enough. Being wholly literary it narrowed the views of its students to the facts of literature. In its schools one was too much occupied with the imaginary; too much given to memorizing; to the study of words, and the forms of language; such training, is inadequate to fit one for active callings. It may do for those who are going to choose some of the so-called learned professions, but for nine-tenths of the pupils in our schools such training is not suited. Nine-tenths or even more of our common school pupils must follow some of the commonly-called lower walks of life; must be manual laborers; must fill some of those positions in which their hands shall have to handle other implements than pens and pencils. Such being the case, modern education has come to the help of this larger class of pupils in that it aims to train the hand, the eye, and the intellect simultaneously.

*(Wise Heads and Skilful Hands).*—The results of such training will be youths possessing wise heads and skilful hands. In these days of industrial activity men require more than trained intellects. Years ago, before science had opened up her vast store house; in the days when steam and electricity were unknown, few received an education, and they were of the nobility and gentry. The literary training was well enough then. But in these days of free schools when *all* children must be educated, a purely literary culture is inadequate. Farmers, machinists, carpenters, shipbuilders, etc., who some years ago were thought to need little training beyond what they acquired in apprenticeship, must now, if they would fill positions of honor and profit in their callings receive no inconsiderable training, both literary and scientific; must be able to intelligently and skilfully manipulate tools as well as to clearly express themselves in language. Carlyle has defined man "as a tool-using animal." If this definition of man be a good one then surely some of the time of one's early training should be given to instruction in the use of tools.

Let us now consider the:—

*Intellectual Value* of tool instruction and drawing as given in the manual training school. That the training has unusual attractiveness for boys we have marked proof in all the manual training schools. In our school at Halifax I have noted how that boys from schools a mile or more away—privileged to have *two* hours

a week at manual training hurry to the school. I have also noted several cases where boys who were kept home from their other classes in the early part of the day, have voluntarily come to manual training at 11 o'clock. Once in the room most of them don their aprons and before the gong sounds are eagerly asking for their next task, or if they have an unfinished one are working over it. Does any one ask,—What are they doing? I answer they are using their *brains* and eyes and hands. Yes, there is training for the intellect here as well as for the eye and hand. Here boys learn the nature of many materials. Here they get good intellectual definitions of many technical terms. Where can they better learn the meanings of such words as "grind," "mortise," "chamfer," "bore," as well as "knotty," "rough," "hard," soft, and the like. Then, too, every exercise if properly conducted is both mental and manual

Supt. Seaver of Boston Says:—"Manual training is essential to the right and full development of the human mind, and therefore no less beneficial to those who are not going to become artisans than to those that are." The workshop method of instruction is of great educational value, for it brings the learner face to face with the facts of nature; his mind increases in knowledge by direct personal experience with forms of matter and manifestations of force. No mere words intervene. The manual exercises of the shop train mental power rather than load the memory; they fill the mind with the solid merchandise of knowledge, and not with its empty packing cases." Thus we see that manual training trains not the hand and the eye only but also the intellect. It aims to develop—mentally, physically, and morally.

*Moral Influence.*—Let us now consider the moral effect of manual training. The habit of precision, of giving strict attention to details, formed and fostered in this training, is of inestimable value. In other school work an error can usually quite easily be rectified, so that the pupil partly at least fails to see the prime importance of accuracy. But in the exercises of manual training a mistake cannot be rectified, so that the exercise to be correct must be begun again upon entirely new material. This has the desired effect. The habit of accuracy is readily formed as its importance is forcibly felt. Then, too, in the manual training, honesty and self-reliance are fostered more than in other school work. All teachers have had more or less experience with pupils who were prone to copy another's work and to pass it off as their own. Thus the habits of dishonesty and dependence are sometimes so fostered as to cling to students even in their college days, yes, and to the end of life. In the manual exercises, however, there is far less opportunity for such dishonesty and dependence. A pupil cannot possibly copy another's work. He must either do the work himself, or get another to do it. This is quite impossible. Then, too, the fact that the time of those boys who take manual training is more fully occupied than the time of those who do not, has its good moral effect. Boys who take manual training very soon interest themselves in some manual work at home. Such boys, busy with a boat, or sled, or kite, or some other piece of construction, are far less liable to be into mischief when out of school than those who have no such *fascinating* work. Boys thus occupied will also be kept from many temptations to wrong doing into which other boys fall.

Another moral good springing from manual training is *self-respect*, and respect for honest, intelligent labour. Our boys who receive no manual training are too liable to see only drudgery in manual labor. They are inclined to look down upon those who construct our engines, build our bridges, etc., as men of little culture. Give these boys manual training and these prejudicial notions leave them forever. Once having acquired some skill themselves in the use of tools they will be ready to recognize skill in others. Consequently they will learn to respect those who possess skill in any mechanic art.

Undoubtedly, too, manual training will have a wholesome influence over the troubles between labor and capital.

*Industrial Value.*—As for the industrial value of manual training, no one can doubt that our natural industries will be fostered and that our citizens will be benefited financially once the new element is well introduced into our schools. However, the industrial and economic are merely secondary objects of manual training; its first object being, as I have said before, educational.

Having now pointed out some of the educational values of manual training I wish to speak briefly of manual training in our common schools. I do not wish to say anything against our common schools. They are the choicest gems in our educational system, the nurseries of our high schools, colleges and universities. They have done our country much excellent service in the past and are now doing more excellent service; yet I believe that when manual training becomes one of the obligatory parts of our common school instruction they will do us far greater service. It seems quite apparent that too much of our common school life is devoted to purely literary instruction. We spend too much time in memorizing what is given us in texts as facts, and far too little in investigation, in original research for truth. The laboratories in our colleges furnish their students opportunities for this best of all means of intellectual development. Here they are placed face to face with materials, forces, etc. Here, better than anywhere else, they are trained *to think, to reason, to draw comparisons*, to observe. But in our common schools we have no laboratories, while beyond the kindergarten, manual training occupies little or none of the time given to school work except that given to drawing. Most teachers now feel the need of some tool-instruction in our common schools along with the drawing and the literary training. Yet just how to accomplish this is a problem that under present circumstances quite defies solution. However, when our teachers have received more or less manual training, and our school commissioners, and others interested in the training of youth, see the good results following manual training in other countries, then ways will quite readily be found for giving all grades some manual training beyond that of drawing and writing. In the lower grades but few tools and appliances will be needed. But when pupils have reached the age of ten they should have access to well equipped departments for industrial training. The boys should have an hour at least each day in a workshop, under a trained instructor, while the girls should receive as much training in sewing, cooking, and other domestic duties. The time thus spent would not lessen the pupils' chances for success in their literary pursuits, but rather increase them. For it is found that pupils taking manual training simultaneously with the literary make greater intellectual advancement than those devoting their whole time to the ordinary school subjects.

Scholars have hands and eyes as well as intellects that need careful training if they are to be of much use in the busy world. Why not train the three simultaneously? This is the object of manual training. It does not narrow down a pupil's views but widens them; opens up to them new channels of usefulness and activity from which they may choose their life's work.

Then, too, there is a time when the literary, as a means of training, loses its charm. How many of us have been wearied by purely literary tasks given by teachers who knew nothing of the methods of Frœbel and Pestalozzi! What a pleasure it would have been to have had an hour examining objects, or whittling out a penholder, or doing something, with real things instead of with imaginary ones. I remember when a boy of nine that some of my training was so distasteful to me that, rather than go to school, I would spend my time anywhere, even under a lumber pile by the roadside, and run the risk of a whipping at home beside.

I early disliked memorizing, and attributed my distaste for school partly at least to the early lessons in pure memory, without an object lesson to lighten them. To this source much of the truancy in our common schools may be traced.

For boys who have no great absorbing interest in words, speeches, etc., as found in books, the manual training school opens new avenues and gives them an opportunity to develop other powers that they possess in far greater measure than

that class of boys who delight in the purely word-study. Boys who sometimes are called blockheads in the common schools are found possessed with no mean ability when given a chance in good manual training schools. Boys of this class should be given an apportunity for development along lines as congenial to them as books are to the other class. This opportunity would be given them were manual training a part of their ordinary school work, while as has been shown in a former part of my paper, even those boys who *do* get somewhat interested in the common school subjects will profit much by a *(simultaneous)* course combining the literary and the manual elements.

While, as I have said, the time is yet somewhat distant when manual training in a broad sense can be given in all of our common schools, yet we believe every teacher in these schools would make the school work more interesting did he but utilize to some extent the *incidental* manual element in each day's work. Even pocket-knives called in use for something in ordinary class work have been known to awaken new interest in otherwise indifferent pupils. To what extent this incidental manual element should be utilized, and when, each teacher should decide for herself or himself. Sometimes bits of work might be given to be done at home. However, the training derived from such home work lacks many of the important qualities derived from work done in the class. We believe that, if such simple ways, even, were utilized to awaken interest, our teachers would find far fewer "incorrigible boys" than we now hear of in our common schools.

Discussion :—Lee Russell, B. Sc., Normal School, said that after so able and exhaustive an address as Mr. Gardner's there was little more to be said on the subject. As Mr. Gardner had dwelt largely upon the use of tools, the impression

Lee Russell, B. Sc., Normal School.

might be formed that carpentry or machine work was the only form of manual training. If, however, we look at the principles upon which such work is based, we shall find that its scope is much broader. The greatest emphasis is laid by all advocates of manual training upon the gaining of knowledge *at first hand*. It will be seen that this is true of any sort of laboratory or experimental work whatever.

Manual training proposes a scheme of general education which shall use this method to a large extent, depending upon books and lectures only in a less degree, where the limits of time or other exigencies prevent the actual experimentation.

One great value of manual training methods in the schools of this province is in putting the pupil in a new attitude toward all knowledge. The old idea is well shown by the course of a teacher of mineralogy, who calculated the number of pages of the text-book his class must cover at each lesson, and then required them to memorize the daily task. Within a radius of ten miles from the school house might have been found nearly all the important minerals treated of, and the method urged by believers in manual training would have been the collection and study of the specimens themselves.

The speaker also pointed out the fact that in the kindergarten we introduce the pupils to the very methods which are employed in manual training, and thereafter, during the whole course of education, give them only books and other second hand means of acquiring facts and experience.

That the educational authorities are working against this is shown by the use of text-books based on experiment, by the advocacy of drawing, modelling, and other sorts of original work. It is necessary that the teachers co-operate in this, or the plan will come to naught. Mr. Russell urged that the teachers try to take the manual training point of view, especially in the teaching of science, and thus to give their pupils the opportunity of doing for themselves.

Commissioner McKerron of Halifax said he thought the subject under discussion was of great importance. He was strongly in favor of it. He felt it would be a solution to the question of incorrigibles. He thought that every school house should have a plot where botany could be learned practically.

Principal McLeod:—Ladies should be taught something more useful than how to handle the saw or how to make fancy boxes. Much better to teach them how to use the needle and how to cook.

Professor Macdonald favored the substitution of sewing as one form of manual training for girls. In this respect Halifax and Dartmouth led the province at the late exhibition.

Miss Hamilton found the manual training exercises to be of great value to the pupils physically.

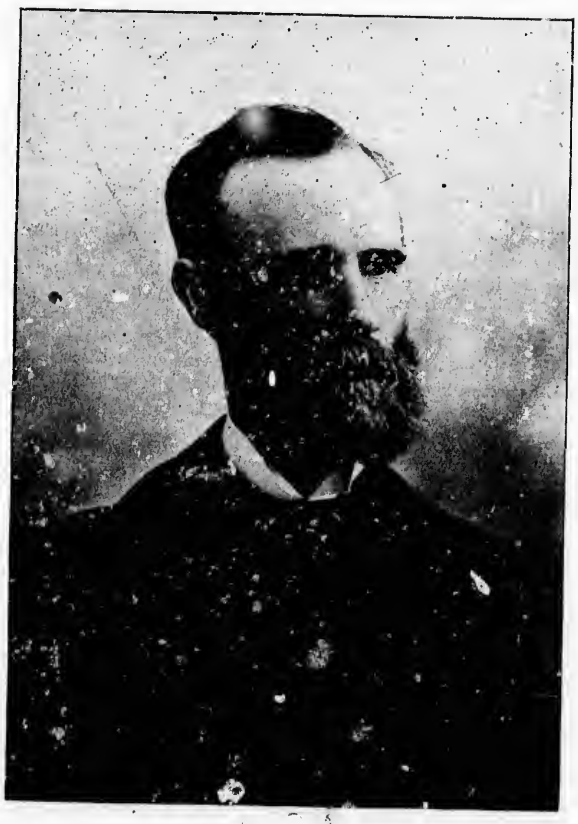
Principal Gardner said that in his manual training classes the girls were superior to the boys. They could sow, drive nails, or draw with more neatness and accuracy.

*3rd Session—WEDNESDAY.*

PUBLIC MEETING.

This session was held in the hall of the Young Men's Christian Association, Dr. Mackay, Superintendent of Education, presiding. On the platform were the Inspectors and Commissioners of Schools, Provincial Examiners, Normal School Professors and other ex-officeo members of the Association. The room was crowded.

After a few general remarks, Dr. MacKay introduced Rev. President Forrest, who first addressed the meeting.



REV. JOHN FORREST, D. D., PRESIDENT DALHOUSIE COLLEGE.

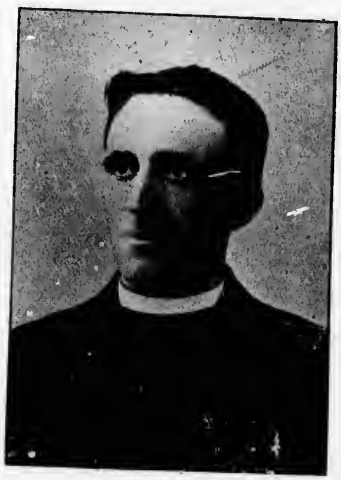
Mr. Chairman :—I esteem it a privilege to attend any educational meeting. I consider that all who are engaged in the noble work of teaching, whether in the University or the Kindergarten, are doing the same work ; and if true to their call-

ing must be interested in each other. When I hear of a teachers' convention in our province I always want to be there. I have been engaged in teaching ever since I was a boy and have worked from the kindergarten to the university. I remember well having attended one of the early conventions held in Windsor about thirty years ago. It was a mere handful when compared with the large assembly which I see before me. When I see here this great gathering of intelligent men and women who have come from all parts of the province to learn from each other how they may do their work better; when I see on the platform, the Hon. Provincial Secretary, the speaker of the House of Assembly, and this large gathering of representative men all deeply interested in this great work, I feel profoundly thankful for the progress that has been made during the past thirty years. It is just 32 years since our present school system was introduced. Most of us remember the condition of things which preceded it and have watched the progress of the work ever since. We remember the old school house cramped and confined, badly lighted, poorly heated, and wholly without ventilation, where one teacher laboured to impart instruction to a hundred pupils of all grades. Over worked and under paid no wonder men made the teaching profession a mere stepping stone to other callings and abandoned it the very first opportunity that offered. No wonder that they looked upon the taws as the only means of discipline and the only spur to progress. There were good teachers in those days, men and women who have left the impress of their work upon our province, but they worked at a terrible disadvantage and are worthy of great honour for their faithfulness and their endurance. I remember well when a boy listening to the late Dr. Forrester, who may be looked upon as the father and founder of our present school system, when he was lecturing through the Province endeavouring to rouse the people to a deeper interest in education. The picture he drew of the children of most of the schools so aroused the people and stirred their representatives in the Legislature that the present school law was the result. In the whole history of the Province I know of nothing more honorable than when the leader of the Government and the leader of the Opposition, forgetting their party difference united in placing on the statute book the School Law of 1864. This was the start and since that time the progress has been most encouraging. To day we have 2505 schools and 100555 pupils. We spend as a province $811,804 on education. We have a continually increasing number of well educated teachers who make teaching their life work and with the improvements in buildings, apparatus, and text books, they are every year securing better and better results. The students who come to our colleges are much better prepared so that the standard of higher education is steadily rising. I know that there are those in the community who say that there is too much education, that we are turning the young away from honorable labour and sending them into overcrowded professions. Such objections can only come from those who have never examined the statistics of labour. There are fewer educated unemployed in our land to-day than the unemployed of any other class. Too much education! That just means too much intelligence. True education generally does take men out of the ditches. Educated men and women are not content to be hewers of wood and drawers of water. Why should they be? There will always be drudges enough in the world, and if the time should ever come when general education will lift all men above these servile employments, then the intelligence of man will invent machines, and harnessing wind and water, steam and electricity to them will make human drudges no longer necessary.

It is a matter of great satisfaction to us all to see here on the platform with us the Premier of our Province and the Speaker of our House of Assembly, and to know that they take such a deep interest in our schools and teachers. It is just an indication of the fact that public education covers the most important matter entrusted to our government and legislature.

But we have not yet attained to perfection. The letters which have appeared in our newspapers during the past few weeks attacking what are considered defects

in our system show that on many points there is great difference of opinion among teachers themselves. I take this to be a most healthy sign. There can be no progress without difference of opinion and consequent discussion. With many of the recently published letters I have no sympathy, but it is well to hear what every one has to say. We are here as an association to discuss our work. We are all interested and all anxious to learn and improve. Let us speak our minds out with all frankness. If anything is wrong let us try and right it. If our methods of teaching, our system of examinations, our curriculum of studies, our text books are defective, let us hear freely from one and all and let us make an honest effort to improve them. We will not attain to perfection this year or this century, but a frank, free, brotherly expression of opinion cannot fail to do us all good. I look for great results from this convention. We have never had such an important gathering before. On many points we may differ, but we have one grand aim in view. We are a gathering of teachers, but we have come here to learn. Let us express our views, discuss our differences, hear all suggestions and weigh well all new views presented, and the whole Province will profit by this Convention of 1895.



Rev. Alph. B. Parker.

Rev. A. B. Parker spoke of the wonderful development of our country and of his hopes for its future. He represented the oldest civilization in Nova Scotia (the French), though not himself a Frenchman, yet he came there to plead for their interests. He spoke of the honest, simple lives of the Acadians He had great faith in the future of St. Ann's College. He was loyal to the English language, but one must not blame the Acadians for clinging to the tongue of their childhood and home, of their prayers and social life. They were as truly loyal as any people in this broad Dominion. They were seeing the necessity of learning English in order to better fit themselves for their duties of citizenship.

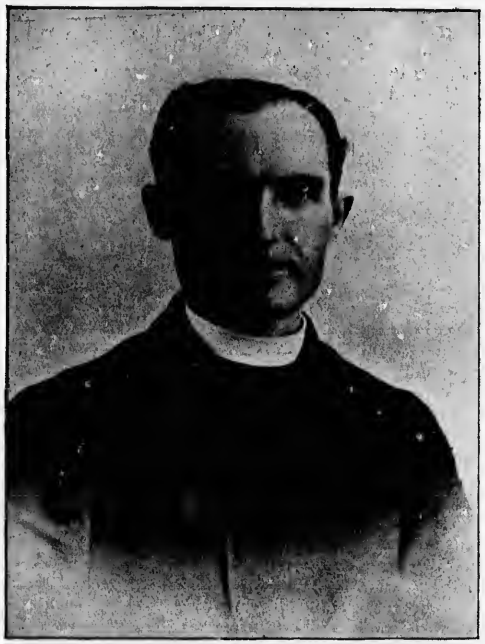
D. Allison, Ll. D., President Mt. Allison College.

Mr. Chairman :—It affords me great pleasure to renew to-night, even though temporarily and informally, my connection with the Educational Association of Nova Scotia. It is especially pleasant to present myself under your auspices, and to have an opportunity of publicly recognizing your wise direction of public education in this province, in adapting it to changing conditions and in making it as a system at once more symmetrical and more effective. And I can assure you, sir, that the sight of so many familiar faces, the sound of so many familiar voices, the general aspect and tone of familiarity about everything, excite a multitude of most pleasing recollections. It is very gratifying to find myself once more in the company of the distinguished Premier of the Province, and of so many former leading educators, with whom it was my honor to be associated in past years. Not less pleasing is it to recognize in the main body of your association faces

of so many well-known teachers, whose faithful and skilful labors attracted my attention and won my admiration in the past.—But, sir, the present suggests the absent. Many of those with whom I was wont to associate on such occasions as this are here to-night, but for some I look in vain. Among the missing I am sure I can mention one name without incurring the criticism of injustice to other worthy memories. You will perceive at once that I am referring to the late Inspector for Halifax, Mr. Hinkle Condon, who grew gray in the school service of this his native province. To me his absence is really the only noticeably strange feature about this meeting to night. There are probably but few here who have not some knowledge of the manner and spirit in which our departed friend performed his public duties. He has left behind him a record of earnest, unselfish and abundantly fruitful toil. No province ever had in its service a more faithful custodian of its interests and honor than Nova Scotia had in him. Those associated with him in official responsibility found in him a counsellor on whose judgment they learned to rely the more explicitly the more thoroughly the genuine simplicity and sincerity of his character were understood. The teachers with whom his official duties brought him into relationship were not more grateful for his wise counsels and suggestions than for the considerate kindness and sympathy that invariably characterized his intercourse with them. Personally, Mr. Condon was a genuinely good man, and his memory is one that deserves to be cherished. And now, Mr. Superintendent, let me congratulate you on the success of your Association's meeting so far, and on the prospect of good likely to be accomplished by it. I have listened with great interest to the speeches of the preceding speaker,—the plea for improved conditions of higher education available for the Acadian people of the province, advanced by the gentleman who has just sat down (Rev. Mr. Parker). Living, as I do, within a few miles of St. Joseph's College, Memramcook, I am in a position to bear testimony to the uplifting influence which a single institution of learning, wisely planted and efficiently conducted, may exert on the fortunes of an entire people. The college I have mentioned, designed particularly for the training in the arts and sciences of the Acadian youth of New Brunswick, has, as the result of its thirty years operations, completely changed the conditions and prospects under which aspiring young men of that nationality now address themselves to the struggles and competitions of life. Its educational facilities and inspirations put them on a par with their Saxon compeers and have opened up for them avenues to every post of influence and honor in the land. No one can look with indifference on any attempt to do for Nova Scotia what the late Dr. Le Febvre—a true benefactor of his race and country—so successfully accomplished for New Brunswick.

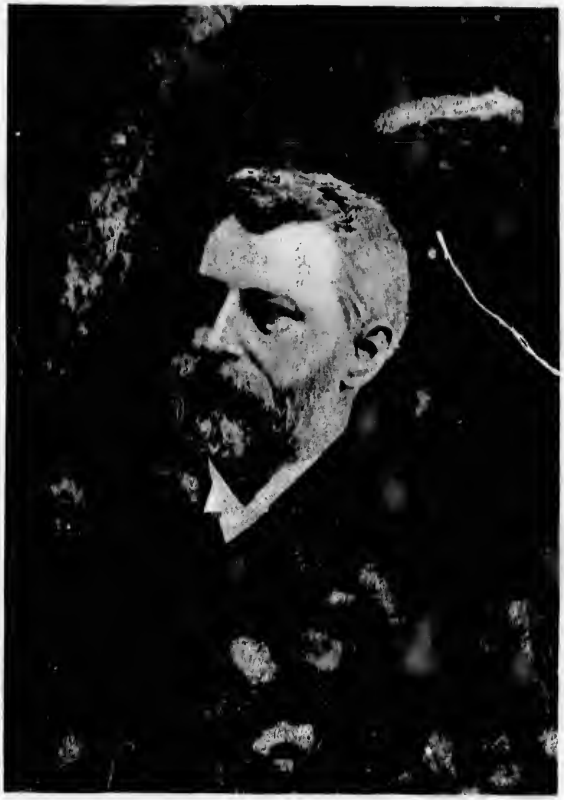
I will not be expected, Mr. Chairman, to abuse your kindness by attempting the discussion of any of the great educational problems that your Association has met, and is no doubt prepared to consider. At such gatherings as this there are certain questions which, in some shape or other, must always come to the front. The mere fact of organized public education under state control raises enquiries as to the grounds on which the state's authority to teach is based, and—which is of more practical concern—within what limits this teaching shall lie, and of what character it shall be. It is held by some, if not by many, that as self preservation is the true ground of state authority over teaching, such teaching should be confined to branches demonstrably sufficient for the end in view. These branches are assumed to be the simple and fundamental ones—reading, writing, and arithmetic, with possible subsequents such as history and geography. To go further is held to be one form of taxing the many for the benefit of the few. The obvious difficulty with this theory is the impossibility of drawing a clean, satisfactory line between primary or fundamental, and secondary or polite branches. The opposite (may I call it the *Nova Scotia*) theory claims that facilities for secondary education are as essential to national progress and safety as those for primary training, and that for either to be truly satisfactory and effective, both

appliances must exist together, But however liberally we may interpret the function of public education, the question of the most desirable curriculum, involving both the particular subjects of study and their proper correlation, must continually present itself. On this question and its implications it is vain to expect perfect unanimity. Many will sympathize with the views so ably presented by President Forrest in favor of greater concentration of effort and more thorough mastery of individual subjects. Others will hold possible such a collocation and sequence of studies as will best secure the ends of mental discipline and general culture with a large variety of subjects. The fact that differences of opinion exist on such points as these no more proves education, in the sense of the cultivation of the intellectual faculties, a matter of questionable utility than differences as to biblical interpretation and ethical theories impugn the value of religion to morality. (Dr. Allison concluded his address with a few remarks which have not been reported, on the subject of the Provincial Examinations, in which, as one of the Provincial Examiners, he bore testimony to the pains taken by the Superintendent of Education to secure the fullest possible justice for those writing for certificates.)



Rev. D. A. Chisholm, D. D., Rector St. Francis Xavier's College.

Rev. Dr. Chisholm spoke as follows :—He was pleased to be present at this convention of teachers. He had an interest in the public schools as the earlier portion of his own education was received in them ; and the institution with which he was connected recruited its ranks for the most part from the schools of this



Hon. W. S. Fielding, Provincial Secretary.

Province. Like President Allison he considered the high school course necessarily a compromise. No matter what the provisions of the course, some would be dissatisfied ; yet with President Forrest he thought that an improvement could probably be made in the direction of unloading the present course of some of its subjects.

In the common schools a very wide range of subjects was taught but in his opinion none of more importance to the welfare of the country was prescribed for instruction than that which came under the head of "Moral and Patriotic Duties.' He feared that perhaps some misapprehension existed in the minds of teachers and pupils in regard of this subject. He recalled to mind the time when the free school system was first introduced. In the school which he frequented the pupils put an interpretation of their own on the word "free" which characterized this system. The pupils were henceforth to be free of supervision outside of class hours, free to pommel each other on their way to and from school and at play hour and do other peccadillos of that sort. It was a very mistaken idea and good teachers took early occasion to disabuse them of it. But he sometimes thought the idea still lurked in the minds of some teachers and pupils. Teachers should feel responsible for the conduct of their pupils not only whilst these are in the school room but also whilst out of it, until they are within reach of parental control. Then there were patriotic duties to be inculcated. We have a magnificent country, with resources most varied, and institutions as perfect as those of any country under the sun. School children should be taught to appreciate these and through appreciation to love them. They should early be brought to know the way in which we are governed. Advantage should be taken of everything to bring this home to them. Do the pupils look out of the window of their school and see a court house or other buildings used by the municipality, let occasion be sometimes taken to teach the purpose of these buildings and therefrom let a lesson be given on municipal government, on the work of our local legislators, &c. Occasional talks on these matters coupled with lessons on the responsibilities of citizenship which carry with them the right to vote and choose the best men to send to parliament or best policy for the country, will do a great good. The future of the country depends on the intelligence and honesty of voters. These are trained principally in the public schools. Hence the importance of giving a high place in the common school to instruction on moral and patriotic duties, a place they can hold without the setting apart for them of any particular hour. They are best taught incidentally i. e., by taking advantage of what occurs in the school room even out of it, to bring home to pupils truths useful to them as future citizens. He closed by again expressing his pleasure in being with the teachers of the Province in the convention and his interest in the work in which they were engaged.

Hon. W. S. Fielding said he had come to the meeting to listen rather than to speak, and would have been pleased if he had been permitted to make only a formal appearance on the platform. He felt, however, that it was both a duty and a pleasure for him as the first minister of the Provincial Government, which is charged with the supervision of public education, to take an interest in the work of the Educational Association. While he could not hope to be able to attend all the sessions it was his desire to see and hear as much as possible of the Association's work. Even if there were no considerations but those of a financial character to influence him he would feel bound to give his best attention to this work, because as finance minister of the Province it became his duty to provide for public education a very large proportion of the Provincial revenue. It was satisfactory to know that our people always evinced a lively interest in educational affairs. This interest was sometimes manifested by very free criticism in the public press. He sincerely wished that the numerous critics who had been giving their views to the newspapers for the last year or two could be present at this gathering. Some

of them, no doubt, were present and he felt sure that the Superintendent of Education would be glad to have the benefit of any suggestions that they could offer. The numerous complaints that were made by newspaper critics respecting the examinations and the course of study might lead a careless observer to imagine that there was great room for improvement. It would be found, however, that there was a remarkable lack of unity in these criticisms. When a writer attacked one feature of educational management it was hardly necessary for the Superintendent or anybody else to defend the Department—it was safe to assume that some other writer would be found a few days later criticising our educational system from the opposite point of view. He was reminded of an old story which he thought might be applied here. A charlatan had persuaded a number of ignorant people that he was able to produce rain when required. A number of farmers called upon him to prove his ability to produce the rain. "All right," said the charlatan, "I will have the rain to-morrow!" "Oh no," said one of the farmers, "that will not do; I have some hay down, and we must not have the rain until the hay is in." "Well then," said the impostor, "we will have the rain on Monday!" Another said, "no, that will not do; I have arranged for some work on that day, which cannot be done if the rain comes." "Well then, what about Tuesday?" Another spoke up, saying he had planned a trip for Tuesday, which would be spoiled by the rain. So it was found that while all wanted the rain they could not agree as to the time for it. And so the humbug folded his hands and said, "when you people can agree among yourselves the rain will come." He (Mr. Fielding) did not wish to apply the story so far as to treat the Superintendent of Education as a humbug. That gentleman, of course, was prepared to carry out in his Department all that he engaged to do. But he might with some reason say to the numerous critics that before they could hope to effect much improvement they would have to come to a better understanding as to the direction in which change was needed. This evening one of the speakers, in an enthusiastic address, had suggested some additional books for use in the schools. Now if there was any point in which the public generally were sensitive with respect to our school system it was that of increasing the number of books. Every new book prescribed for use in the schools imposed a very considerable burden upon the people of the country who had to purchase books for the children. Hence the Government felt that they should be exceedingly careful in dealing with that subject and not prescribe books unless a very strong case could be made out in support of their adoption. Much of the criticism on school work would be found unreasonable and based upon erroneous information. But in so far as there was room for improvement, the Superintendent and the Council of Public Instruction would always welcome the suggestions of those whose knowledge and experience qualified them to give advice. The criticisms to which he had referred were those of educationists and had reference to the details of the system. There was another class of criticism not emanating from educationists, but one which he thought educationists would do well to consider. While questioning the wisdom of some details, teachers and those closely associated with them were perhaps too ready to assume that the school work is giving satisfaction. We are all disposed to declare that our school system has been a great success. He thought that this meeting would probably take the same view. But candor would compel him to say that while those assembled here might be willing to agree upon such a verdict on the school system there are some other people who are not so ready to take the same view. Strange as it might appear to the teachers and those closely associated with them, it was a fact that many people in our province entertain doubts as to the complete success of our school system. The free school system had been in operation now for many years and an enormous sum of public money had been expended upon it. There were people who thought that the results, in their application to the welfare of the province, were not altogether commensurate with the labor and outlay. Perhaps some would say that this was only the criticism

of ignorant people, But we must not attempt to dismiss the matter in that light way. The doubters were not ignorant people. They were in many cases people of much intelligence, whose opinions were entitled to great respect. Not long ago he happened on a certain occasion to meet four gentlemen with whom he had some discussion on this question. The meeting was accidental. The four gentlemen were prominent men. They differed in occupation, in creed, in politics. Each of them had been successful in his own particular walk of life. Each of them would be regarded as a fair representative of his class. And every one of the four was prepared to vote that the general result of the public school system had been unsatisfactory. Their view was that our school system did not educate our boys and girls for the work that they were likely to be called upon to do, but that its tendency was to educate them away from their legitimate work and create a feeling of dissatisfaction and unrest, which to a large extent led to the exodus from the province. This view, of course, would be warmly resented by most educationists. But he (Mr. F.) thought that while perhaps the view was too strongly expressed by the gentlemen to whom he referred there was enough in it to demand the thoughtful attention of all who are connected with the direction of the school system. He would suggest a way in which some of the teachers might put this criticism to the test. Let a teacher having the charge of a senior class of boys, soon to end their school days, ask them the question, what work of life they propose to engage in? If our country was to prosper most of our people must devote themselves to the development of our natural resources. Were the schools impressing the young people with this idea? Did the boys come out of school with an appreciation of the dignity of labor and a disposition to apply themselves to the work of the farm, the mine, the workshop, or the fisheries? Some, of course, would be required for other walks of life. But the great majority would have to rely upon these industries for a living. If the boys came away from the school with a feeling of unrest and unwillingness to engage in such work, then indeed it was questionable whether our school system was producing satisfactory results While he (Mr. F.) thought the criticisms to which he had referred ought not to be lightly dismissed, but on the contrary, should engage the thoughtful attention of educationists, he was not prepared to endorse the conclusion to which some people were ready to rush, that there was too much education. If there was an evil in the direction indicated, the remedy he felt was not in less education but rather in more. We must turn these powerful forces of education in a more practical direction, and endeavor if possible, to give the young people a higher appreciation of the resources of their own country and a stronger determination to assist in building it up. There was need for the cultivation of real patriotism. Speaking at an educational meeting on a previous occasion he had ventured to suggest, that some improvement might be effected by giving more attention in the schools to politics. Doubtless many people would say that there was more than enough politics in the country now, and probably they would be right. There was more than enough politics of a certain kind. But their could not be too much politics of the kind which he had in his mind. What he meant by the teaching of politics in the schools was the teaching of the duties of citizenship. We ought to be able to give the young people in the schools some idea of the resources of their own country, its system of government, and the privileges and responsibilities of the franchise. This, he thought, was a field of work in which the teachers could do much that would help to make better citizens. One gratifying feature of the proceedings of the present educational association was the hearty co-operation given to the work by representative educationists of all classes and creeds. At any time this would be a pleasing state of affairs. It was particularly gratifying just now because it was in marked contrast with what prevailed in some other places. If he was at any time disposed to boast of our Province it was when he remembered the pleasant relations which had long existed between the different religious bodies. Elsewhere differences had seriously affected educational interest

and prevented that harmonious co-operation which is essential to the public welfare. Even in our own Dominion it would not be possible in every province to find such a union of educational effort as was manifested in the presence on this platform to-night of the leading educationists of all denominations. This happy state of affairs spoke well for our school system. At a time when the difficulties of other communities are so prominently before us it was something to be grateful for that we in Nova Scotia had learned how to carry on a great system of free public education upon lines that were fairly satisfactory to the whole community, that by a spirit of liberality which had long been characteristic of the people of Nova Scotia, and which he hoped would long continue, by an earnest effort on the part of the authorities to meet the views of minorities, by allowing elasticity at points where this was possible without any violation of principle, this Province had built up a school system which the people of all classes and creeds could conscientiously support.

Rev. Dr. Forrest replied to some criticisms by previous speakers.

The Hon. F. A. Lawrence spoke briefly, paying a fitting tribute to that great pioneer of education in Nova Scotia, Dr. Forrester, the founder of the Normal School.

The meeting closed with the singing of the National Anthem.

*4th Session—THURSDAY.*

# CORRELATION OF THE STUDIES OF THE HIGH SCHOOL, AND METHODS OF TESTING ITS WORK.

By A. H. MacKay, LL.D., F. R. S. C., Superintendent of Education.

I can not understand exactly why the Executive Committee should ask me to open a discussion on this subject. It is generally thought, I imagine, that my views are to at least a considerable extent reflected in our present system of correlation and of examination. And if that were not sufficient, there are now no less than four of my annual reports gone out with remarks on the present order of things. Perhaps they wished me to present myself as the impersonation of that evil which afflicts the unfortunate teacher or the unsuccessful candidate in the domain of high school life, so that I might stand up at the commencement and answer to my name and for my acts. If so I am here. But the charges have not yet been read, and how can I then proceed to answer? Perhaps I am expected to invite you to proceed with them, and not to be bashful. That strikes me as the best explanation of my being asked to open this discussion, instead of being simply ready to reply. I therefore most heartily invite you to enter into the discussion with the utmost freedom. Even should the enthusiasm of any delegate rise to vehemence I shall not be likely to misjudge him. For I feel that each true teacher here is filled with the desire of making our educational system as practically useful as possible for our people, and an honor to ourselves when we stand beside the educationists representing other countries. I think I can understand the experience of each one here, no matter in what class of school he is engaged; for in my experience of a quarter of a century in the profession I have been through them all. And while I have thus a practical knowledge of the conditions existing in nearly every section of the province, I know you will give me credit for at least the effort to keep acquainted with the development of educational theories and practice abroad, and that however painful the operation of any of our present conditions may be to any individual or class, my object is the ultimate good of the profession and of the country for whose proper development we are largely responsible. Therefore we can afford to have the fullest freedom, only should any one be borne far aloft in his eloquence, to prevent the possibility of misunderstanding his feelings, he should wear a smile somewhere on his face, if not always, at least whenever he "comes to." After the general discussion of principles, I shall be glad to answer any special questions appropriate to the general Association; but matters of detail connected with the necessary annual revision of the course of study I shall arrange to have discussed in conference with those interested or those who may be selected for the purpose by the Association.

You are all aware that the great newspapers nowadays publish reports from Wiggins and the weather bureau. The one takes up an almanac calculated by an astronomer, and when he notices any more largely attended conventicle of planets than usual, or that the sun is about to cross the line, he says, "There is going to

be a storm somewhere around the globe," as if there ever was a day in which something of that kind was not going on, and all this is done at the cost of a patent medicine almanac, than which I know of nothing cheaper. The weather bureau, with its telegraphic reports coming in every day of the year from every quarter of the continent and on the cables from the islands of the surrounding seas, showing where the storms really are, whither and how rapidly they are travelling—the weather bureau has its say too. But Wiggins, with one effort a year, impresses himself more on the attention of certain large classes of his countrymen than the weather bureau with its three hundred and sixty-five. And at this very day we may come across some who from the newspapers, attention to Wiggins mistake him for the weather bureau; and they are quite ready at the next election to support a representative who will promise to suppress that same weather bureau and all its expense

I feel that I am now before an audience which can distinguish between Wiggins and the weather bureau. It will not therefore be necessary, even had I the time, to marshal before you the multitude of details bearing on my subject,—details you have found set forth in one way or another in the different official publications which I hope you all have been able to peruse. Nor can I enter into any particulars of any modifications deemed desirable in the minutes allotted me.

### THE EDUCATIONAL TREE-TRUNK OF NOVA SCOTIA.

Let us represent the pupils and students of this province from the kindergarten to the end of the highest university course by the trunk of a great tree, and those leaving school each year as an immense whorl of branches. The rapidly tapering trunk starts from the ground with a diameter, say, of *eleven* feet, and after throwing off seven huge whorls of branches into the air where the green and, sad to say, the dead spray away in the passing breeze, the trunk is reduced to less than *seven* feet. This represents the number attending school in the eighth grade, the last year of the common school. The nineteen thousand who started in the first grade have been reduced to about six and one-half thousand in the eighth. Where are the twelve thousand and five hundred? Some in the field, some on the sea, some in the worshop, some in the mine, and, alas, some of them in the grave. After the eighth whorl has branched off the trunk is but *four and one-half* feet. Of the 19,000 scarcely 3,000 are to be found in the first year of the high school. After the ninth whorl breaks off, the trunk is seen to have tapered to less than *three* feet, and after the tenth to only *one and three quarter* feet. After three years of the high school we may suppose the Arts college begins, including in its numbers the so-called fourth year of the high schools. Here the stem is but *one* foot through, and after four whorls have spread off, it is but *a fraction* of a foot-thick stem which towers above, tossing off its three or more tuft-like circlets of leaves representing the post graduate courses in Theology, Law, Medicine and Applied Science. Eight years in the common schools, three years in the high school, four years in the Arts college, and three in post graduate study make up the eighteen years' course through which the puniest stem fibre ascends to burst forth into the tiniest leaflet that flutters from the tip-top.

The trunk of this tree whose cross section, it must be remembered, varies as the square of the diameter, represents the more or less general training of the schools and the university. The branches which reduce the size of the stem from year to year represent those diverging into the work of life or special training for it. The eight lower circles of branches represent the unemployed young, those engaged in the most rudimentary of the industrial occupations, apprentices and the lowest order of clerks. Those branching from the high school portion of the stem are fewer, but they are leaders in the various industrial occupations, clerks of a higher order, the professional men who do not take time to go into the university; and although they are few in number compared with those branching

-off from the common schools, they count for a very great deal more than their numerical proportion in their influence on society, the development of the country and its government. With the fewer which diverge from the top of the tree they practically govern the country and give tone to its civilization and reputation abroad. And never were competent leaders in every department of human activity more necessary than to-day if a country is going to have any chance in the competition between rival commonwealths. It is through the trunk the sap of life and beauty of form find their way into the branches where they burst into full expression in the verdant and fragrant spray which gives character to the provincial or national tree.

Assuming our tree to be a living and healthy organism, any portion of the stem must have a very intimate correlation of matter and structure with the portion of the stem immediately below, the portion immediately above, the branches springing out of it all around, and the elementary fibres within its own body.

### CORRELATION WITH THE COMMON SCHOOL COURSE.

The correlation of the high school course to that of the common school course, is as perfect as that between any two portions of the stems of the murmuring pines and the hemlocks which grace our forests or our poetry; for they are structurally and functionally parts of the same organism. There is no loss of teaching energy due to the lack of articulation between the two. But then if the common school course is not what it should be, this close articulation may not altogether be an unmixed blessing. For we can imagine the common school work to be carried on too far, or not far enough, or it may be defective on account of the omission of some subject which should have an early place in the child's education. Whether the common school work is carried on too far or not far enough, must be determined to a great extent by the classification into which the whole world is gradually falling, as the result of its experience of what is generally felt to be the most convenient for the sum total of all purposes. And especially in these days when through the influence of the Dominion Educational Association, it has become fashionable for public writers to advocate the assimilation of the standards of the various grades of provincial scholarship certificates, so that those of each province should be as valid in the one province as in another, from Nova Scotia to British Columbia. Whether we should approve of that policy or not, we find that not only in Canada, but also in the United States, through the influence of its National Educational Association to a great extent, the common school course has been definitely and universally agreed to be the first eight years of the public school work. This unanimous consensus of educational opinion and practice makes it necessary for statistical comparison that we should follow the classification. But we have no occasion to *follow*, for before the famous Committee of Ten appointed by the National Educational Association of the United States in 1892, proclaimed the first draft of a National system of secondary education, to wipe out the unconformability between institutions which made the summation of their statistics a chaos, and their co-operation unsatisfactory—before that time the general and many of the particular lines of that authoritative report, were not only drafted but in operation in this province. Yes, down even to the years when Latin and Greek, and French and German should begin: down to the pronunciation of Latin and the habitual recitation of the languages; down to concrete Geometry or mathematical drawing on the lower side of the dividing line of the high and the common school, and the commencement of synthetic Geometry immediately above; and other such details. And the latest authoritative utterance from the same quarter, still more closely approximates the principles we had already put into practice. I refer to the report of the Committee of Fifteen, at the Cleveland meeting of Superintendence on the 19th, 20th and 21st of last February, which I will refer to again as the most absolute endorsement of the principles upon which our

common school course is based with regard to the subjects of study and their correlation. The leading spirit on both the Committees of Ten and Fifteen, was Hon. Dr. Harris, Commissioner of Education for the United States.

The German Volkschulen, the people's schools, also cover the eight first years; but as the German orthography has been made nearly perfectly phonetic, the children in those eight years do one or two year's work more in other directions than English children of equal ability. Especially do they excel in the mastery of music and of general elementary science, which we have on our course under the title of Nature lessons. The practical study of Nature as found in the environment of each school is looked upon as a recreation from the severer studies; as laying the foundation of the habit of accurate observation; as expounding the scientific principles underlying the successful prosecution of all the industries, especially those of Agriculture, Horticulture, Arboriculture, the arts and manufactures; as dignifying labor generally by allowing the laborer to understand the laws of nature operating around him, and draping the drudgery of his toil with that interest which fascinates the man of science to undertake with pleasure what the uneducated laborer would recoil from until forced by starvation. And even for more than that it is considered to be essential to know the land they live in, their fatherland, from its rocks to their king. It is necessary in order to understand language. They understand that in order to know the full meaning of words and their use in language, it is necessary to know the things for which the words stand; that it is as useless to train people to spell and pronounce words and string them together in the order of subject and predicate or the reverse, without training them to know the things, in order to be able to use their language, as it would be for a man to pull up his boot straps in order to jump a fence.

In the German "people's schools" the work does not only in many subjects go further on than with us, but their course is more comprehensive, including religion for instance. Some people, either profoundly ignorant of what a course of study should be, or afflicted by an untrained or incapable teacher whom they take to be the true interpreter of it, have said in their haste that the course is overcrowded. That may mean one of two things. That it contains too many subjects, or that too much is required in some subjects. That we can not do what the Germans do. But we do not try to do so much as our nearest neighbor, New Brunswick. There, Latin is an option in the eighth grade—another subject. While we give no synthetic Geometry in the common schools, there, Euclid, Book I, to proposition 33, is required. While we require little more Algebra than is necessary to enable the mechanic, workman or farmer who can not go to the high school to apply the neat rules given in algebraic formulas in simple handbooks to the solution of problems that turn up in their business,—simply little more than the evaluation of algebraic expressions,—there they are required to go on to equations and easy problems. We have left Latin out because in the high schools the general commencement in Latin is made, and the pupil who did a year's work in the common school would have to be formed into a class by himself in the first year of the high school, thus doubling the work of the teacher, or halving the whole drill given to all the Latin pupils, unless he choose to go in with the beginners and learn for a term how to take it easy. The course may be criticised for not being comprehensive enough; but hardly in the light of what is being done in the rest of the world and by our own good teachers can it be maintained that it is too comprehensive or too advanced. That is not the equivalent of saying that it is perfect, but rather of saying that it can be improved, and it must change with the changing character of our teachers and of our social conditions, or civilization as the Committee of Fifteen call it. The comic man may find that we touch upon nearly every subject in this common school course which may be found in its advanced stage in the largest university. But his genius is small if he cannot "go at least one better" and show how the toddling babe of three years has really touched upon the fringe of every science and art in the world.

known to ancients and moderns. And when the babe is doing that he is doing the best possible to assure his future But if he happen to think that it is an advantage in a course of study to specify the different parts of a subject in order to assure that such a phase of it should not be overlooked, and that after all if it is in the numerical complexion that distresses him, the whole might be reduced to *five*, such as 1, English, on which we spent in the year ended, 1894, 42.7 p. c. of the time; 2, Mathematics, 21.4 p. c; 3, Geography and History, 14.4 p. c; 4, Caligraphics, 12.6 p. c; and 5, general improvement exercises, 8.9 p. c; which makes up the whole one hundred per centage of time utilized in the common schools of the province—if he happens to think *that*, why, he will be nearer right though not at all funny.

There are some who want more in the course, even more books; while I am hoping, through the influence of our Normal School, that in the hands of the pupils they may become less. For instance, there has been pressure for the prescribing of some text book on agriculture in the common schools, as has been done or is proposed to be done in the other provinces. But I am afraid of books for another reason than that of the man who pays the bill. I know that so many teachers use the book so as to kill what little love the pupil might originally have had for the subject. And I would prefer, that instead of prescribing an additional book, which after all would only pretend to be adapted to one class of industry, we should increase our efforts to enable all our teachers to give the prescribed training properly to their pupils in the subjects of the so-called nature lessons, not from books which would make it little better than the dullest fiction, but from the things themselves,—the whole to be blended into the unifying patriotic spirit of devotion to our own country. This would be laying the foundation of scientific agriculture a hundred fold more pleasantly and usefully than cramming a book; and the training would be equally valuable to every other industrial class, even to those who are to enter the literary professions. I think our Normal School is beginning to prepare such teachers now. A live teacher is better than a library of text books for the young pupil.

### COMMON SCHOOL CORRELATION OF STUDIES.

To wind up the threads relating to the principles determining the evolution of modern courses of study, I will now simply quote the opening page of that report already referred to, the report of the committee of fifteen, 1895, the leading member of which was the same Dr. Harris, Commissioner of Education for the United States, who was also the leading member of the committee of ten three years before:

"Your committee understands by correlation of studies:

"*1. Logical order of topics and branches.*

"First, the arrangement of topics in proper sequence in the course of study, in "such a manner that each branch develops in an order suited to the natural and "easy progress of the child, and so that each step is taken at the proper time to "help his advance to the next step in the same branch, or to the next steps in "other related branches of the course of study.

"*2. Symmetrical whole of studies in the world of human learning.*

"Second, the adjustment of the branches of study in such a manner that the "whole course at any given time represents all the great divisions of human learning, as far as is possible at the stage of maturity at which the pupil has arrived, "and that each allied group of studies is represented by some one of its branches "best adapted for the epoch in question; it being implied that there is an equivalence of studies to a greater or less degree within each group, and that each branch "of human learning should be represented by some equivalent study; so that while "no great division is left unrepresented, no group shall have superfluous representatives, and thereby debar other groups from a proper representation.

"*3. Psychological System.*

"Third, the selection and arrangement of the branches and topics within each "branch, considered psychologically, with a view to afford the best exercise of the "faculties of the mind, and to secure the unfolding of those faculties in a natural "order, so that no one faculty is so over-cultivated or so neglected as to produce "abnormal or one-sided mental development.

"*4. Correlation of pupils' course of study with the world in which he lives—his spiritual and natural environment.*

"Fourth and chiefly, your committee understands by correlation of studies the "selection and arrangement in orderly sequence of such objects of study as shall "give the child an insight into the world that he lives in, and a command over its "resources such as is obtained by helpful co-operation with one's fellows. In a "word, the chief consideration to which all others are to be subordinated, in the "opinion of your committee, is this requirement of the civilization into which the "child is born, as determining not only what he shall study in school, but habits "and customs he shall be taught in the family before the school age arrives; as "well as that he shall acquire a skilled acquaintance with some one of a definite "series of trades, professions, or vocations in the years that follow school; and, "furthermore, that this question of the relation of the pupil to his civilization "determines what political duties he shall assume and what religious faith and "spiritual aspirations shall be adopted for the conduct of his life.

"The branches to be studied, and the extent to which they are studied will be "determined mainly by the demands of one's civilization. These will prescribe "what is most useful to make the individual acquainted with physical nature and "with human nature so as to fit him as an individual to perform his duties in the "several institutions, family, civil society, state, and the church. But next after "this, psychology will furnish important considerations that will largely determine "the methods of instruction, the order of taking up the several topics so as to "adapt the school work to the growth of the pupil's capacity, and the amount of "work so as not to overtax his powers by too much, or arrest the development of "strength by too little."

CORRELATION WITH THE COLLEGES.

While the high school studies are thus correlated with those of the common schools, which I have endeavored to show make a very fair *terminus a quo* for them, we have also happily been able to arrange a *terminus ad quem*, which with the device of a certificate bearing the valuation of each examination paper by the provincial examiners, enables us to articulate the studies of the high schools with colleges of even different standards, as well as with their various times of opening. And this is done in a more effective manner than the Committee of Ten ventured to recommend, in order to obviate the "serious inconveniences for secondary schools which habitually prepare candidates for several different colleges or scientific schools," because "the admission examinations of different institutions are apt to occur on different dates, sometimes very widely separated." The same school can prepare candidates for various colleges without forming a class for each; and as the examination papers are published as well as the syllabus of the provincial examinations, colleges are in the position of making their standard of admission 40 p. c., or 50 p. c., or 60 p. c., and so forth on such of the subjects as they deem it necessary, as shown on the provincial certificate. This not only dispenses with the necessity of the very inconvenient proposal of arranging to have colleges set their admission examinations on the same dates, independently of their times of opening; but it dispenses also with the necessity of having any examination at all for such as have won provincial certificates.

CORRELATION WITH OUR SOCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL ENVIRONMENT.

For the sake of brevity I shall consider here the high school course proper as ending with the third year or junior leaving examination, the fourth year so-called, being not imperative, and being more or less at present the equivalent of the first year in our colleges. The distinct subjects as given below, if we classify Drawing and Book-keeping as Caligraphic art, are five or six. An approximate percentage of time spent on each is also given for each grade or year.

| SUBJECT. | 1st year. | 2nd year. | 3rd year. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. English (2 papers)..... | 20 p. c. | 20 p. c. | 20 p. c. | |
| 2. Languages (optional) ..... | 20 " | 20 " | 25 " | |
| 3. Mathematics (3 papers) ..... | 20 " | 20 " | 20 " | |
| 4. Natural Science (1 paper)..... | 15 " | 15 " | 20 " | (2 papers.) |
| 5. Geog. and History (1 paper.).. | 15 " | 15 " | 15 " | |
| 6. Drawing and Book K. (1 paper) | 10 " | 10 " | .. | |
| | 100 | 100 | 100 | |

The papers in the languages which may be taken are Latin (1) and French (1) in the first year; Latin (1), Greek (1), French (1) and German (1) in the second; Latin (2), Greek (2), French (1) and German (1) in the third year.

If Music, Gymnastics and Religion were added to the above and the whole made imperative for nine years, the course would bear a strong resemblance to that of the classical high schools of Germany—the Gymnasia. The system of options is not exploited there to the extent it is here. Where a Gymnasium is established it has its single course. Where the Realschule or practical and scientific school is established it provides no classical course, but gives (the higher of them) a nine year's course as the Gymnasium does. Only thirteen years ago the Real-Gymnasium, the third order of high schools, was established and combines Latin with the subjects of the Realschule. When one of our students omits Latin and Greek from his course, our high school becomes for him a sort of a meagre Realschule.

At Eaton for 400 years the languages of Greece and Rome formed the major portion, if not all of the course of study. Not until 1851 was Mathematics made compulsory and absorbed a portion of the time of the student. In 1871 French was put on. And only quite lately have German and Natural Science been put on. When the natural conservatism of the great English schools and the excellent training which eminent masters gave on the old course have thus to pay their respects to the *zeitgeist* we feel how irresistible are the forces directing the newer trend. At the great educational conference held at Berlin on the fourth of December, 1890, presided over by Von Gossler, Minister of Education, the German Emperor made an attack on the course of instruction in the gymnasia, asserting that if it was more national and less literary and classical the socialistic spirit would soon die out. He made a plea for the reduction of the amount of classical instruction in the course. But his criticism would not apply to our system for two reasons, the amount of classical work prescribed by us is comparatively small, and even that is optional, whereas wherever a gymnasium is established about 25 p. c. of the whole time is given for nine years to Latin and about half that time to Greek.

The facts that the imperative portion of our high school course is found in all the three classes of German high school, even in the classical gymnasia, the reports of the several conferences under the committee of ten, and the principles affirmed by the committee of fifteen, are external authorities in favor of our having made them all imperative. As I said before even the classical schools of Germany make

more subjects imperative than we do. It is claimed by some of the classical men that it would be an improvement to allow classics to be substituted for one of the imperatives, which principle is in a modified form admitted in the fourth year. I cannot take time now to discuss this proposition.

Our present method is without doubt the one which is most likely to extend the classical culture, for only the abler pupils will take the extra work. There is a special inducement for the literary, the mathematical and the scientific minds of average or more than average ability to take the complete course at first because it counts more. In the future, then, we would expect all the abler lieutenants and captains in the different bands of the industrial army of the province to know some classics. Under no other system is the subject likely to become so popular, as our annual statistics are proving. And I see that in the Province of Ontario the new regulations just issued authorize the languages to be added as a bonus to the score in the primary examination as we have been doing, provided the mark is not below 34 p. c. There are some among us probably who instead of moving in the direction of the 34 p. c. of Ontario would prefer to have any score on the optional subjects however small added into the aggregate. I would allow that question to be decided by a vote of the classical masters, but while I think that the encouragement of the classics is desirable, I think the study of each of the imperative subjects as we have them most necessary. And I think that even if a candidate for B should make an average of 75 p. c. on each of his Latin and Greek papers, that he might be allowed to pass although he made only 22 p. c. on each of the eight imperatives, as he would be entitled to do under our present regulations, rather than not give a chance for classical work to every able student. I do not very well like the idea of beginning the distinction of major and minor subjects too early in a course of education; but if it is useful in some cases there is a wide margin allowed for it in our present plan. Perhaps the Ontario minimum of one-third of the full value of a paper in order to let it count at all may some day come in; but it is too severe for us at present.

I have left no time to show, other than by authority, that our minimum high school course of the first three years can not afford to lose a single subject of those we call the imperative, in order to meet the demands of our present environment. In fact we need more work done in these so soon as we can afford it. Our classical, our English, our mathematical teachers, are the latest of a more or less long line of evolution, but there has not been enough time for the evolution of perfected teachers of the natural sciences. They are very few and far between. And when one comes his duties are so imperfectly understood that he is hampered by the general ignorance of the difference of the demands made on him as compared with, say, the language master, who can sit in his chair and direct the class work by lecture or reference to the page of a book. The science teacher to-day has to be an objective demonstrator, for nature must be interrogated directly when possible. He has to provide the material suitable for the demonstration of the hour, and that often requires several hours of mental planning and perhaps an hour or two of manual labor. And after the demonstration hour is over there may be another of manual labor in having things "fixed up." That is, every hour of the proper scientific teacher's time on the programme means at the very least, on an average, the equivalent of two hours of the language or mathematical teacher. He is not paid double though, and therefore I fear there is often a temptation not to exert himself to the double effort which would be necessary if his demonstration classes are run into each other so closely as the other classes. But there is a better time coming.

### CORRELATION "TANDEM" AND "ABREAST."

A word on this point merely. The mathematics in our course are sub-divided and arranged as follows:

| *First Year.* | *Second Year.* | *Third Year.* |
|---|---|---|
| Arithmetic. | Arithmetic. | Pract. Math. |
| Algebra. | Algebra. | Algebra. |
| Geometry. | Geometry. | Geometry. |

It would appear to be a question with some as to whether it would not be a simplification to have them arranged thus without lessening the total amount done in the three years.

| *First Year.* | *Second Year.* | *Third Year.* |
|---|---|---|
| Algebra. | Arith & Pract. M. | Geometry. |

This would give us the apparent simplification illustrated in some parts of the sample courses suggested by the committee of ten. It is the tandem versus the abreast system. The first year candidate would then be examined on all the algebra of our present three years to the end of the text book. The C candidate would prepare to pass on all the Arithmetic and Practical Mathematics. And so on. Even should such work on one of these subjects be not found too monotonous, and though the subjects of the preceding years might run no danger of being forgotton from disuse, some too difficult work would have to be done in the first year and in the second; and the many opportunities now had of correlating, or inter-relating the subjects as we go on from the simpler elements in each to the more difficult from year to year would be missed. There would be as much work to do as ever although the title of the branches would not appear so often in the course of study. But within each year the teacher can now at his option take "D" Arithmetic for three months, then Algebra entirely for the next three months, and Geometry for the last three; from which he would receive all the advantages of the greater change proposed above without its disadvantages.

### METHODS OF EXAMINATION.

My time is up and I am forced to refer you to my last report, 1894, pages 29 to 39. If there is a better method practicable than the written examination then we should adopt it. The Academic grants are not dependent on the results of this examination, nor is the grading, except where the teachers find it best from local conditions. So there is no strain here. Both academies and high schools are examined otherwise by visitation of the educational officers whose duty it is. The written examination does not examine in music, gymnastics, manners or even reading and elocution. But there is by law a public examination, where and when such subjects can be well tested by the trustees and others interested. And these are some of the branches which should be specially examined at such exhibitions of the school work.

Then with respect to the preparation of the examination papers, the present compiler would like very much to be relieved from the preparation of about 80 different papers covering every subject. Those of you who have often prepared examination papers for your own classes on the subjects which you have been teaching so as fairly to cover the ground of a year's wor may have some idea of the work, as you multiply one evening by the number of working evenings in three months. Then the papers are to be made a fair average for the good schools of the various sections of the province. One individual who visits these from year to year and sees how such work is being done has an advantage in that respect over a

board of examiners which has not had such opportunity. But a board of examiners could bear the responsibility more composedly than a single individual. For when papers are prepared from year to year on every subject in the whole educational range, where a proper average must be struck, where no question must be repeated unless it is with the design of impressing the importance of certain phases of the subject, where simple questions for the benefit of the slow and average candidate shall be properly balanced with others on which the abler students will be able to show their power, where the difficulty of a paper so constructed shall be tempered down with an optional question or so, or when the subject prescribed (from the accident of the difficulty of the text book available) is rather extensive and must be practically cut down by, sometimes, several optional questions equally distributed over the course,—for where and when all these and other points have to be taken into consideration, and the questions themselves have to be kept inviolably secret, printed perhaps a thousand miles away, before they come to be as carefully put up into some two or three thousand parcels sealed, and if a single one of these papers is by accident put into the wrong envelope, it may give rise to most serious complications, it can be seen that the director of the Provincial Examinations has a more difficult time of it than the most thoroughly plucked candidate.

Notwithstanding the natural difficulties of the case, the popularity of the examination has been phenomenal. In round numbers, from 1,300 under the old order, 1,500 presented themselves the first year of the new. The score rose to 1,900 the second year, and this year touched 2,400. But with all this care, and with the words of caution and recommendation to the different Provincial Examiners which I shall quote from my circular to them, the two lower grades of candidates did not do so well proportionately as they did at the previous examination. This was to some extent due to a rush to be admitted to examination before the possible imposition of closer restrictions on the admission, probably. Partly to the greater youth of many of the candidates, partly to the fact that many teachers have not by experience learned to discount the showing of a pupil in his room when examined on the very points on which most attention was given by the teacher himself, in order to estimate the mark likely to be made on the questions of an extra-mural examiner. Partly to the case of grade D also, to our having this year, for the first time, being able to dispense with the special allowance made with respect to the tolerance of a minimum lower than the normal 25. Also partly, in many sections of the country, to the difficulty with which some teachers appear to be able to accommodate themselves to the teaching of what they were never drilled in thoroughly themselves, as the examination answer papers now on file abundantly prove. But much progress has been made, and the work in these very grades in many schools in the province has been so satisfactory, that I feel our next examination will not only be more agreeable to the examiners, but to the teachers and candidates more generally throughout the country.

The time has come for me to stop, before I have completed an outline, or touched upon many points in which some of you are especially interested. But I have opened the subject and have invited you heartily to join in the improvement of our system of correlation or of examination by the comparison of our different experiences and views. Any thing I can do to help you in this will be my greatest pleasure. For it is my work as it is yours, a work in which we require the fullest information, the freest coöperation, and the heartiest sympathy with each other.

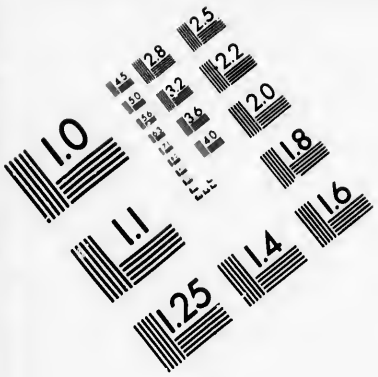
Discussion:—Rev. D. A. Chisholm, D. D., St. Francis Xavier College: You have heard with pleasure and, I have no doubt, with profit, the admirably instructive paper just read by our accomplished Superintendent of Education on the "Correlation of the Course of Studies." In opening the discussion on this subject I do not presume to have so mastered its various and complex details as to be able to definitely settle upon a H. S. course that will be beyond criticism.

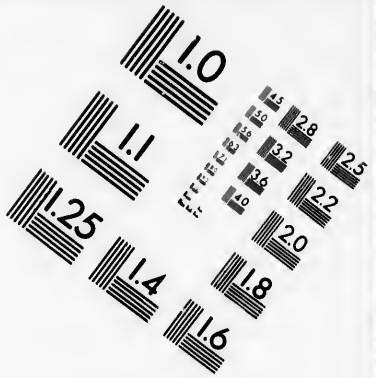
But I have some views on this matter of correlation, which I shall put before you, feeling, it is true, that many of you probably know more about it than I do, yet desirous of helping the cause for which we are gathered here together. They are therefore put forward for what they are worth and not with the idea that they will by any means constitute the last pronouncement on a many-sided question.

Correlation of studies, the Superintendent tells us, may mean such a grouping of the various subjects of a high school course, both as to simultaneity and succession, as will produce the best results in the case of the average student; and it has also been taken to mean such a grouping of subjects as will place those obviously dependent upon or ministering to other subjects in the special category or class of these subjects, thus causing some to disappear from the course as distinct subjects for study and consequently perhaps for examination. In the first meaning assigned to the word correlation it involves the discussion of the relative merits of the "tandem" and "abreast" methods of the study of several branches. According to the second meaning of the term, drawing e. g. would disappear from the H. S. curriculum as a separate study, inasmuch as it would be regarded as introductory of or ministering to the study of geometry, botany, geography, etc., and a knowledge of it would be necessarily acquired [illegible]st pursuing a course in these branches. In the same way botany might, to [illegible]rge extent, be merged in horticulture or agriculture. These two trainings do not exclude each other. In fact the framing of any course of studies will involve a consideration of the number and the best subjects to be placed together on the course for the same year, and from year to year, every circumstance being weighed, i. e. the probable age of the student when he enters upon the work of the course, his stage of mental development, his attainments, the relative merits of various subjects or groups of subjects as mind developers, if I may so express myself, and furthermore the proper co-ordination and subordination of the subjects so that the best results will be produced with the least expenditure of time and energy.

I think you will agree with me that the Superintendent has made a good case for the principle of the simultaneous as opposed to the successive study of certain subjects. A careful perusal of his argument will leave few of us disposed to doubt that in theory at least and within proper limits also in practice the principle he contends for is sound. I say within proper limits, for it would be just as unsound educationally to crowd, just to secure variety, too many subjects on the H. S. student, so that he could only study a little of each and nothing well, as to give him a surfeit of one branch. On this point, I fancy, there will be no difference of opinion. The difference will probably arise when we come to define what the "too many subjects" is.

No one who examines carefully our public school course, from the prescriptions for the first year in the common school to those for the last year in the High School, can fail to note the symmetry of the whole, the clearness of the instructions and suggestions it contains, and the perfect familiarity, to the minutest details, with the best methods of teaching, which it exhibits. It is a course clear in outline and definite in scope and purpose, and will, I believe, remain a lasting monument to the Superintendent's skill in organization and arrangement of material. On reading the celebrated report of the committee of ten, to which the Superintendent referred more than once to-day, I was struck with the number of points upon which our new course had anticipated the recommendations of that famous committee; and I confess to having experienced not a little pleasure in that we should have as the chief of our educational system one whose conclusions on many heads squared so well with the findings of the weightiest document that ever issued from the press on secondary schools. I need not give in detail the points I refer to, since the Superintendent has himself drawn your attention to them. You will infer from these observations that I am not one of those who see no good in our present course of H. S. studies. The fact is, I see much good in it, and I believe that with a few modifications which I

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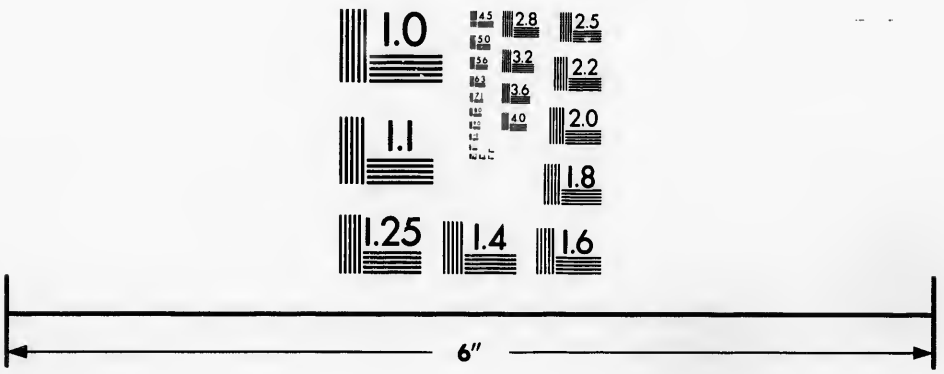


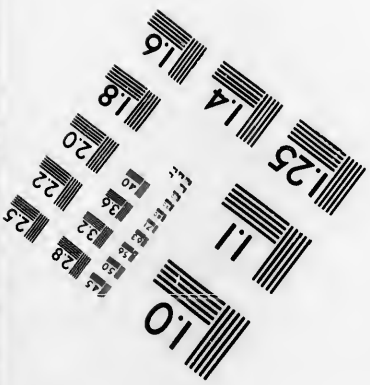


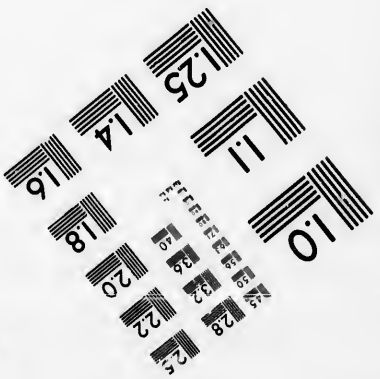


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shall probably take the liberty of suggesting before I close, or at least before the close of the conferences on the H. S. curriculum, it can be made the equivalent of that which the committee of ten pronounced to be the best and most feasible course.

In framing a course of studies, one must not forget the purpose for which such a course is marked out. That purpose is to enable the student to do twofold work, *i. e.*, to obtain information and to acquire power. In other words, its purpose is to enable him to obtain an insight into the world of thought and matter, and by the very process of obtaining this information or insight to acquire new strength of mind, power to think new thoughts and grapple with new studies, new problems which in almost innumerable shapes and varieties will come up for solution during the course of one's life. The information obtained and well-balanced power developed, produces in time what we call the man of culture, the foundation of which we begin to lay so soon as we place our child in the school-room or even earlier. If Cardinal Newman's estimate of culture be just when he speaks of it as, "the force, the steadiness, the comprehensiveness, the versatility of intellect, the command over one's own powers, the just estimate of things as they pass before us, which sometimes indeed is a natural gift, but commonly is not gained without much effort and the exercise of years," then surely culture is something worth striving after, something to be kept carefully in view, when framing a course of studies for those who are to be the leaders in thought and action in our country, such as our H. S. pupils to a great extent are expected to be. And let it be observed that it is only on the ground of our doing a service to the country as a whole, that we can devote public money for the encouragement of education in any grade. We must therefore aim in our High Schools, aided as they are so generously with public monies, at the best possible product, for that product is in the ordinary course of events, to have much to do in shaping the destinies of our country.

A writer of great weight in the mother country quotes, in a recent article in one of our reviews, the works I have just read from Cardinal Newman, and makes this forcible observation of his own: "A man of culture is not necessarily a giant in any sphere of intellectual effort, but he is a potential giant in many." And then he goes on to say,—If this be the nature of culture, surely it is the very height of folly for anyone, however intolerant of anything which is not "practical," to decry it as useless. It is, on the contrary, the most distinctly useful attainment which a man can have, for it makes him master of himself and of all his intellectual resources; it teaches him to distinguish accurately what he knows from what he does not know; what he can do from what he cannot; it gives him powers and pleasures and sympathies which those who have not gone through a similar discipline know nothing of; it makes him a complete man, not a mere bread winning-machine. General culture, therefore, although not directly imparting the special knowledge required for the exercise of any profession, makes a man in the highest degree fit to receive it. He acquires it, too, at once more easily and quickly and more thoroughly than those whose faculties are, as it were, in a state of nature. Culture, in short, prepares the soil for any kind of seed that may be sown in it, and supplies the fructifying influence which makes it grow and ripen. To use the noble words of Milton, it fits a man "to perform justly, skilfully, and magnanimously all the offices, both private and public, of peace and war."

The whole difference between the man whose faculties have been developed by training and one who is defective in this respect is thus summed up by Dr. Coppleston, Anglican Bishop of Durham: "A man of well improved faculties has the command of another's knowledge, a man without them has not the command of his own," which means that a man whose mind has been strengthened by exercise and training can acquire from books, by private study, the information he needs to solve new difficulties, or to pursue any ordinary vocation or pro-

fession ; whilst he whose mental training is defective will find himse f comparatively handicapped when brought face to face with new problems demanding solution. Thus, to take a not uncommon example, we find intelligent men, who had never been in an agricultural school, become scientific farmers and acquiring, if not wealth, at least a very comfortable sustenance through the reading and study of agricultural books and periodicals.

These views, so reasonable in themselves and too important to be lost sight of, in that they emphasize the necessity of securing mental power rather than information on many heads, are shared by the committee of ten, as can be seen by reference to their report This distinction is in fact the basis of all the programmes framed by them for studies in the high schools of the United States.

Now it is here that the excellent paper read by the Superintendent,—particularly when taken in conjunction with our high school course of studies, which has been formulated by him, and may be regarded as expressing his views,—is apt to create a false impression, an impression he probably never intended, but which is likely to be produced all the same. He treats his subject in such a way as to lead to the conclusion that the great thing is to acquire information, to know many things, and that for the utility of it. He does not sufficiently emphasize the vastly greater importance of time being given to assimilate into the fibre of our mental being the information gained. He does not dwell upon the necessity of giving prominence to those studies which for centuries have been regarded as the best instruments for the development of mental power, and are still so regarded by the best authorities of to-day ; nor does he point to the need for caution, lest in multiplying the number of subjects studied we make it impossible for any one of them to yield for us its training value. And that I do not misinterpret his views I have but to recall to you :

1. Where he urges us to study the classics *besides* the mathematics and natural sciences, and not as options with some of these.

2. Where he assumes that the proper thing for the clever boy to do is to take *more* subjects for study than his less clever companion, whilst ordinarily the better thing for him is to do *more thorough* work in the same number of subjects.

3. Where in comparing our course with the classical course in the German Gymnasia, he points out that ours has no more subjects on it than has the German, nor even as many, leaving the impression that ours is therefore no more crowded than the German, i. e. not crowded at all. He fails to call attention to the important fact that our course is completed in three years or at most in five. The German Course requires nine for completion. One can readily conceive, how, with so great a difference in the time allotted for completing the course, the principle of *thoroughness* may be conserved in the German course whilst sacrificed in ours.

4. Where he almost goes the length of apologizing for what he says is perhaps too much of a "concession" to the classical students, in that by making 75 p. c. in Latin and Greek he may pass for his *B* with only 22 p. c ; on every other subject; whereas in point of fact the same is true of an equal number of Mathematical or Scientific subjects. Why then call this a "concession" when the classics are concerned and not when other subjects are in question ? Have the classics no right to be on our H. S. course ? Are they there by virtue of a special concession or privilege ? Or rather have they not been put there by reason of their special fitness for the various purposes of a High School Course ? Here then is in fact a reflection on the classical studies, which I am sure was not intended, but which seems to be the unconscious offspring of a mind much occupied with studies other than the classics, and keenly anxious to maintain or enlarge the place these other studies now hold on the course, and oblivious to the vast and preponderating weight of authority in favor of the classics in any course of advanced study.

To return now to my main point. The chief purpose of any course of training, whether it be for a mechanic, a skilled artizan, a prize oarsman, or even a prize boxer for the ring is the development of innate power. In regard of intellectual

power, this development is brought about by imparting and acquiring knowledge and by the thinking necessary to this acquisition. The information itself in detail soon disappears; it is forgotten. The development, the expansion, the enlargement of mind remains, and it is really what we want. Now observe that this enlargement of mind is not produced by the *extent* or variety of subjects studied, but by the sound intense thinking done on these subjects. So that I will venture to say that the young man's enlargement of mind is, within certain limits, not in direct but in inverse proportion to the extent or area of the vast field of knowledge to which he has devoted his attention. I say within certain limits, for without a fair number of judiciously selected subjects the knowledge necessary to mental expansion cannot be pursued. And let us not forget that whilst in the young, facts are stored up with marvellous rapidity, the cultivation of a sound judgment is a slow process and requires time. Hence, in conclusion, I say that the framer of a course of H. S. studies must keep in mind a two-fold necessity, i. e., the necessity of a judicious variety in the subjects placed upon the course, and thus the necessity of giving the pupil sufficient time to put upon each subject the work required to derive from it the vigor of mind and maturity of judgment of which he is capable. A course balanced by the bearing in mind of this two-fold necessity ought to produce the best possible results

In respect of the distinction I have drawn between information and training this remark seems pertinent, that the C. S course has for its purpose primarily the acquiring of knowledge. The child is yet too young for much mental training to be going on. The habit of reflection is not yet sufficiently developed. In the H. S., however, the state of things is reversed. The young pupil is now capable of reflecting on the information acquired, and hence training begins to be the primary end of the work done, whilst imparting information comes in as secondary. It is with the H. S. course I have to deal, and I shall now turn my attention to our own. In this course there are two clearly defined portions. The one is imperative and must be taken up by every young man or woman who wishes to be regarded as a regular H. S. pupil and benefit by the grant to H. S.'s; the other is optional, i. e., the pupil *may* study, if he be so minded, and he probably will study it, provided he gets the time *after* doing the necessary work on the imperative subjects. Here the first thing to strike one is that the optional subjects occupy a position of inferiority as compared with the other subjects. We would therefore suppose that for working out the purposes of a H. S. course of studies they were of secondary utility. The facts are, however, the other way, and I shall claim your indulgence whilst I give a few reasons why these subjects should occupy the leading place on any course of H. S. studies. I refer particularly to the Latin and Greek classics, and the reasons which I shall give for their study I cull from Professor Howard Murray's excellent inaugural address before the faculty and students of Dalhousie College on September 20th, 1894. This address, by the way, I regard as marking a turning point in our Provinces in the discussions relative to the merits of classics as subjects for profitable study. And I should like to see a copy of it in the hands of every H. S. teacher in the Province. But to my reasons for the study of the classics:

1. One cannot realize fully the grammatical force of many usages and constructions in his own language without comparing them with those of some second language.

2. Our English vocabulary owes much—very much—to the classical languages, and hence, to get at the exact meaning of thousands of words in our language, to detect the difference in the shading of synonyms, a knowledge of the classics is necessary.

3. The classics are the best models of literary style. And hence, if you ask our modern masters of style, our orators, our poets or prose writers, our Burkes, Pitts, Broughams, or Newmans, or if you wish to go to the continent and enquire of Bossuet, Massillon, Bourdalons, Molière, Signori, and countless others, to what

they owed the style which made their names famous, they will tell you it was an assiduous study of the classics.

4. We must not forget that without a thorough practical knowledge of English all other knowledge becomes more or less useless to the H. S. student. Now there is positively no better exercise in English composition than translation from a foreign language, under a competent master. In translation one has to clothe the thoughts of a foreigner in fitting English words. It therefore affords a continuous exercise in, and a stimulus to, the choice of the most suitable English words to express the foreign author's meaning. But the correct use of words is the chief aim of all composition.

5. Literature, history and biography are perhaps the most useful of all studies. They bring us into contact with other minds and in doing so develop our own. They put us in touch with the lives of nations and individuals and thus help us to shape the destinies of our own. The classics are literature, history and biography. They therefore broaden our minds, enlarge our sympathies, break down narrowness, they make us acquainted with the means by which nations rose to greatness, and the causes that led to their fall. In a word they supply us with just that tool of knowledge which is required to make intelligent, useful, good citizens. And this is what we need in a country with representative institutions, more perhaps than men skilled in the industrial pursuits.

7. Language has an advantage over mathematics and science in the formation of moral character, and here let me quote from Prof. Murray's address: "In the "literature of Greece and Rome are to be found the most memorable examples of "all the virtues, examples of courage, of constancy, of endurance, of filial affec- "tion, of love of country. The boy who reads of these, even in an English "translation can hardly fail to be touched and influenced by them, but when read "in the language of the people themselves they are far more likely to enter into "him and form a part of his being." Then he quotes from Dr. Thomas Arnold, who wrote to a former pupil as follows: "If one might wish for impossibilities, "I might then wish that my children might be well versed in the physical "sciences, but in due subordination to the fullness and freshness of their know "ledge on moral subjects. This, however, I believe cannot be; wherefore, rather "than have it (the sciences) the principal thing in my son's mind, I would gladly "have him think that the sun went round the earth and that the stars were so "many spangles set in the bright blue firmament."

8. The study of the classics is an excellent discipline for the mind. It gives exercise to all the faculties brought into play by almost all the other studies combined, and it does so with thoroughness. This is very well brought out by Prof. Murray, and any one who has taught the classics will bear him out. He says: "Let us see what is brought into play in the making out of a Latin "sentence. First there is the *memory* in recalling the meaning of words previously "met, then *observation* and *comparison* in noting the cases of nouns, pronouns and "adjectives, and determining which adjective goes with which noun, in noting the "voice, mood, tense, number and person of verbs, &c., then *reason* and *judgment* "in deciding for example why this noun is in the genitive case and that one in "the ablative, why one verb is in the subjunctive mood and another in the infinitive, "why one of the third personal pronouns is used in one clause and a different one in "the next, why the same conjunction is followed by an indicative mood in one "place and by a subjunctive in another; finally *discrimination* and *taste* must be "exercised in the choice of words and their arrangement in translating into "English."

The classics should therefore not occupy a position of inferiority on our course. On the contrary, they should hold the place of honor. Listen to what the Committee of Ten have to say as to the relative merits of courses which give a prominent place to the classics and those which do not. "Although the com- "mittee thought it expedient to include among the four programmes, one which

"included neither Latin nor Greek, and one which included only one foreign "language (which might be either ancient or modern), they decided to affirm "explicitly their unanimous opinion that, under existing conditions in the United "States *as to the training of teachers* and the *provision of the necessary means of* "*instruction*, the two programmes called respectively English and Modern Lan- "guages (in which there is little or no classics) *must in practice be distinctly* "*inferior to the other two*" (in which the classics are strongly represented). The italics are mine.

But how are we to secure for the classics a deserving place on the course? It is evident that we must have recourse to a compromise, for other subjects too have their claims to a representation upon it. What we want is a course composed of the classics and other subjects, as many in all as the student of average ability can find the time out of class to prepare a good lesson upon. In regard of the present course I claim,—and my claim is based on actual experience in the class-room—that the student of average ability cannot prepare a good lesson in the classics after he has done the required work on the imperative subjects. To remedy this state of things I venture to make some suggestions just to show the lines along which I should proceed in modifying the course and not necessarily with the hope that all or any of them may be adopted.

1. I should shorten the work prescribed in Arithmetic. Such subjects as do not involve the explanation of new principles or are of little practical use, I should omit entirely. For example, I should omit the chapter on *Inexact Division, Cube Root, Practice, Compound Interest, Stocks and Shares, Alligation, Exchange, Ratio and Proportion* and *Measurement of Areas.* No student who has mastered the rest of the Arithmetic—I refer to Hamblin Smith—can have the slightest difficulty in mastering these chapters by himself, should he ever need them. If he should never need them, the time spent upon them in class is practically wasted.

2. Drawing, in so far as its general principles go, ought to be finished in the Common School, and pursued in the High School only in connection with, and to aid other studies as Geometry, Geography, etc. That there is enough time for this study in our C. S., anyone may convince himself, who looks up our C. S. course. There he will find drawing prescribed for eight years. Who will say that in the hands of a capable teacher the pupil of our C. S. cannot grasp the principles of Drawing in eight years? This, of course, is the rule. We have not yet got our capable teacher,—at least capable in this subject—in our Common School. But we hope to have him soon. We ought to take measures to have him as soon as possible. We need him. He will save us lots of time and money. The same may be said of the teacher of Botany and in general of the Natural Sciences. Young men and women well trained as teachers of these subjects would save money to the province. Our present machinery is, however, totally inadequate to the production of these teachers. Something ought to be done to place good methods of teaching Drawing and the Sciences within more easy reach of our prospective teachers. When that is done, a large part of the difficulty of providing a properly balanced H. S. course will have vanished. For:—

3. Then the elements of the Natural Sciences, including sufficient Botany for any one who does not wish to make a specialty of it, could be studied in the C. S. and the H. S. be relieved of a great deal of work it must now do, if it is to be done at all.

4. Further relief could probably be given by a reduction of the work in other subjects, e. g., in physiology, or by a slight re-arrangement of subjects, without impairing the general efficiency of the course.

5. If after all this relief has been afforded the H. S. Course it be still found too crowded with other subjects to admit of a thorough study of some classical subject, I should not hesitate to grant real options or, as some wish to call it, substitutions, as between some classical and some scientific or even some mathematical

subjects, or between some scientific and mathematical subjects. In this I should be following the suggestion of the Committee of Ten when, on page 50 of their report, they say: "Again the commercial and industrial subjects do not appear "on these programmes, but Book-keeping and Commercial Arithmetic are provided "for by the option for Algebra, Table III; and if it were desired to provide more "amply for subjects thought to have practical importance in trade or the useful "arts, it would be easy to provide options in such subjects for some of the Science "contained in the third or fourth years of the English programme." In the plan I've outlined the liberty which is now allowed the pupil of treating some subjects of the course as major subjects for study and others as minor or subsidiary, would remain untouched. No pupil should be prevented, so far as the course goes, from taking up a branch for study because it would be optional, The advisability of his taking it or not would have to be decided after consulting with the local authorities of each H. S., with whom it would be highly expedient to leave much discretionary power in such matters.

These are the observations I have to make on our present correlation of H. S. studies. They are by no means revolutionary. They suggest simply modifications of our present system of correlation. They are offered for what they may be worth, and I trust they will be received by you all in the spirit in which they are made, a spirit actuated by the desire to be helpful, if I can, to my fellow-teachers,—for I, too, am a teacher,—in the important and ardous work of forming the mind and character of the youth of this province.

J. B. Calkin, A., M., Principal Normal School: Mr. President,—I almost think that I have a grievance. I seem to be summoned here without an object. There remains not a stalk of standing corn, the sheaves are all gathered in, and the field is bare. Would that some good angel had said to the reapers,—Let fall some handfuls for the gleaner.

J. B. Calkin, M. A., Principal, Normal School.

Without figure, what should have been said has been said and it has been well said. My presence here seems without sufficient cause. Hence you will pardon

me if I repeat some things which have been already stated, and if in my extremity I sometimes seem to wander in fields remote from that which you have been invited to explore.

I rejoice, Mr. President, as I am sure every true-hearted Nova Scotian must rejoice, in the educational progress of our country. Especially, sir, during recent years have we seen most pronounced and healthy growth in our high schools and academies. This advancement in secondary education is marked both as regards quantity and quality. The number of pupils in our high schools has increased, these schools are equipped with a larger and better qualified teaching staff, and the work done is of higher character and more germane to the aims and purposes of the high school. Not least among the elements of progress in which we should rejoice is that uniform, impartial, and on the whole satisfactory system of examination by which are tested the results of the work done in our high schools. But perhaps the most hopeful feature is that, with all our advancement, there still remains a restless eagerness for something better. It may be that at times there is an unreasoned and unreasonable impatience over the character of the work, which seems to those whose honest efforts are impugned like unmitigated querulousness. While the workers should be awakened through this criticism to greater circumspection, it would be well for the fault-finders to remember that destruction involves less organized effort than construction, that it is always easier to tear them down than to build up.

The subject under discussion is many-sided and of commanding interest. Indeed it is so many-sided that it is difficult to determine what particular phase of it claims our chief attention at the present time. While the term Correlation of studies is comparatively new in pedagogical literature, it is used in somewhat different senses by different persons. By some it is made interchangeable with co-ordination, unification, and concentration. This looseness is not calculated to promote precision of thought. Co-ordination seems to imply adjustment of elements or forces so as to secure harmonious results. We may co-ordinate studies so that their combind influence shall secure well balanced development. Unification reduces many to one through some common underlying principle. Thus the various features of a country which might find a distinct place under the various subjects, physiography, climatology, mineralogy, botany, zoölogy, ethnology, and civics are unified in a geography lesson through their common relation to the civilization which is characteristic of the country. Concentration, again, consists in the selection of some one subject as a centre to which all other subjects are so related, or are supposed to be related, as to be taught through this central subject. Concentration is unification through the subordination of all other subjects to some one primary subject. Correlation seems to be something different from any and all of these. Its adjustments have wider range. It has regard to the studies as they are related to each other and as they are related to the learner, adapting them to his present mental condition, to his environment, his mental development, and his needs for life's practical work.

Proper correlation of high school studies must take account of the knowledge and mental condition of the pupil when he leaves the common school. There should be a connection and a continuity in the various steps, so that there shall be no hiatus in passing over from one stage to another. There should be such a logical selection and arrangement of studies for the various stages, that the beginning and each succeeding stage may be anticipated by an apperceiving intelligence already developed through the work which has preceded. In other words the various subjects and the different topics of each subject should be so arranged and so taught that the new may be adequately interpreted by the old, and the old may be fully unfolded by the new.

The unity of knowledge has been well shown by the Superintendent of Education. Like the properties of matter in natural objects all knowledges are related and unified. The dividing lines by which we separate them are in large measure

artificial and arbitrary, adopted in adaptation to our limited capacities. Knowledge is many-sided, but we should not mistake its various aspects for distinct entities. The best teaching is that which shows most fully and most clearly the lines of contact at which the various sides touch each other. Teachers often blunder by isolating the various subjects of the course of study, treating them as so many distinct and unrelated things, each complete in itself, instead of being a part of one great whole.

I suspect that it is here that our departmental system has its chief weakness. The one-man high school may make rich compensation for its weakness by inspiring its pupils to independent effort. This is indeed a true test of teaching power, securing to our pupils the desire to know and the ability to learn; the power of making ourselves useless to our pupils by making them independent of our help. But I was about to call attention to a weakness in our best equipped high schools, arising out of the very fulness of their strength. Each teacher has a subject to himself, which it is his great aim to isolate and treat as if it were not only the chief thing worth knowing, but the only thing to be known. He not only fails to recognize any broad responsibility in regard to the full all-round education of his pupils, but he is too much inclined to overlook the great importance of showing how his subject is related to other subjects and of teaching it through the aid of these other subjects. This is wholly and ruinously wrong. The different teachers in the high school should each keep his eye to the finished product. Each should feel a responsibility for every subject in the course and aim to give direct aid in the teaching of all subjects. The teacher, unaided by assistants, is compelled to be ever on the alert, that he may make each subject help every other subject, and see that all subjects fit in to each other as complementary parts of one whole.

But, Mr. President, having said this much on unification of studies, I must add a word in explanation of my position. I may have seemed to be approaching fatally near the all-engulfing whirlpool of concentration. I assure you, sir, that I am under the influence of no such centralizing force. My craft is moving in smooth waters, propelled in direct line by wind and tide and oar. I recognize no study of such wide capacity or unifying force that it can take in without mutilation all other subjects. We read that Aaron's rod, transmuted to a serpent, swallowed up all the magician's snakes at a single meal. This I believe. But I have no faith in the educational python, call it correlation, unification, concentration, or whatever else you please, which, under the guise of history, geography, Robinson Crusoe, or any other member of the family, assumes to embrace everything within its encircling folds. We may, and we should, illustrate and enforce each subject by other subjects. We should show how various subjects are related to each other, and we may often economically combine two or more subjects with advantage to each. But to take any one subject as a fixed centre and essay to teach everything else through this as a primary subject is quite another thing. I believe in concentration, but I would make each subject in its turn the centre, while all others, for the time being, shall become subordinate.

In relating the work to the pupils' environment the same principle of connection should be recognized. Each locality has its own peculiar physical features which should, to some extent, affect the selection, arrangement, and teaching of the various subjects of the course. Each place has a story of its own to tell of mineral, plant, or animal, and the pupil, by putting his ear close to nature, catches her faintest whisperings and learns her most secret intimations.

A proper correlation of studies takes account of the environment of ideas as well as of objects. It adapts itself to its historical as well as to its geographical setting. The conditions of society are ever changing, and the objects of human interest and sympathy have corresponding variations. Education must change with the ages. As already brought before us through the opening paper, "the civilization into which the child is born determines what he shall study at school." The

subjects most suitable and necessary for an educational course of one period in the history of civilized life may not be adapted for another period. This age of ours is unique for the distinctive character of its knowledge. Our objects of thought and interest have multiplied beyond what our fathers pictured in the highest soaring of their imagination.

Armed with the microscope nothing is so minute as to lie below the range of our observation; while aided by telescope and spectroscope we extend our search to the borders of infinity.

I am in full sympathy with the views expressed by the Superintendent of Education on the importance of opening up to the pupils of our schools an outlook to every point of the horizon. If our schools are to give their pupils that intelligence which they will need to understand the thought and meet the conditions of the world in which they will soon be called on to play their part, they cannot afford to ignore the subjects thrust upon them by the civilization of the closing years of the nineteenth century. We hear much about cram and the multiplicity of subjects with which our course of study is crowded. Will the critics for a little cease their destructive fault-finding and construct for us such an ideal course of study as no one can find fault with.

I maintain that our high schools must aim at broadness; may I not say at broadness rather than profundity? You declare this rank heresy. Think it over Life is many-sided. It has many and varied interests which claim our regard. Preparation for its duties requires a many-sided vision for these varied aspects and a many-sided sympathy for these varied interests. It is true that success demands thoroughness in some one department of knowledge; but so intimately are the knowledges related that no one thing can be known thoroughly without some knowledge of the other things. The fully equipped man must know something of everything and everything of something. The training of specialists is not the function of the high school, and if it were, the pupil has not yet arrived at that stage of intelligence and development when he is prepared to decide on the vocation for which he may acquire special training. He needs the broad vision to aid him in this selection. Further, as the opening paper states, general intelligence widens the field of selection. The more limited course results in the over-crowding of two or three professions.

It has been customary to assign to education two distinct functions, one securing to the pupil ability to contend successfully in the practical affairs of life, and the other securing mental discipline or culture. On this basis subjects of study are classified as useful-knowledge subjects and disciplinary subjects,—the first named class being considered valuable chiefly as aids in fitting their possessor for gaining those things which are needful for bodily sustenance and well-being, while the latter are supposed to minister to our higher spiritual nature, leading our thoughts away from the sensual and grosser material interests and awakening stronger yearnings after a higher and nobler life. This distinction is too well known to require illustration. I wish, however, to ask if we may not easily make too much of it,—press it beyond its legitimate value? I readily concede the two functions of education—utilitarian and disciplinary. But I cannot help thinking that every study yields something of both results, and that a sharp distinction of useful and disciplinary subjects is arbitrary and unsupported by well-grounded reasons. It is difficult to find any subject of which we can assert that a knowledge of it has no appreciable bearing on practical affairs, and still more difficult is it to name one the proper study of which is void of disciplinary effect. Culture and humanism do not necessarily flow from the prosecution of the so-called humanistic studies, nor do they come from this source. A pupil may spend years in declining Latin and Greek nouns, in making crude translations, and in scanning classic verses, and after all be a veritable Philistine. He may read volumes of the choicest literature and yet derive no inspiration from its noble thoughts. Moral development and religious culture are not necessarily secured by the memorizing of moral precepts and the reciting of church catechisms. On the other hand the

profane and worldly bread-and-butter subjects may exercise a powerful influence in determining character. Even arithmetic, for example, barren as it is of moral quality, by its regard for exactitude and patience, may give ethical results of the highest value. The acquisition of science, too, may be vastly more than the perfecting of a machine for securing what we may eat and what we may drink and wherewithal we may be clothed.

In this connection there seems much force in the advice which Ralph Waldo Emerson is said to have given his daughter when she asked him what studies she should pursue at the academy which she was about to enter. "Find out," said he, "who is the best teacher and study what he teaches." Professor Ladd, of Yale, in a recently published article, emphasizes the same truth. "The chief need," he says, "in effecting liberal culture is men. The character of its faculty is that which determines the rank of an educational institution." The benefits of a study as regards culture come not so much from the knowledge of the facts as from the mental awakening that results from the effort of acquisition and from the subsequent processes of analysis, comparison, and synthesis of these facts. As a sciplinary and cultural force the teacher is more than the subject.

And yet, Mr. President, I do not mean to say that all subjects are alike in their cultural influence. On the contrary, I believe that every study exercises its own special influence and leaves its peculiar mark on the character, and hence he who neglects one field of knowledge lacks that something which that portion of knowledge is calculated to secure. The all-round, well-balanced man is developed only by the broad education.

The subject of examination or testing for promotion and graduation needs from me little consideration. All who have had experience in this work, or who give the matter a little thought, must be convinced that no testing which human ingenuity can devise will give universal satisfaction or be perfect in its results. Young students, no more than other people, measure themselves by such rigid, impartial rules as enable them to acquiesce with equanimity in judgments which place barriers to their ambition. It may honestly be conceded, too, that the most carefully planned system of testing has its limitations and defects. I believe that for testing the comparative merits of a class no means is so accurate as the gradually developed estimate of the teacher, arising out of his long-continued daily intercourse with his pupils. But most, perhaps all, teachers are liable to get into ruts. They have their prepossessions and their prejudices. Through these influences they are apt in their teaching as well as in their examining to fall into narrow grooves. Hence it becomes needful to break up their routine by some force from without. The system of examination provided for this province seems as good as can be devised. The drawing up of the questions and the examination of the papers are in the hands of experts,—men of ability and knowledge as well as skill, acquired through long experience in their respective departments.

Inspector Maclellan said he considered the High School course too extensive for the average High School pupil. It, moreover, embraced imperative subjects which for various reasons, parents often wished certain of their children to omit. He considered that there should be a number of optional courses marked out for pupils who had no intention of entering upon the teaching profession, and suggested classical, mathematical, scientific, literary and commercial courses.

The Superintendent of Education said that there were objections to such a plan. It was true that power might be developed by restricted courses, though it was questionable whether even in that respect a restricted course was as good as the fuller course when taught on sound principles. But granting that power was developed it could not be utilized advantageously by those who found themselves hedged in by lack of knowledge of subjects which every one should know. And in the great majority of schools, if not all of them, such an arrangement, instead of lessening the difficulties of teachers, would greatly increase them.

[On account of want of time Prof. Eaton's paper was not read. It is here published in its proper place in the programme].

# THE GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF A GOOD TEXT-BOOK.

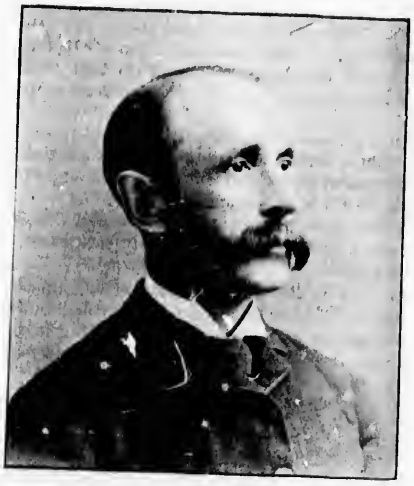
By F. H. Eaton, M. A., Kentville.

The question of text-books is always and everywhere in the administration of a public school system a difficult one to deal with. Frequent changes in and additions to a prescribed list, however carefully prepared, are necessary from time to time partly because modifications in the course of study require such alterations to be made, and partly because new books are constantly appearing which are intrinsically better than the old ones in use.

Apart from the objection to changes in text-books on account of the expense involved, it is difficult to secure unanimity of judgment as to the fittest selection to be made. There is no feature of the system on which every teacher feels himself so well qualified to pass judgment and none in respect to which individual judgment is so apt to be warped and untrustworthy. Daily contact with a book which a teacher dislikes is a constant irritation to him, and its real or fancied defects are often made the scape goat for unsatisfactory results when the fault really lies in the teaching itself. Besides, the constant attention to little things which is necessary in the conduct of daily lessons has a tendency to contract the view and fix the habit of basing judgments upon details rather than upon broader characteristic features. The consequence is that real defects of a text-book of comparatively small importance are often unduly magnified while genuine merits of a comprehensive and dominating character are lost sight of. Hence it is, that necessary or desirable changes in the prescribed list are always more or less vigorously opposed, either on economical grounds or from an habitual or constitutional conservatism that is satisfied with nothing that is not stereotyped. To effect such changes as are deemed necessary—and only those that are necessary—avoiding as far as possible in so doing excusable irritation on the part of the taxpayer who is always jealous of expense that is not voluntarily incurred, so of the teacher who not infrequently considers the work of familiarizing himself with a new text as an imposition, is a task of such delicacy as to require the most reliable expert advice and no little diplomacy as well. The wisdom of the Council of Public Instruction is best shown under such circumstances in not being unduly disturbed by petty carping at books already on the list and in hesitating to adopt recommended substitutes, until assured that a concensus of the best educational opinion is behind the change proposed.

I take it that it is in view of such conditions that the organizers of this meeting's program have selected as one of the subjects for discussion the one assigned to me, in the hope that some suggestions may be thrown out in the paper itself and in the discussion that may possibly ensue—some views expressed—that will be of service to the authorities in their efforts to improve our system of popular education in this regard, and at the same time provide the teachers who use the books with higher standards of criticism and a more rational basis for their judgments upon them.

It is the first duty of a public school system to provide good teachers—the next to prescribe good text books. Our notions of what constitutes a good text book will depend, however, upon what our ideas are of good teaching; and the clearness of our conceptions as to what real teaching consists in will depend upon the knowledge we possess of the nature of the child's mind and the conditions and laws of its activity and growth. It is manifest, therefore, that this subject—the characteristics of a good text book—touches on all sides the most intricate and fundamental problems of pedagogical science. As has just been said the question of first importance is—Have we good teachers? Have we men and women in charge of our schools not only with cultivated hearts and minds and manners but with clear conceptions as well, of what true teaching means, as the world's great teachers, the Arnolds and the Herbarts, the Frœbels and the Pestalozzis have conceived it? And yet the influence of the text book for good or bad upon the school is so strong that whether the work be all done or well done will be determined under ordinary conditions very largely by it.



F. H. Eaton, A M., Kentville.

What is the dominating, regulative force in the average Nova Scotia school-room to-day? Dare we say it is not the text book? What is the most direct and controlling motive? The examination which is to be given on the contents of the text book. With all our modern cant of high sounding educational doctrines it is not always remembered that it is the peculiar office of the teacher to *teach* and not to *coach;* that under the inspiring-directive personality of the teacher the pupil *should* become a self directive individual soul and not a piping parrot. In determining, therefore, what a text book should be like, we must first assign it to its proper place of subordination in the school room life. It is not to be the teacher but simply an instrument to be skilfully used by the teacher in accomplishing the high task to which he sets himself. The next question to settle is the *purpose* of the teaching; whether it is to furnish the child's mind with what may be deemed *useful information;* whether it is to educate him in the broader sense, helping his mental and moral life to develop naturally, healthfully or whether

both of these essentially different ends are to be kept in view; the method to be followed and the means to be used by which a child may be stocked up with an adequate outfit of ready-made practical information with the least expenditure of energy on his and his teacher's part is to a great extent subversive of the laws of healthy mental growth. At the same time it is undoubtedly true that the common school teacher and the text books he uses must in some degree recognize the importance of such information through the loftier educational aim must be kept in view.

In the third place it must be remembered that a text book for the primary school must be essentially different in its general plan from one intended for High school use,—not merely, however, in being more elementary and simple. In the earlier period of school life, the object of teaching is to awaken the faculties into life and activity, while later on is the period of discipline and culture. This distinction the text book maker must clearly recognize.

Again, a different set of faculties must be appealed to in the later stages of common school education from those which in the earlier period the child obtains his knowledge. In the first years of his school life, observation, imagination and memory of things and words, are the connecting forces of mental growth, and later on, reason, reflection and will. Self-determined energy and above all the æsthetic and moral sensibilities, play a more prominent part. It follows then that the methods of the teacher and the characteristics of the text book should correspond in the respective periods, to these important differences in psychological conditions.

Finally, the educative purpose of each separate subject in the school course must be considered. The result aimed at in teaching mathematics for example, as a factor in mind development is so different from that expected from the study of history or of language—the kinds of mental power to be acquired in the different departments of study, are so unlike, that in the nature of things the books themselves must be widely different in the essential features of the plan of their construction. To recapitulate:—

1. A text book is to be in the hands of a teacher who knows how to use it.
2. It must distinguish between knowledge and culture, and must recognize the distinction in the arrangement and treatment of the matter it contains.
3. It must recognize the psychological differences between the child in the primary school and the high school pupil.
4. It should keep in view the peculiar effects in culture that the subject treated is adapted to confer.

### BOOKS FOR THE PRIMARY SCHOOL.

For the purpose of discussion it has been convenient to adopt the not unusual division of the whole public school period into two parts,—the Primary and the Secondary,— the line between them being indeterminately located in the neighborhood of the seventh and eighth grades. And having thus far endeavored to indicate some of the considerations which are preliminary to the main topic of the paper, and which are based upon generally accepted pedagogical canons, I shall now pass on to some of the conclusions which seem to follow logically from them. That the methods of the school-room should be founded upon laws of nature—and that they should conform to the teachings of psychology, no one will probably hazard a doubt. But, with the best of intentions, these teachings may be misunderstood and misinterpreted, *a priori* assumptions may control our opinions, when we fancy we are the most open-minded philosophers in the world. A little while ago it was said that in the earlier school years of a child's life is the period of mind awakening. Some forms of mental activity become earlier available to the teacher's educative efforts than others. This is so determined by the laws of the child's being, and failure on the part of those to whose care his intellectual life has been especially entrusted, to conform to this fundamental psychological

fact must result disastrously. At this age the child is not impelled to healthy positive mental action so much by conscious and intelligent motive as by the charm of pleasing sight, and sound, and touch with which its little world is invested. What is interesting to him he eagerly appropriates. Without that condition his mental life is dwarfed and stunted. If, therefore, his school life is to supply the conditions of normal growth, it must surround him with an atmosphere of *interest*, and the books from which he is taught must above all things else be *interesting*.

There are many people who would banish books from the primary schools entirely. I should say that would depend on the books. Next to the delight of knowing people by actual personal intercourse with them, is the delight of knowing *about* them. So, too, there is a charm and a profit in learning what we can about things when we cannot come to a knowledge of them by direct and personal observation and experience of them. It is the purpose of narrative, biography, history and romance—of literature, in fact, to enlarge the boundary of our interests and our knowledge. We learn through literature what we cannot learn through experience.

There *is* room for school books in the primary school, but they should be classics of child literature, the reading of which will stimulate their imaginations and enlarge for them the world of interest and sympathy. There is no reason why the story book should be banished from the school room to the fireside. Rather, every school book now in primary grades should have for the normal child as much as possible the fascination of the story book. In such a book it is needless to say rules and definitions, categories and classifications, analytical tables, statistics and schedules would have no place.

Again, to the child at least, nature does not classify or pigeon-hole herself. It is the scientist that has done that for his own purpose, and the schoolmaster, who ought to know better, has done the same thing for his children. But it is safe to say that the child had better see nature as she is, and not as the scientist and the schoolmaster have made her over. I would therefore have the primary children taught no physiology, botany, chemistry or physics as separate and distinct branches of science, no grammar or geography as such; but, rather let him learn from nature and from language his science and grammar, without regard to the artificial distinctions made by specialists. But should text-books in these departments be used, and if so, what?

There can be no doubt that the reading of science can in the main best be done from nature herself, without the intervention of the book, by the teacher who knows a little about science and a very great deal about teaching; and if such teachers were always available, I would not be concerned if there were no text-books for them to use; but, in the case of unskilful teachers, or in any case, to supplement the object lessons, I would give them story books of nature for the use of their classes, not for their own use.

If a text book in history is to be prescribed, it should tell the story of the past, with all the charm that personal adventure, dramatic movement and romance invariably have for children. Dry facts, uninteresting details, and chronological tables should not be part of it, and the language should be as nearly as possible faultless in its style, within the limits of the comprehension of those for whom it is intended.

In brief, with one or two exceptions, the books to be used in the primary school should all be readers, not of the ordinary disconnected, scrappy type, but books written from cover to cover throughout the series with direct reference to the cardinal necessity of interesting the child in what he is to be taught. Obviously, arithmetic cannot be made the subject of a reader. If a text book in this subject is needed, it should be simply an Exercise book, without rules, definitions, discussions or illustrative forms. These should be given as far as necessary by the teacher at the blackboard.

BOOKS FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

The purpose of secondary education is, broadly, to give knowledge and discipline—knowledge that will be practically useful and knowledge that will serve as a suitable foundation for subsequent study. The kind of discipline will depend upon the nature of the subject. The text book provided must be adapted to this double purpose, and the special characteristics appropriate to some of them at least will come up for separate consideration.

*Mathematics.*—The purpose of mathematical study in the secondary school is primarily to confer such a knowledge of elementary mathematical principles as will serve as a foundation for advanced mathematical study and incidentally be of use in the ordinary concerns of practical life; secondly, the disciplinary purpose of this branch of school work is to develop—

1. The power to reason closely and accurately—to originate demonstration.
2. The power of concise, exact and comprehensive expression in definition and the statement of principles. To secure satisfactory results in discipline it is obvious therefore that the text book should itself be a model of condensed and pregnant statement. Terms should be defined with scrupulous care, and the theorems proposed for demonstration in language that reveals no kind of vagueness, looseness or inadequacy. The student gains little power of independent reasoning by reading the demonstrations which some one else has elaborated. That power will best be gained under efficient teachers by the use of a text book which contains as few as possible of such elaborated demonstrations—only so many indeed as will furnish the learner with an adequate outfit of models in form of proof and statement.

The text books in geometry in common use in English speaking countries have all this fault,—that too many propositions are proven in full. Indeed it is only recently that the practice of requiring original demonstrations has become general, the study of the subject having been previously limited to reading and committing to memory the proofs of the book. In this way the study has been deprived almost wholly of substantial disciplinary value. Even now when the use of riders, so called, is generally encouraged, the texts themselves do too much work that the students themselves should do. The present prescribed book contains fewer defects of loose and inaccurate language than the book it superseded, and its riders are more judiciously selected and arranged, but it adheres to the traditional number of fully demonstrated propositions, most of which had better be left for the pupil to work out. The ideal text book in geometry would give the enunciations only of most of the propositions with suggestive hints for some of the more difficult steps.

Before beginning the study of geometry from such a book, or indeed in any case, pupils should be familiarized with the more obvious properties and relations of parts in the simpler geometrical forms by means of a course in elementary geometrical drawing.

Our larger arithmetic books are, for the most part, compiled with very little apparent purpose. They add very little to one's knowledge of the science of number and almost nothing to one's stock of practical information. The useful matter they contain is, for the most part, a repetition of the contents of the primary arithmetic, or else is matter that is to be repeated in the books on algebra; while much of the matter is useless lumber, making it an arithmetical curiosity shop filled with musty relics of antiquity,—true discount so called, partnership, alligation, partial payments, equation of payments, *et hoc omne genus*. It is true that the solution of difficult problems in arithmetic may have a fascination for a few students, and that practice in this sort of work will add to their power in this direction; but life is too short and too precious to be spent in such exercises unless they are strictly in the line of progress from the simpler to the higher mathematics.

Arithmetic and Algebra should not be carried along side by side, as separate studies. The science of number is one and not two,—and it is unscientific to the last degree to make two subjects of it—except in so far as it is necessary to give every child a training in elementary properties of numbers and their application in business operations, that fall within the range of ordinary life, whether he studies algebra or not. The advanced arithmetic should go. An elementary arithmetic should of course be on the list, but all that is not strictly practical should be eliminated no matter if irreverence is done to the shades of mathematically biassed school-masters of two hundred years ago. It seems to me a common defect in even the best of our public school algebras, that they *discuss* principles too much. They leave nothing for the pupil to do but read the discussions and make the applications in solving problems.—Thus it seems to me the learner gets only half the benefit from the study that he should. The text book that elaborates every link in the chain of reasoning by which principles are established, robs the study of much of its power, as an effective disciplinary agent.

The field of mathematical study is a series of wooded tablelands rising in successive ranges, one above the other. On these heights there are bracing atmosphere and glorious views, and the student who would gain the points from which he can peer into the unfathomable depths and sweep the boundless horizon or gaze into the immeasurable infinities they reveal, must climb *alone*. The teacher and the text book that do more than point the way and test the firmness of his foot hold as he climbs, are guides to be discharged.

The German practice of having text and problems bound in separate books, has something in its favor,—and yet this point does not strike me as being very material. One thing however is noticeable in German high and common text books—they are generally much smaller than ours of corresponding grade. The reason is that the subject matter is much less thinly spread out than in ours. In the mathematical texts, especially is this condensation of the matter in the way described above carried into effect.

*Science.*—Our science text-books are for the most part too large. They cover in the aggregate more ground than pupils of the High School can do in the time allotted. Considerable reduction might be made in the scientific wonders of the course without loss on educational grounds. Not all science subjects are equally well adapted to give that peculiar kind of training which it is admitted the study of science in general confers. Some are on the course because it is desirable for every one to know something about them. Others are there mainly for their effects in training the mind. For instance: the presence of physiology and hygiene in the course of study is to be justified almost exclusively on the ground that some knowledge of these subjects is of practical importance to every one. With this in view a text-book should be prescribed in which only the most important features of both studies are presented. The work should be pleasantly written in good style, with scrupulous fidelity, of course, to scientific accuracy in every detail. A book about one-third or one-fourth the size of Huxley's physiology formerly on the list would be quite sufficient for the purposes. In a similar way what is called physiography—which should include physical geography, meteorology, geology in part, astronomy so far as it relates to the relations to one another of the parts of the solar system and parts of what goes by the name of physics—constitntes a body of information which all people of very ordinary education should have,—such a book which would be valuable only for the interest it awakens in natural phenomena and for the direct knowledge it gives, and should not exceed three hundred pages.

Physics and chemistry, botany and zoölogy, should all be taught in essentially the same way—by the Laboratory Method,—the former two in the laboratory alone, the latter two in the laboratory and the field. The purpose of these subjects in the High School course is two-fold—to give useful and desirable knowledge and develop forms of culture and mind activity that other studies are not adapted

to give. To meet the first of these requirements, the course of study should be much less ambitious than it is now: much less work should be prescribed; while to meet the second, it is not a question of how much work is done, but how well it is done. The text books, therefore, should be only guides to laboratory study rather than treatises, and they should outline only so much work as can be reasonably expected in the circumstances under which High School work is carried on.

### HISTORY.

It seems to me that the distinction between studying a subject for the training it gives and studying it for the useful knowledge to be gained, should obtain in the matter of history. The history of one's own country every one should know in all its leading lines of development; apart from any thought of the especial culture value of the study of history in general. The book designed to give this necessary knowledge should be at all odds readable—enjoyable as a piece of literature. It should be a work of the highest literary art possible for a book with a didactic purpose, such that the beauties of its style may not lose their charm with the frequent repetition necessary to fix indelibly the story of their national life in the memory of the nation's future citizens. Incidentally, too, the cultivation of a fondness for the study of history in general, would be best promoted by the delight with which the charming literary qualities of the first book studied, might invest the subject. The *penchant* for the study thus acquired will afford the condition necessary for the successful pursuit of history, when it is subsequently followed as a means of culture.

### GEOGRAPHY.

The current method of teaching geography and the text books from which the subject is taught are open to criticism. Too much time is worse than wasted by high school students, in the effort to memorize an enormous mass of geographical statistics of no value as practical knowledge or as material of culture. The knowledge of geographical facts essential to the proper information of well educated people is of a very general character. Facts of position should be learned from outline maps. The general principles of physical geography should be taught with, and as a branch of physiography. Geographical statistics should be relegated for reference to the gazetteer, while so so-called descriptive geography should be presented in a literary form embodied in books to be read with interest rather than to be memorized as uninteresting tasks.

### CONCLUSION.

In this paper I have endeavored to emphasize the fundamental importance of determining the type-features of school texts by the canons of a sound pedagogy:—Their mechanical features are of only less importance than the plan and treatment of the subject matter. Every book should be substantially and attractively bound; the paper stock should be of good quality; and the typography bold, clear and generally pleasing in its appearance. The subject-matter should be presented in a manner which will conform to the main purpose of the book, whether that be to convey the knowledge necessary for intelligent living, or to establish the rudimentary foundations of future study in specific departments, or to confer discipline and culture directly. Due regard must be had to the varying psychological conditions under which the instruction is to be given, and as far as possible the books themselves must offer neither pupil nor teacher any temptation to irrational methods in school work with which books designed chiefly to furnish material for examination stuffing abound. For want of conformity to such standards, many of our prescribed books should speedily be replaced by others.

*5th session—THURSDAY.*

For this Session the Association was divided into two sections.

COMMON SCHOOL SECTION.

Inspector Morse presided.

# THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE ART SPIRIT IN OUR LAND.

BY O. A. SMITH, INSTRUCTOR OF DRAWING, NORMAL SCHOOL, TRURO, N. S.

Verily it is true that man cannot live by bread alone; no sooner are the bare necessities for existence obtained than a desire for something more, something greater manifests itself; life becomes more and more a thing of the higher senses. The lower animals may be, indeed many of them are content with a mere existence, are satisfied with sustenance received through the mouth alone, but civilized men and women must be fed through the eye, the ear, the mind and the heart as well. Happily we cannot bring against the education of to-day the charge that it concerns itself too much about what men in distant ages and with limited perceptions have said and written and done with reference to the earth they inhabit, the beliefs they held and the passing circumstances which surrounded them. Ours is an intensely practical age, and the educators of to-day are heroically striving to steer the educational ship safely and successfully past the shoals and quicksands of prejudice, and old-time ideas into the broad ocean of a broader education; one adapted to the needs of the youth of our time; an education in fact which has for its aim the development of the whole being and not a part.

Of comparatively recent date is the introduction of drawing into our public school curriculum. Let us pause just here and ask why this subject should be thought worthy a place in a course of study already full to over-flowing? The question admits of but one reply, I think, viz., that the conditions of the times demand its recognition, for it is universally acknowledged to be a necessary and valuable element in education, and unless we are willing to fall far behind in the march of educational progress we shall be compelled to give the subject of drawing more attention than we have ever done heretofore. It is not enough that it is one of the prescribed subjects, it must be made a *living* part of a great whole. A child who cannot draw the forms of objects which his eye sees as readily as he can write or repeat the words which his ear hears is only half educated, for only half his natural powers have been educed.

At the Universal Exhibition of 1851 England found herself almost at the bottom of the list among all the countries of the world in respect of her manufactures. Only the United States among the great nations stood below her. At the Paris Exposition of 1867 England stood among the foremost, and in some branches of

manufacture distanced the most artistic nations, thus in less than twenty years a wonderful change took place in the money value of the manufactures of England. It had become evident, partially through the wider outlook and deeper self-knowledge gained through the International Exhibition, that it was not enough for the nation's prosperity to train a few good designers in special fields of work but that some appreciative knowledge of art principles must be diffused among the people at large if these very designers were to work to the best purpose; and this necessarily led to a broadening of the new art instruction.

In 1870 shortly after the Paris Exposition Massachusetts took the first definite step officially made in America, towards the recognition of art in public education. To-day the value accruing to the country from that step cannot be estimated, the industrial advantages alone are not to be stated in commensurable terms.

To a few far-seeing men who from European experience saw that their country was far behind the times in the promotion of art, and that this materially affected the commercial prosperity of the nation, and its character as an educated people, is traceable the movement in art education in Massachusetts. These men realized that the natural progress of manufactures and the accumulation of wealth by the people required increased skill in the workmen, that every branch of manufacture was suffering from want of intelligence and skill, also that millions of dollars were sent out of the country every year for articles that might be produced cheaper at home if they only had skilled designers. Accordingly an Act was passed by the legislature of that state, which made elementary drawing a compulsory subject of instruction in every public school in that state.

The same Act imposed on all cities and towns which had a population of more than ten thousand, the additional duty of providing free instruction for adults in evening classes, in the subject of industrial drawing. As a result of this movement, the art pulse throbs throughout the length and breadth of that great republic to-day: is felt to its remotest corner, and though only yet in its infancy is an influence in the land which will tell, must tell on the next generation. But our friends across the border, realizing that art education from a strictly utilitarian point of view,—nothing more or less than the gaining of commercial and industrial advantages through a wide-spread facility in drawing, is too narrow a view, and commonplace an aim, as viewed in the light of an enlarged experience, and higher educational ideas, with that progressive spirit which has ever characterized them, have set themselves the task of enlarging it by giving the æsthetic side of art more attention. They claim, and justly, that there is something more to be desired than just the material conditions of continued personal existence; that men are waking to a sense that there is more to be got out of life, than its material necessities, that bodily continuance is not all that life has in store. The plea is a reasonable one, for life that is not enjoyed, is only half lived.

The aspiration towards the higher enjoyment of life is every day impelling labor to at once express it and minister to it, and thinking persons must acknowledge that there is an ever increasing ingenuity and skill in the expression, through the crude material, of the love of beauty. Let us take advantage of this to further the development of the true art spirit in our land, for the present age is confessedly given over to materialistic science, it is the age of machinery, an increase of the spiritual element is needed to keep the balance true.

Let us emulate the example of our American cousins, and see to it that we cultivate the aesthetic side of our nature while we neglect not the practical side.

At present there is almost nothing being done for the promotion of art in this beautiful broad Dominion of ours. Only recently was I deeply pained by the answer which I was forced to give to the following question put by the President of the Art Association of Toronto: "Please tell me what is being done for the promotion of art in the public schools of Nova Scotia?" The question was a pertinent one, for it is through the children in the public schools that this work must be accomplished. The children of all classes spend, during the most plastic

period of their lives, nearly half their waking hours in the schoolroom, and it is there that we must seek to surround them with refining influences, and instil into their very being a love for the beautiful and a desire for culture. It can be done, indeed is being done in many European schools to-day; then let us no longer rest content with bare school-rooms, nor yet with cheap chromos, poor prints of hackneyed mottos, put up simply for decoration. We want only the *best* things in art, just as we want only the best text-books in our schools. A few reproductions of acknowledged *art value*, some casts, and one or two busts of noted persons, would do much to cultivate that individual love of beauty which should be recognized as a no less necessary part of the training of children than a cultivation of a love of truth and goodness.

Having thus briefly referred to some of our needs, let me make a few suggestions as to how I think they may be met.

Never in the history of education was there so much attention given to child-study as at the present day. Educators who have to do with the work of schools have studied the child on the one side, and nature, art and the social tendencies on the other, for helps in solving the difficult educational problems which confronts them. Its completion, it is needless to say, has not yet been reached, but it is being sought after in the right direction. It is being sought through bringing the child into more direct relations with his natural environments, leading him to see more of the beauty and significance of the two worlds into which he was born, nature and art. It is being sought through the cultivation of his creative powers, through encouraging his self-activity in creative work, and also through the expression of his higher nature in that creative work. As a means to this end the use of clay is strongly to be commended. Col. F. W. Parker says of clay modelling, that it is the best means of developing the one predominating intellectual sense, that of touch. Let us then give it a place in our elementary schools, and let no one say that time spent in modelling is time mis-spent, for besides the benefit to the child, the teacher is helped by gaining an insight into the child's mind through the expression of its ideas in the clay. Children love to work with clay, and as it may be obtained in almost every county in this province, there is no obstacle in the way of its use. Paper folding and cutting and the use of color are of much æsthetic value to children, as all teachers who have used them can testify. To quote Parker again, "Form is absolutely indespensable to all study, all knowledge, therefore the study of form by drawing is of great importance." Some one has said that technical skill should be preceded by faithfulness in observation and intelligent intimacy of perception. In primary schools the perception of form should be the basis of instruction. I would therefore carry modelling and drawing side by side in the school room till the sense of touch and also the sense of form were well developed. Frœbel has said "The world of Art is the visible revelation, and expression of the invisible spirit of man." When we fully understand the meaning of this statement we shall more clearly understand the bearing of art on secondary education. What our young people need after they possess a fair amount of elementary knowledge, and have been trained to habits of self-expression and self-control, is to bring them into a realization of the two worlds which surround them, the world of nature, and that other world of art which has grown out of the spiritual life of man. I know of nothing better calculated to do this than the study of historical ornament.

The study of art as the expression of men's spiritual development. How it has grown through the centuries and has gradually expanded. The study of the development and decline of ideals of beauty and truth, which is in fact needed to interpret history. Not only since the beginning of history, but long before there was such a thing as written record, when our forefathers were content to wrap themselves in the skins of their prey, while they carved strange devices out of the bones, for ornaments, the work of man's hands, his art, useful or ornamental or

both in one, has been the natural outward expression of his life-experience. The art of a people is found to be a true exponent of the life of that people, and if our advanced classes are to study general history at all, it should be done along the line of ethical ideas and ideals. The way to make the study of history most intelligible and most valuable in these classes I believe, is to be reached through a fuller realization on the part of educators and teachers of the needs and opportunities of art instruction.

Consider for a moment the mighty drama of humanity that is written down in the art of the people of southern Europe, and let us ask ourselves what we know of ancient Egyptian civilization, the earliest to which we have any satisfactory key, but what we have learned through a study of her temples, tombs, and sculptural monuments; from it we have been able practically to reconstruct the whole fabric of the most influential and advanced civilization of thousands of years ago. I might refer to the life of ancient Greece and Rome, as read through their art, but enough has been said to show the value of the study of art in connection with the study of history Ornament is as old as the human race, if we hunt for the beginning we shall be led back to Eden. All along down through the ages, mankind has craved ornament.

In a civilized state of society, ornament is intimately connected with every-day life, it meets us in our homes, on the street and in our daily business transactions. In poverty or wealth we come face to face with it. In the business world, tasteful ornamentation is money in the pocket of the carpenter, the cabinet maker, weaver, dyer, paper-stainer, potter, silversmith, blacksmith, and all dealers in, and producers of, the products of these trades. Since it thus makes demands on all classes of society, it should be studied by all, not that all may become expert designers but that all may know good designs from bad, and be able to select dress, furniture and home embellishments in accordance with the established laws of good taste. Here the study of historical ornament is indispensable, for it is the grammar of all ornament.

In making these suggestions I have done so conscious of the many obstacles, real or imaginary, in the way of their being carried out, but if in any degree I have succeeded in awakening the educators of our country to a sense of our great needs, and above all to the importance of public art education, I shall have no fear for its promotion in the near future. A few hundred dollars judiciously expended would do much to further the work in this province, and would return value a thousand fold.

In broadening the basis of education by the addition of the elements of science and art, to the subjects of instruction in our schools, we give opportunities not otherwise obtainable for reaching the faculties of peculiarly constituted minds, and place within the reach of all the first steps of many useful careers, and thus guard against a waste of human life, and at the same time pave the way for greater intelligence and refinement generally.

This paper was discussed by Mr. Andrews, Miss Graham, Mr. McArthur, and others.

*Prov. Normal School Staff.*

PROF RUSSELL.
PRIN. CALKIN.

NORMAL SCHOOL.

MISS SMITH.
PROF. SMITH.

DR. HALL.

PROF. MCDONALD.

MISS KING

Miss B. M. King, teacher of Elocution and Music at the Normal School, Truro, read a paper on "Music in the Public Schools."

Of this paper the Halifax *Herald* had the following report:—

"In dulcet tones, as musical as her subject, she charmed the audience while she showed what could be accomplished by aid of the tonic-sol-fa system of music in teaching children of the common schools. She illustrated her method with a number of ladies that had no previous knowledge of the subject. Her paper was very interesting and produced good effect."

The paper was illustrated by a lesson in tonic-sol-fa given to a class of young ladies.

Miss King's paper could not be secured for publication. Its place is therefore taken by a paper on Tonic-sol-fa by Miss Burgoyne, in order to preserve the unity of the programme.

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## THE TONIC-SOL-FA SYSTEM.

By Miss N. A. Burgoyne, Windsor.

Let us examine the Tonic-sol-fa system before pronouncing judgment upon it.

Some teachers say they do not like it, and on enquiry we find that they have not taken the trouble to look into its merits. Long ago doubts were entertained by a part of the musical world as to the soundness of the system, but a great change of opinion in its favour has set in. Musical scientists are all on its side, and some of the most advanced staff-notationists loud in its praise. We could quote the expressed opinions of many celebrated musicians such as Sir John Stainer, Dr. Stannard, Henry Leslie, A. J. Ellis, F. R. S., Orton Bradley, Mrs. Curwen, and hosts of others, and find them all giving warmest commendation to the Tonic-sol-fa.

Mrs. Curwen says (and there are teachers of note in Halifax and other cities of Nova Scotia who agree with her) that she advises a year of Tonic-sol-fa training as preparatory to piano lessons.

Sometimes the Inspector visits a school and sees staff music written on the board. Well, that is all right. Either of the two systems is allowed by the C. P. I. But you cannot show as good results with the old notation in the same amount of time.

But what makes the tonic-sol-fa such a desirable system?

*First.* Its simplicity. It is adapted to all, from the infant to the adult.

*Second.* It is a time-saving method. Music has been on our school course for years, but a very small percentage of our children have been taught to sing. Why? Because the staff notation required so much time to master it. But *delightful* music may be produced in a year by the tonic-sol-fa method, without any undue encroachments on the time allotted to the other work.

*Thirdly.* It gives infinite pleasure to the children. As there is no drudgery connected with it, they hail their music lesson with delight.

*Fourthly.* It gives the children a power of expression and purity of tone as nothing else does. Rote-singing is much better than none, but it has a tendency to coarsen the voice.

*Fifthly.* It oils the machinery of school-life, and acts as an incentive to good work. Inspectors say that schools found doing good work in music, are invariably well up in their other studies.

*Sixthly.* It strengthens pupils in habits of attention and concentration. The hand signs are very valuable on this account.

*Seventhly.* The music which we are teaching the little ones is carried to their homes, and the study is often taken up in the family and becomes a source of great pleasure to them all.

*Eighthly.* Much tonic-sol-fa literature can be obtained at a low cost.

Many more reasons could be given in favor of the prescribed system, but these are enough to justify its use.

We do not expect to make great singers like Patti and Sims Reeves, any more than we aim to make great artists when we teach our children to draw; yet there is always a chance of discovering a talent which is worthy of cultivation, and our

Miss N. A. Burgoyne, Windsor.

notation will not block the way of one possessed of this talent, but, on the contrary, will help him toward his goal.

This notation is young in our country. In the United States it is a young and vigorous youth. In the old countries it is more advanced in life, but increasing in vigour and popularity all the time. In England, at the present time, over two million school children are being taught to read music at sight by this method. Six millions, including adults, sing by it in the old home-country. Crystal Palace concerts are given yearly by several thousand children all singing by the tonic-sol-fa system.

This method is wonderfully adapted to church music. The Church of Scotland uses ten sol-fa copies of the hymn book to one of the staff-notation. This system has found its way into nearly every part of the world. It is taught in the New

England Conservatory of Music, in the Michigan University, and now we have it in our Common Schools of Nova Scotia.

Now having considered the merits of this beautiful notation (and *beautiful* is the word to apply to it, as you become more and more acquainted with it, and consequently in love with it), shall we not take up the work with more courage and cheerfulness, and dismiss the coldness and lack of interest of the past. But how shall we begin? Learn a little well, teach it well, and keep somewhat in advance of your pupils, and you will be surprised at the result. You will find the aid you need in "The Teachers' Companion" and "The Standard Course."

Commence. Hang up a modulator, and begin, for the approach to a subject is half the battle. Having begun, you and your pupils will have a desire to go on. Then preparing for certificates gives an excellent plan of work. Get ready for the examiner, even if you do not expect him to come your way.

But what about those who cannot sing? Of those there are very few; and they may give the sound from any simple instrument, such as a dulcimer or concertina. If there are teachers with neither ear nor voice, they must get some one to do the work for them and give some teaching in exchange. But nearly every one who can speak can be taught to sing. The same voice-box produces both speech and song; but the training must commence early. What a grand influence for good, music is! How it softens and humanizes the world and helps it to hear the voice of God. Let us do our share in making the world better and leading it upward thro' the channels of music to God.

# KINDERGARTEN—HOW CAN ITS PRINCIPLES BE MADE TO VITALIZE PRIMARY WORK?

By Mrs. S. B. Patterson, Director of the Model School Kindergarten, Truro.

The introduction of Frœbel's educational principles in our schools would involve a radical change, materially affecting even our academies and colleges. A few experiments performed by the teacher at the beginning of the term would not then cover the sin of a whole year's course of cramming in chemistry; nor would our college graduates turn faint-hearted at the prospects of having to teach a practical lesson in mineralogy because of their inability to recognize and name common specimens, of which they possessed merely book-knowledge

But the greatest change that would result from the adoption of these so-called "Kindergarten" principles would appear in the earlier periods of school work. I would like just here to call attention to the fact that many educationists are undoubtedly prejudiced against such an innovation by the undue use of the term "Kindergarten," as applied to the principles of education indicated by Frœbel. Without making a careful study of the matter, they hastily conclude that because play holds a prominent place in the Kindergarten, therefore the adoption of Kindergarten principles must involve an imaginary royal road to learning, and they look upon the whole scheme as a sort of diluted, sweetened, and enervating course of instruction. Their mistake arises, no doubt, from the compounding of laws or principles with the methods of applying them. The method suited to the young child must be materially changed as he matures, else we would be found sinning against the first great principle of seeking his development through his spontaneous self-activity.

The play of the Kindergarten is embraced as a means, and not an end. Because it is the natural element in which the child lives, it is adopted to win his attention and secure his interest. Through it the little child's whole being, physical, mental, and moral, can be naturally developed. But "to everything there is a season," and though the love of fun remains with most of us to old age, yet the spirit of childish play gives way gradually to the growing desire for work of one kind or another. At first it is so mixed up with the play that only the thoughtful student of child-nature can discern it, yet, if wisely fostered, this love of work becomes the most powerful agent in the development of the human being.

Hand-work of different kinds is constantly made use of in the Kindergarten, but not in a desultory manner. It is given mainly for the purpose of affording the child the means of expressing the ideas which he has gained through the use of the logically arranged sequence of objects with which he plays. The teacher is thus enabled to judge correctly of the results of his instruction by the practical application which the child makes of the knowledge received. This work also intensifies the impressions made upon the child's mind, by arousing his interest, and awakening certain old knowledge which is related to the new, and which combines with it. The hand and eye are also trained to serve the mind efficiently.

We all know that the expression of an idea causes it to become more clear and definite, and that expression by *doing* is in many cases more effectual than by speech. With children, doing is a more easy and natural method of expression, first, because of their lack of sufficient language to make known their thoughts, and secondly, because of the vague and indefinite character of their ideas. Doing is the most effective agency in the unfolding of thought.

Hand-work, such as clay-modeling, paper-cutting, weaving, cardboard modeling, coarse sewing, drawing, painting, gardening, and wood-work, with collecting and arranging of specimens, could all be introduced into primary schools with excellent results, in connection with nature-study, involving practical use of the knowledge gained on such points as form, color, number, size, weight, density, measurement, etc. The child would thus be prepared later on to take special studies with greater intelligence, and time would be gained in the higher grades.

One of the greatest obstacles to this change lies in the prevailing sentiment, that until he learns to read the child can make no advance worth mentioning in his education. The feeling is that when this is attained the treasures of knowledge are open to him. But we hold that he will be immensely better prepared to appreciate and enjoy these treasured stores, if he has had some previous experience in personal investigation.

Nearly three thousand years ago it appears to have been discovered by that wise king whose glory it was to "search out a matter," that experimental study was the only basis of living knowledge. In his personal study of plants, of animals, of birds, of creeping things, of fishes, he found unity, saw cause and effect, read symbolic lessons for mankind, and was led to exclaim of the Creator, "He hath made everything beautiful in his time." This wise student and preacher has written to us "excellent things in counsels and knowledge," not least among which may be ranked the warning sent down through the ages that "much study," or "*reading*," as the marginal rendering gives it, "is a weariness of the flesh." He might have added that in many cases it is as unprofitable as it is wearisome. As a means of conveying knowledge to children, the printed page is delusive. The child's delight is in the world of things around him; his curiosity is all alive, his senses on the alert, his fingers nervously busy: but all these hints are passed over in his school-life as apparently meaningless.

Notwithstanding the example and warnings of the Preacher, and of those occasional great minds who have sought to guide teachers to more natural methods of development, custom has decreed that the first thing of importance in the education of a child is that he should learn to read; and scarcely is his babyhood over before he is "put to his book." He may have very little definite knowledge of anything, and does not possess sufficient language to express that little, but it is confidently believed that these defects will all be remedied through the use of the magical book. He has had no systematic training in observation; lines have had no special interest for him, and he cares neither for straight nor curved; he cannot decide without careful consideration which is his left hand and which is his right; but through all difficulties he must struggle towards this great end. And when he has spent days and weeks in the effort, what has he attained? Simply the ability to recognize words as such, and to read off stupid sentences which are as husks to his hungry, growing mind. In reality this gain is at the expense of mental power, for the mechanical difficulties in learning to read are so great that his whole attention must be given to the task of overcoming them, while the lack of interesting ideas in the reading matter presented is so evident that he gradually but surely falls into the fatal habit of reading without looking for thought. Emerson warns us that "books are good only as far as a boy is ready for them," and he thoughtfully adds, "He sometimes gets ready very slowly."

This preparation, or "getting ready," should consist in the development of the observational powers, through the experimental study of objects and phenomena of nature. It should also include the cultivation of language through conversation

concerning these. By conversation I mean the interchange of thought that arises naturally from mutual interest, and in a home-like atmosphere, and which is repressed by formality and constraint. That teaching is defective which does not so captivate the child that he is eager to ask questions, and to express his own opinions on the subject in hand. And this can only occur where the subject is in touch with his previous experience or desire for knowledge.

The place of honor, therefore, should be given to those studies which treat of things forming the child's immediate environment and with which his interests are naturally connected. His early reading lessons should relate to these objects of interest, and should be composed from his own thoughts concerning them. The use of this method for a time would tend to such originality of thought, and power of investigation as seldom comes to "heads replete with thoughts of other men." The child's studies would in such case, exemplify a natural interconnectedness with each other; and they would have a more direct and practical bearing on his life outside the school-room.

The principle of concentration in education is of much value, but in its application it requires a living centre that will not "perish with the using," and that adapts itself alike to the needs of primary school and academy, and to the development of body, mind and soul. Concentration in school-work becomes a hobby when we select as our centre some feature that properly belongs to the "circumference of thought," some feature of inconsiderable importance around which we fantastically arrange more valuable sources of knowledge, imagining we see in it a fixed, immovable support, with arms stretching in all directions, which in truth is but a sort of mental clothes-reel to which we may pin our rags of thought. Our minds are dwarfed and cramped by constant stooping to such low ideals; we become dizzy and our vision is contracted in the rounds of such small circles.

Nature-study, on the other hand, presents a centre whose circumference is ever widening, stretching out to meet the shores of spiritual truth. As in Rome all roads converged, so in nature all things guide to the Creator for those who have eyes to see, and hearts to follow.

> "Nature is but a name for an effect,
> "Whose cause is God."
> "Not a flower
> "But shows some touch in freckle, streak or stain
> "Of His unrivalled pencil."

We should lead the child unconsciously to love and reverence the One who "giveth us all things richly to enjoy," and "in whom we live and move, and have our being." Instead of shutting out as far as possible from the school-room, all thought of the child's spiritual being, we should recognize in it the most important part of his nature, to which all else subserves. As a recent writer has aptly remarked, "Froebel's plan of education is not merely concentric, but spiral, and not merely spiral but vertical," we find it not only widening around its centre, but always maintaining the closest connection with it, ever ascending, never inert.

Discussion:—Mrs. Condon called attention to the fact that, at present, the Kindergarten and the University, although at the extremes of our Educational System, were, *in spirit*, more closely allied than any of the intermediate links between the two.

By Aim.—Since while the Ideal University contains within itself facilities for prosecuting work in every department of Literature, Art, Science and Philosophy, the humble beginning of *all* these are to be found in the Kindergarten.

By Methods.—Personal observation, original research and neat-handed dexterity being common to both.

By Results.—Harmonious development of all the powers of the individual; the desire and ability of self-culture; the pure love of knowledge for its own sake; the ability to form clear judgments unbiassed by authority.

The Kindergarten, in its own quiet, modest way, aims at all this, and, if its principles are carried into our Primary Schools and its methods skilfully applied, the chain, now disconnected at so many points, will become continuous, and make our public school system a coherent, vital organism.

The discussion was followed up by Miss Hamilton and Dr. Hall.

Principal Calkin presided in this section.

# THE CONDITIONS UNDER WHICH THE STUDY OF NATURAL SCIENCE BECOMES A BETTER MENTAL DISCIPLINE THAN THE STUDY OF THE CLASSICS.

By F. R. Haley, M. A., Professor of Physics, Acadia College.

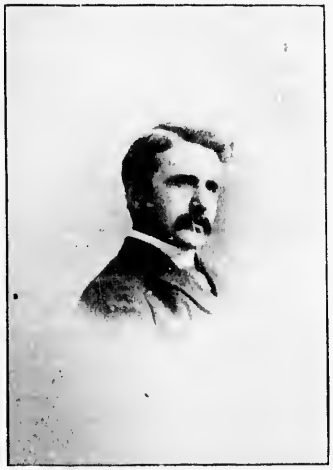
It would be presumption on my part to enter upon a full review of the conflicting claims of the classics and the sciences, or to attempt a final decision in a question upon which so many eminent doctors still disagree. But there may be room at this time, while presenting little of a polemical nature, to consider some of the principles involved in the question and upon which its final settlement must in part depend.

The claim of any branch of study to a prominent place in the curriculum of our schools, must be tried by a two-fold criterion—the practical utility of the information which it conveys, and its power to afford an effective mental discipline. The most obvious part of the value of science teaching, the mere information which it imparts, speaks for itself. It is surely no small part of education to put us in possession of the most important and most interesting facts of the universe, so that the world in which we are appointed to live may not be a sealed book to us. It is equally important that we should understand the value of scientific instruction as a disciplinary process. In too many minds there lingers the superstition that the study of science must be pursued only as it increases our fund of useful knowledge, and that no studies are disciplinary except languages and the mathematics. I desire to show, what I believe to be true, that there is something in the *methods*, if not in the subject-matter, of the sciences which renders them of peculiar and distinctive value as instruments of mental discipline.

The age in which we live is one of rapid social variation. There is contest of opinion in nearly every field of thought, a struggle between old and new standards in religion, in politics, in social life. It is a period of strong socialistic tendencies, distrust of authority, questioning of long-established institutions and methods. Secure in our little province, the rush and whirl of the great world beyond may not be strongly felt, but even here we are often brought face to face with the most conflicting opinions and the most diverse party cries. With the increase of freedom has come the increase of individual responsibility. The young voter of to-day is thrust into a maze of problems, political if not social. If his conscience has any stuff in it, he feels that these problems ought to be settled apart from his own personal or family interests, or his individual prospects of gain or loss. He is called upon to form conclusions apart from his own feelings and prejudices,—conclusions based upon what he believes to be the interests

of society at large. And how are right conclusions, so important in these, as in all times, to be formed? It is obvious that they must be based on a clear knowledge of facts and an appreciation of their sequence and relative significance. The facts once classified, once understood, the conclusions based upon them ought to be independent of the individual mind that examines them.

Now if there is any field of action or study outside the sphere of citizenship, in which there is frequent use of the method of observing and classifying facts and basing conclusions upon them, it cannot fail to be one of the best training grounds for the work of life. The observation and the classification of facts are peculiarly the scope and method of modern science. The habit of drawing conclusions from facts unbiassed by personal feeling is characteristic of what is termed the "scientific habit of thought" or "frame of mind." Of the several ways in which this frame of mind can be cultivated, none, we claim, can compare with the careful, methodical study of some branch of natural science. The insight into correct methods and the habit of careful investigation, which follow from the proper study, of even a small range of natural facts, will give the mind an invaluable power of dealing with other classes of facts as the occasion arises in after life.



F. A. Haley, M. A., Prof. Physics, Acadia College.

I have used the terms "scientific habit of thought," "scientific methods" What, a little more precisely, are the methods? The physical and natural sciences, including physics, chemistry, physiology, botany, zoölogy and astronomy, form a group known as the inductive sciences. They are broadly characterized by the extensive use of methods known as inductive logic. They begin with observations and experiments, advance to generalizations called hypotheses or theories, and finally proceed to establish or overthrow these generalizations by deducting from them necessary consequences which are tested by further observation or experiment. The method involves inductive as well as deductive logic, and herein we find its peculiarity. Any subject which can furnish a really broad and sound training of the mental faculties is certainly worthy of the most serious consideration, and by virtue of their *method* the inductive sciences may claim to do this. Observation

and experiment; inference and generalization, that is to say, induction; deduction and verification by further experiment if need be; can you mention another instrument of education in breadth like this?

The mathematics occupy an honorable place in our schools and colleges, but their peculiar educational value is held to consist, broadly speaking, in the enforcement of purely deductive reasoning. The mathematics are of unquestioned value in helping the imagination to grasp abstract relations, and in forming habits of continuous attention by dealing with trains of proof. But they do not afford a complete exercise of the reasoning powers. They begin with self-evident truths or established principles and proceed to conclusions by a process, each step of which is an intuitive certainty. It so happens, however, that in our dealings with the experiences of life, the first and most difficult thing is to get the data or premises from which to reason. The most important question is "What are the facts which bear upon the enquiry?" Until this necessary and primary question is settled our reasoning is vain. You will remember in this connection the estimate put upon the mathematics by Sir William Hamilton: "If," said he, "we consult reason, experience, and the common testimony of ancient and modern times, none of our intellectual studies tend to cultivate a smaller number of faculties in a more partial or feeble manner." Good authorities consider this a slightly exaggerated statement provoked by the insistence of certain writers on the exclusive value, in a logical point of view, of mathematical studies.

While it may be granted that the sciences are of peculiar educational value because of their enforcement of inductive as well as deductive logic; it may be urged that the inductive method is no longer the exclusive property of science but has become the true method of inquiry in many other branches of learning. We hear much in these days of the scientific method in psychology, in history, in philology. Even in the lower grades, such studies as geography are being gradually infused with the same scientific spirit and method. Why may not these subjects suffice as well to give the necessary mental discipline? Why claim the benefits of this method exclusively for the sciences? The argument fails to satisfy, and for this reason. If the method has educational value whenever used, it has its highest value in those subjects which first gave it exercise and are best adapted for it. The principal reason why science is better adapted than other branches of study for teaching the inductive method is that this method begins with facts based upon personal observation and experiment, and facts of this sort are more abundant and more trustworthy in external nature than elsewhere. The modern laboratory is a workshop in which natural conditions can be imitated and controlled. In all cases we know that we can trust the operations, because the conclusions to which it has led have been found true by subsequent trial. By such exercises we may hope to qualify ourselves for distinguishing truth in cases where there does not exist the same ready means of verification.

The mental advantages to be derived from a thorough study of science have never been more strongly presented than in the address of John Stuart Mill, to the University of St. Andrews. His views on the subject are so clear and impressive, as to justify extended quotation:

"The most incessant occupation of the human intellect throughout life, is the ascertainment of truth. It is not given us all to discover great general truths that are a light to all men and to future generations; though with a better general education the number of those who could do so would be far greater than it is. But we all require the ability to judge between the conflicting opinions which are offered to us as vital truths, to choose what doctrines we will receive in the matter of religion, for example, to judge whether we ought to be Tories, Whigs or Radicals, or to what length is it our duty to go with each; to form a rational conviction on questions of legislation and internal policy. And the need we have of knowing how to discriminate truth, is not confined to the larger truths. All through life it is our most pressing interest to find out the truth about all the matters we are

concerned with. . . . . Now, however different these searches for truth may look, and, however unlike they really are in their subject-matter, the methods of getting at truth and the tests of truth, are in all cases much the same. There are but two roads by which truth may be discovered; observation and reasoning; observation, of course, including experiment. The process by which truth is attained, observation and reasoning, have been carried to their greatest known perfection in the physical sciences. These furnish the most perfect types of the art of thinking. . . . . The logical value of experimental science is comparatively a new subject, yet there is no intellectual discipline more important than that which the experimental sciences afford. Their whole occupation consists in doing well, what all of us, during the whole of life are engaged in doing for the most part badly."

While attempting to present somewhat fully the claims of scientific instruction as an effective means of mental discipline, there is no disposition on my part to undervalue the study of the classics. The question of the respective merits of the classics and the sciences has been a perennial theme at teachers' associations and conventions, and the zeal of opposing parties has often made them equally intolerant of those who stand on middle ground. Nevertheless there are some who believe that the truth lies between the extremes, and that both parties to the dispute are in the right. "The question whether we should be taught the classics or the sciences," says Mill in the address already referred to, "seems to me very like a dispute, whether painters should cultivate drawing or coloring, or to use a more homely illustration, whether a tailor should make coats or trousers. I can only reply by the question; Why not both? Can anything deserve the name of a good education which does not include literature and science too? If there were no more to be said than that scientific education teaches us to think, and literary education to express our thoughts, do we not require both? . . . . As the physical sciences furnish the most perfect types of the art of thinking, so does classical literature, the most perfect type of the art of expression. Is not he a poor, maimed, lop-sided fragment of humanity, who is deficient in either?

"The results of a purely scientific education," says a more recent writer, "is a discipline of mind as much more thorough and accurate than the classical training as the laws of nature are more invariable than human language and thought. But with all its novel modern powers and practical sense, one is forced to admit that the scientific brain is miserably mechanical. For pure sentiment, for all that spontaneous, joyous, Greek waywardness of fancy, for the temperature of passion, the subtle thrill of ideality, you might as well look to a storage battery or a wrought-iron derrick. Science found education blundering peacefully along, cultivating half the man with most charming results, and letting the other half die of disuse. The danger is that it may substitute a new sort of half man for the old one." Surely an important place must ever be reserved in our schools for those branches of learning which bring the student into communion with the great minds of other ages, which impart to him a knowledge of the most refined languages ever used by man, and which interpret for him the development and use of his own tongue.

It is true that other results than these are often urged in behalf of the study of Greek and Latin. The claim has often been put forth that the grammatical acquisition of the dead languages affords a superior training to the mental faculties, —that the process of acquiring them puts demands upon the memory, inculcates the habit of close concentration, and gives a valuable exercise to the judgment and reason. That the acquisition of words exercises the memory is, of course, true, but, as has been pointed out by many writers, the memory cultivated in the common acquirement of language is of the lowest kind.

The relation between words and the objects of which they are the signs is, in a large measure, arbitrary. Philology may pretend to trace certain relations between words and the things they signify, but few will claim that we succeed in doing this in the ordinary study of Greek and Latin. If it is desirable to task the

memory by a dead pull at arbitrary facts, then what more is required than the facts of science regardless of their relation? There is not time to discuss the other claims put forth by classical teachers. It has been clearly shown by a score of eminent authorities that, while it is true that the grammatical drill of the classics assists in training the judgment and the reason, the results secured by this process are obtained at too great expenditure of time and labor, and could be more easily and more naturally reached through the medium of the sciences. In matters of language study, as in other educational matters, I am a firm believer in the principle of expending the least force which will accomplish the object in view. If a language is to be learned, let us teach it by the easiest known method and at an age when it can be easiest learned. Perhaps there is no course in education so universally and strongly condemned by independent thinkers as the folly of spending so many years in the study of grammar. The classics, if taught at all, ought to be taught on such a plan as will render them easier of acquisition and, therefore, pleasanter to all young students.

Let us consider, briefly, some of the conditions which must be fulfilled in order that the mental discipline afforded by the sciences may be made more effective. The acquisition of scientific knowledge, we have seen, does not in itself constitute scientific culture. Nor is the ability to reproduce such knowledge for a competitive examination any real test of scientific power. It is not to be questioned that in the great majority of our schools the sciences are still taught as funds of useful information. If *information* is the end to be attained, the best method of securing the desired result is to present the facts in such a way as will interest the student and thus secure the retention of these facts by his memory. It is a very serious mistake to teach science wholly by *memoritor* recitations from a text-book. This method at once makes the subject a task, and if, in addition, the preparation for an examination is the great end in view, it is wonderful how little is left to the student after the work is done. There are always present in our classes those amazingly expert pupils who succeed in "getting up" a subject of which they would find it impossible the day after examination to give an intelligible account. "For such as these," says President Walker of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, "a special organ, the examination organ, seems to become developed, which is as specific as the water sack attached to the stomach of a camel, intended only to carry a certain amount of refreshment over a very dry place for a very short time." We must never forget in studying methods of science teaching that facts are never fully learned until the learner is made to understand the evidence on which the facts rest. The boy who reads in his astronomy that the earth revolves about the sun in a year, learns what to him is only a form of words unless he connects this fact with his own observations upon the mighty precision of the fixed stars. So the student who reads that water is composed of hydrogen and oxygen has acquired no real knowledge until he has seen the evidence upon which this conclusion rests.

The success of science teaching in our high schools will depend much upon how well and methodically the pupils are taught in the lower grades. Observation lessons should begin the instant a child attends the primary school. By the power of observation is not meant simply the power to hear, to taste, to smell with delicacy, but the power of so concentrating the attention on what we observe as to form a definite and lasting impression. Much of the nature study in our lower grades is as ineffective as it is, chiefly because it stops with merely visual observation. An observation lesson may become a valuable mental exercise, or it may be a species of diversion or amusement, only a little less pleasing than marbles or kites. It is a useless exercise unless the image produced on the retina arouses mental activity of an orderly and worthy kind, unless it bears fruit in accurate statement and intelligible description. Since plants offer the most abundant material for study and also attract the attention of children at an early age, it is well to begin the course of instruction with them. There is no study

which can easily be made to furnish so admirable a discipline in observation as the study of botany The material is to be found everywhere and in abundance, and the work may be made neither too easy nor too difficult. Hand in hand with observation should go discipline in describing and drawing the things observed. Accurate descriptions serve to check the inaccuracy of the observations and to give the pupil a valuable exercise in the use of words. This kind of teaching will prove a capital aid to instruction in the mother tongue, and in a way for which there is no substitute, for it is a kind of direct translation out of nature into one's own speech.

In the higher grades of the schools it may reasonably be assumed that the reasoning faculties are more fully developed than in the lower grades The observation and description of forms may here give place to studies in which the relation of cause and effect is emphasized. The student is now prepared to study science a little more scientifically. But the danger is that he may be required to study not too few but too many subjects. Unless he shows a special aptitude for science he ought to be limited to not more than two or three subjects. Our object should be, as I have already said, to impart a training in *method*, and this is far more readily achieved by concentrating the student's attention on a small range of phenomena than by leading him in rapid and superficial survey over wide fields of knowledge. If I may be permitted an expression of personal opinion in a matter upon which science teachers are perfectly agreed, I may state my belief that at some period or other a boy or a girl should become acquainted with at least three branches of science. And it seems to me desirable that of these subjects one should be such as will best elicit the power of observation, and the others such as will admit of immediate verification by experiment. Botany for the lower grades, physics and chemistry for the higher, appear to be the subjects best possessing these qualifications.

We should attempt to teach fewer subjects in our high schools and to teach them better. [In the opinion of the writer the whole Grade A programme might be properly reserved for a portion of the college course.] Much of the so-called science teaching in our schools is a shallow fraud—a mere dead pull on the memory and of no other educational value whatever. Our pupils must have time to come into more direct personal contact with nature and discover facts for themselves. We must cultivate in them the habit of independent investigation. They should be set to solve problems, each in its way a little step in research, and involving simple quantitative work. By only such exercises as these may science hope to effect its proper discipline.

Discussion :—Rev. A. Thompson, D. D., of St. Francis Xavier College : Before entering upon the subject now under discussion, permit me to thank the learned professor who has just preceded me for the scholarly manner in which he has dealt with the question. The importance which many eminent educationists attach to the subject which he has been treating is very great. It is no exaggeration to say that it is fast becoming, if it has not already become, a crucial question with many of the deepest thinkers of the present day. It is therefore only natural that we should gladly welcome all fair discussion tending to solve a knotty problem which affects so deeply the intellectual development of our young men and women. I feel sure, then, that I am but voicing the sentiments of this assembly when I say that we are all very grateful to Prof. Haley for the light which he has thrown upon it.

It must be admitted that however much we may desire to see this educational problem solved, it is still far from solution. So much honest doubt still exists among the learned as to the relative merits of the classics and the natural sciences that no one can reasonably feel safe in making any dogmatic assertions extolling the merits of one of these groups of studies to the detriment of the other. Much

less should we be justified in treating with acrimony or contempt the opinions of those who may see fit to differ from ourselves in such a matter.

I must express my regret that I have been unable to give to the present discussion all the preparation that I might desire and which its importance would demand. It was not until a few days ago that I saw the possibility of my attending this educational association. The result is, that although my comparatively short experience in the teaching profession has enabled me to form some opinions concerning the relative importance of a classical and a scientific training, yet you will have to bear with whatever defects in order and mode of expression may have been occasioned by lack of immediate preparation.

It seems to me that in treating of the worth of any study or group of studies as far as intellectual development is concerned, we should always take into consideration not only the branch of learning itself, but also the intellect which is expected to grapple with it. In one word, when judging of the utility of any branch of knowledge in training the mind, account should be taken of individual

Prof. A. Thompson, D. D., St. Francis Xavier's College.

bents and capacities. Hence, a study that may be most beneficial and conducive to the mental development of one person may not be so for another. Experience teaches us that many whose minds seem specially fitted for a study of the sciences find in the classics but little stimulus for mental exertion, and *vice versa*. Nor should we be surprised at this diversity of talent which we meet in our schools. It is not confined to the intellectual world. It is a factor to be met and reckoned with in every phase of human existence Indeed, the beauty and harmonious working of human society depends upon variety of talent. We have but to take a glance at our social system to see the beneficial effects which result from each member's being left untrammelled in developing those special talents with which nature has provided him. A disregard of this fundamental law would result in intellectual and social stagnation. It appears to me therefore, that, in determining what studies are best calculated to arouse and develop the latent talents of young people, we must modify our judgment by regarding the mental capacities of the children themselves. I repeat again, that what may be best for one may not be so for all.

Starting from the fundamental principle that the aim of education should be to encourage, not to cramp or unduly restricts much less to destroy, the God-given individual talent which each child possesses as his or her birthright, it may be asked how such an aim may be best accomplished. In this as in other matters it is easier to make general suggestions than to propose a detailed scheme which would be in every respect satisfactory. This leads me to remark that while using our right of freely criticising courses of study, we should not be unmindful of nor fail to appreciate the amount of labour that is entailed, and the many difficulties that have to be overcome by those upon whom the task of drawing them up devolves. Our educational authorities will, I am sure, understand that our suggestions are offered in no carping spirit but rather in the spirit of friendliness and sympathy. This, by the way. To return to the subject under discussion, while holding that educationists should discriminate in prescribing studies for different persons, I do not wish to be understood as maintaining the principle enunciated as the only one which should command our attention. To uphold it as an exclusive principle would be equivalent to advocating perfection in one or two branches and total ignorance of all others. The pernicious effects of an educational system which would encourage such a state of affairs would be patent to all. It would result in loss of mental equilibrium and would mould our rising generation into a nation of narrow-minded intellectual bigots.

The perfection of an educational system would seem to consist in combining general culture with specialization in some branches. To accomplish this, our educational authorities should insist upon imparting an elementary knowledge of those subjects, an acquaintance with which is essential to the well-being of every citizen. Among these should be mentioned reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar, and rudiments of history and geography and an elementary knowledge of the nature of physical phenomena. Object lessons in nature would serve to stimulate the minds of the children for a deeper knowledge of the natural sciences, while judicious selections in literature and an elementary knowledge of Latin would pave the way for an acquirement of that mental culture to which the patrons of the classics attach so much importance.

But when once the requisite amount of elementary knowledge has been acquired and the natural desire for selection has been awakened, a large amount of choice should be given the student. To sum up, I think that but little good can result from discussing in the abstract the relative claims of the classics and of the natural sciences, to superiority as far as the development of the intellect is concerned. The question for each student to ask himself is a very concrete one, namely, "what is best for *me?*" And no satisfactory answer can be given without consulting his own intellectual bent.

Dr. Chisholm defended the classics. He thought that the high school course might be extended to 4 or 5 years, and the necessary amount of time to the different subjects thus given. The study of classics resulted in plain, concise English.

Prin. W. T. Kennedy complimented Prof. Haley on his very able paper but claimed that according to his own observation the same results in mental discipline and mental development had not followed the teaching of science as had been obtained from the study of classics. Yet the difference was due not wholly, or possibly not even in part, to any inherent superiority of classics as a means of mental culture and development, but rather to the excellent manner in which classics as a rule is taught, and to the amount of earnest private study which is required of the student in preparing his work for the class-room. Speaking generally there is no subject, in high schools and colleges, taught as well as classics, and there is scarcely any other subject in which the teacher can get the same amount of personal effort from the pupil; and this is a matter which has a tremendous bearing on the question under discussion. The excellence of the teaching is

partly due to the definite and distinct nature of the subject itself and partly to the fact that, as it has been the chief element in higher education for hundreds of years, it has attracted and developed the very best class of teachers. It requires no laborious hours of laboratory work to get ready for the lecture, and in the case of those who are thoroughly acquainted with the language not much lesson preparation of any kind is necessary. Hence the teacher is prepared for each lesson and it almost follows as a natural consequence that the lesson is well taught. Any failure on the part of the pupil to do the proper quotum of home-work is easily detected. But in science all this is different. The subject is a comparatively new one in our curricula and the rank and file of those who teach it do not teach it at all. Some who teach other subjects well are perfect novices in this. And, indeed, specialists who are votaries of science are not always good teachers. The man who delights in solitary original research and prolix investigation is often too much self-absorbed, not to say selfish, or has too much originality of a peculiar

PRIN. W. T. KENNEDY, HALIFAX ACADEMY.

kind to be efficient in drilling a class of students. And the wonderful faculty which students have of evading work and of slipping through the hands of such men would shock and astonish those who have never observed such things closely. But notwithstanding all this, it is more than possible that when science-masters do the sciences the same justice which classical masters do the classics; when note-books, and written exercises, and carefully prepared statements of observations of similarities and differences, and discriminating reductions made in good English, and repetitions, and reviews become the fixed rule; in short, when some of the hard and fast methods by which the best workers get the best work done in other subjects obtain also in this; then, and not till then, need classics fear the rivalry of science in those fields where the brain-building business is carried on.

PRIN. D. M. SOLOAN, B. A , NEW GLASGOW HIGH SCHOOL.

PRINCIPAL SOLOAN, of New Glasgow, said that there never had been any difficulty in doing the science work in Pictou academy when Dr. Mackay was there. He thought we should consider the different temperaments of teachers, and that the pupils have to study too much. He regretted that classics had been put in a subordinate position.

PROFESSOR EATON thought that the conditions under which natural science was a better training obtained only in a few schools. He felt that the course as at present constituted was too heavy.

DR. MACKAY thought the work could be done by proper correlation.

PRINCIPAL CAMPBELL of Truro thought that the standard of admission of pupils to the academies was being lowered. Admission was too easy. From this reason the work was too hard all through.

[The following paper by PROF. ANDREWS was prepared as a continuation of this discussion, but it was not read—not having been received in time to arrange for it.]

PROF. W. W. ANDREWS, M. A., Sackville College :—There are two ends to be set before us in all educational work, viz., training to skill and molding to culture. If we are to decide upon the educational value of studies, we must consider them as to their possible results along these two lines. Pres. Hitchcock has said that the aim of the new education is not to give men *facts* so much as *faculty*, and adds that "he only is great of intellect who can stir the world with a great thought; he only is great of heart who can flood the world with a great affection; and he only is great of will who can do something to shape the world to a great career." One part of our work is to make our students men of resource, of ready adaptability, men who can bring their minds to bear fruitfully on any problem, men of skill, who are fitted to fulfil the obligation resting upon all to serve usefully the interests of the world. A truly "liberal" system of education will be planned to impart the elements of, at least, the following kinds of skill, because they are the

kinds required in permanent lines of intellectual usefulness in the world, viz., skill in observation, logical skill, skill in manipulation and experimentation, and skill in expression—first through language, by tongue and pen, and through forms, by means of pencil or brush or tool. All these forms of expression to be used for the sake of their reactions on the mind, for all effort at expression results in greater definiteness of idea. Let us not exalt one kind of skill too much above another for supposed value in education, for, as Prof. Petrie has lately said, "the exquisite art and the noble architecture of Mycenae, the undying song of Homer, the extensive trade of the bronze age, all belonged to a people who could neither read or write." To teach skill in choice of words for writing or for speech, to develop skill in that logical analysis which depends upon verbal distinctions, the study of the classics must ever be the finest instrument, except in that range of words expressive of physical forms, qualities, and energies. In written language, one of the highest products of civilization, we have, within its proper range, an unrivalled educational instrument.

By culture we mean all those tastes, feelings, ideals and sentiments which go to make the gentleman, the scholar and the reverent man of moral purpose. This educational end has been finely described by Lowell in an address delivered at the 250th anniversary of Harvard: "Let us hope to make a gentleman of every youth who is put under our charge; not a conventional gentleman, but a man of culture, a man of intellectual resource, a man of public spirit, a man of refinement, with that good taste which is the conscience of the mind and that conscience which is the good taste of the soul. This we have tried to do in the past; this let us try to do in the future."

The whole educational problem then is to produce the man of power and the man of just and fine feeling; to make skill great and to make life great. The finest skill can only be found when allied with fine culture, and culture loses one of its finest elements, viz., the noble sense of service, if it cannot express itself by tool or brush, by tongue or pen.

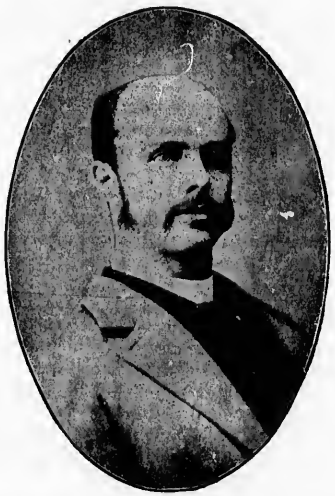
To make men great according to their measure by making them at once men of efficiency and men of culture is the educational ideal.

We all know something of the culture and skill which are the product of classical training. To read Homer's fresh descriptions is like taking a look at nature itself, to see life and nature through the eyes of the great Greeks is no small privilege, to be drilled to make the fine distinctions in thought, which the study of their language demands, does enrich the mind and add to its power. What has science to offer? It must in fairness be said that those who teach the sciences do not always have a distinct conception of the possibilities of the instrument they are using, and almost as frequently they are at a loss to see how these possibilities may be realized. This is in a great measure due to the fact that the educational instrument has come into the schools at a date within the memory of many present. Science teaching is in a nascent state as yet. It has had to compete with an instrument perfected by centuries of practice. The new subject matter has called for new methods and has awakened new ideals. We are still experimenting.

Yet even in these conditions the study of the classics has not been able to hold its own against the claims of the new knowledge. It is somewhat certain, however, that the sciences will not be able to wholly dispossess the classics, because for some minds they will always remain the most effectual instrument, and for pure mental discipline they will probably always lead among the language studies. It is probably safe to say that if they were once wholly out of the schools, it would be a long time before they would be able to win their way back again, except as special studies. Science has won so far because an exclusively classical education cannot repel the charge of Dean Farrar, himself a classical teacher for thirteen years, who states that it is his most deliberate conviction, arrived at in the face of every possible opportunity for reaching the opposite conclusion, it "neglects

all of the powers of some minds and some of the powers of all minds." The two classes of study are to be used each as the complement of the other. More mind will be developed out of a given school by the use of both instruments than by the use of one alone.

The full power of the science studies will never be realized until they are made to do some of the work done by the classics. Along with the patient observation, the relentless sifting of appearances, and the careful forming of conclusions, there should always be the accurate description of appearances, the statement of the reasoning and the final result, in as elegant a form as possible, and outline sketching of the forms, which elude exact description by means of language. The study of the classics can never train a student in the use of the language, which deals with physical properties and which is the basis of all description and of all metaphor, which is the soul of all language. Homer can never teach the difference between transparent and semi-translucent, or between bluish green and emerald green,



Prof. W. W. Andrews, M. A., Mt. Allison College.

except as empty terms which will rest in the mind until the appropriate idea has been gathered from experience with some body exhibiting these properties. We have not made enough of science as means of drill in the use of language. School collections of specimens should be made for the express purpose of illustrating the meanings, which are properly attached to descriptive words. Beside the oral description of the class room there should be constantly demanded the writing of descriptive notes and essays, and the detailed account of experiments, and the statement and analysis of lines of inductive reasoning. It is said that the translation of two lines of Virgil requires 40 distinct acts of the judgment. This descriptive work demands the same comparison of word with word, idea with idea, which is the chief mental operation in the act of translation, and definite word with definite phenomenon or aspect of a phenomenon In Botany and in Blowpipe Analysis the acts of judgment follow each other as rapidly as in translation, and they exact as much from the student. In Physics and Chemistry results are reached more

slowly, but the acts of judgment are more important and the field for invention much greater. The sciences call into play manipulative skill, mechanical invention, and the judgment AT FIRST HAND of form and force, of color and dimension. The drawing which is necessary for the best work in Physics and Botany and the construction of simple forms of apparatus train to skill in the forms of manual expression, for which there is no place in classical study. Some forms of genius the classics can never awake or train. Make the analysis of thought and the choice of words as keen as in translation and science with its immediate contact with nature and truth and its own peculiar discipline, will be undoubtedly the finer educational instrument.

But it is as an instrument of culture that science study is supposed to be the weakest.

It must be admitted that most of the culture ascribed to the studies of school and college, is due to the personal influences which make themselves felt with augmented power in these circumstances. It is possible to study history under a teacher and from an author and never come into vital contact with the heroism and other noble human quality, which seen and felt, forms the culturing power of the study. It is possible for a group of scholars to study under the lead of a "live" teacher, a family of spiders or a bed of flowers, and be touched by those influences which come most powerfully from the human history. A mere fact-grubber may train to skill, but can never impart culture through the study he teaches. To listen to an Agassiz is to have every study turned to poetry, and every fact sinks not into the mind only, but into the heart.

There are some elements of culture which scientific facts will impart on their own account. A delight in the beauty and wonder of common things, a sense of law, the feeling that the forms of nature constitute a language, and an increased sense of the worth and the insignificance of human life. If research methods are followed, the student is not long in finding that if he is to succeed he must be a truth-seeker, and that any sophistry means certain defeat and failure. He unconsciously learns to work in that mood, and he becomes habitually watchful against self-deception.

Science teaching when rightly conducted leads the student to look at the facts and to be guided by considerations drawn from the nature of things. It therefore produces a radical tone of mind, which is a deliverance from the bondage to the traditionary, the arbitrary and the accustomed, into which we all so readily fall. The study of letters tends to produce the opposite quality of mind, because the mind in this study is constantly asked to accept the arbitrary, which has been sanctioned by custom *simply because it has been so sanctioned.* The Chinese, the most literary nation in the world, and with the most extensive alphabet and most arbitrary orthography, are the most conservative. Years of such study must kill out the exploring impulses of the mind and the faculties by which a man adjusts himself to new truth. The exclusive study of institutions has the same effect. The scientific spirit is essentially revolutionary. It asks not "What has been?" but "What is rational?" "What will work well?" Therefore it is ready for any reform demanded by reason and practical considerations, such as the adoption of phonetic spelling and the metric system, against which there is no rational argument. Witness the facts, that while the literary classes of Germany hold to their sight-destroying type, all scientific books and periodicals are printed in the Roman type, and that among English speaking chemists the fonetic spelling is being rapidly adopted.

In this respect also, the two classes of studies are the complements of each other. Without the study of letters or of institutions the man of science is apt to break too readily with the past. Without scientific study the man of letters is in danger of becoming the slave of the past.

To no other age of the world was the world so wonderful and so sublime as modern science has made it to us. Its mystery and its grandeur has been increased

a thousand fold over that of the vision of any prophet or seer of other days. The years of human history have been swallowed up in the vast and toilsome ages of geology, and these are become but as a point of time, in the depths of the limitless aeons of astronomy. The sky has been opened up for us and we are allowed to look into vast realms where the creator has not yet rested from his labors, and the nebulous spaces are seen curdling into world systems like our own. The flowers and their leaves have lost none of their symmetry, and their blossoms have lost none of their colour and perfume, since the days the older poets looked upon them and sang, but the form and the perfume and colour have a new meaning, for every part of the delicate structure of the little plant, tells of ages of successful struggle. As the scion of an ancient family it wins a new regard and the complexity of the mechanism by which the purposes of its life are fulfilled make it a new wonder. Since David's or Homer's day, the rosy dawn has lost no tint, and the solemn music of the winds through the pines has lost none of its anthem-like quality, but the modern theories of sound and light have added a new thrill of intellectual interest and sublimity to these phenomena. The modern conceptions of law, of gravitation and of the conservation of matter and energy which make this universe an infinitely sensitive thing, responsive everywhere in orderly ways to movement anywhere, so that the story of any change in any world is told to all the stars, are poetic conceptions of the highest quality.

Beside these conceptions, the tripping goddesses of Homer and the longwinded bluster of his heroes, seems very trivial. These culture-elements of science may not be so effective for producing the conventional scholarly culture, but they do tend to produce the culture demanded in that realm of our life where the only politeness is adoration and the only perfection is love. And science teaching must not become mere "fact-grubbing" or fizz and bang experimentation. These culture-elements must be made the most of, and it is only as these inspire the teacher and mould his methods will science teaching show its full power to touch the heart and enrich the life. If I were asked to make a choice between the two I should certainly choose the skill and culture to be obtained from faithful scientific study and vital science teaching. But the exacting study of language should form the complement of science study, and the study of science should be called in to train the powers neglected by language study.

He who studies the classics only, becomes a foreigner and a stranger in our modern life. He who studies nature only, as far as his culture is concerned, is without an ancestry. If science be studied and our great literature be read carefully and lovingly, no considerable gap need be found in any man's culture, even if the classics are neglected.

# WHAT QUALIFICATIONS SHOULD THE HEAD MASTER OF AN ACADEMY POSSESS?

By Prof. A. G. MacDonald, M. A., Normal School.

The subject which has been assigned me for a paper at this Convention, is, as may be seen by the programme, "What qualifications should the Head Master of an Academy possess?" I regret that the preparation of a paper on such an important, and, indeed, difficult subject, did not fall to the lot of some more capable person,—some one possessing a greater constructive ingenuity and a wider grasp of details than myself.

Before proceeding farther, let me state my conviction that, on the whole, Nova Scotia may feel justly proud of her Academies and High Schools. In no other branch of the educational service has there been, for some years past, a healthier and more satisfactory growth. Many of our more progressive towns take special and justifiable pride in pointing out the rapid strides made by them in secondary education, and put in evidence, as conclusive as it is creditable, their fine high school buildings and academies, and their efficient principals and associate teachers.

Last year I had the pleasure of assisting at one of our district conventions, held in a town one of whose chief buildings is a beautiful, large and well-appointed common and high school edifice, built in brick, with stone trimmings. A certain prominent rate-payer who had, at one time, been opposed to the construction of so expensive a building, was heard to say, on the occasion of the convention, that it was a pity, after all, it was not wholly built of stone! When our high schools gather around them the warmth and the sustaining confidence and patronage of the community in this way, we may be sure that their work is deserving of appreciation.

I have no reason whatever to suppose that the subject of this paper was suggested by any pressing or special dissatisfaction, on the part of the people, with present high school work; nor do I believe that any radical change in the qualifications of prospective head masters is in immediate contemplation. Apart from the fact that the subject is an important one in itself, and highly suitable for investigation and discussion at a gathering of this kind, it is to be borne in mind that educationists should always maintain, in their sphere, the attitude of responsiveness to the suggestions and experiences of the past, the opportunities of the present, and the needs and possibilities of the future.

The question to be treated immediately prompts the inquiry: What are the duties of a head master? These are so various and so complex,—so hard to define and yet so real,—collectively so important in their results, and, singly, so apparently trivial,—so difficult of that performance which is the ideal of the educationist, and yet so lightly undertaken, in many cases, by the inexperienced graduate,—that the task of adequately defining them all seems indeed beyond one's power. Surely the witty Frenchman who said "that the art of defining belongs to the gods," must have had in his mind, potentially at least, the difficulty of stating all the qualifications of an academic head master of our day and generation!

The subject might, perhaps, be best approached from another side—from a short study of the relation of the high school to society. It is undeniable that the great majority of those who attend the High School pass from its precincts to the great school of the world, which is to be the better by the acquisition, if these schools be not a failure. Let me quote from the Report of the Committee of Ten in support of this statement: "The secondary schools do not exist for the purpose of preparing boys and girls for colleges. Only an insignificant percentage of the graduates of these schools go to colleges or scientific schools. Their main function is to prepare for the duties of life that small proportion of all the children in the country—a proportion small in number but very important to the welfare of the nation—who show themselves able to profit by an education prolonged to the eighteenth year, and whose parents are able to support them while they remain so long in school." Shall society be made happier, nobler, more intelligent, by the annual increment from these schools? Shall the standards of moral rectitude and of public and private virtue be raised? Shall honest labor be dignified? And shall man's energy and faculties be more wisely and beneficently directed by and through the agency of these institutions? These are the questions that furnish the true key-note to the duties of a head master;—they are questions of the greatest moment to society; and if they can be answered in the affirmative, then, priceless, indeed, becomes the high school, and enduring its place in our social economy. And the desiderated answers are to be determined by the quality rather than by the quantity of the work done,—by the powers developed and the habits formed, rather than by the amount of knowledge stored up, during the three or four years of high school life. It is what the graduate can do and not merely what he knows that will make him valuable to society. Does he possess good common sense? Can he use his eyes? Can he think clearly and reason correctly? Can he adapt himself to new conditions? Has he learned how to study? Has he formed habits of thoughtfulness, self-reliance,—nay, self-denial? Have his intellectual tastes, indeed, all his natural endowments, been awakened and disciplined, according to his years? Does he possess a vigorous health, and a knowlege of the laws by which it can be conserved? And, does he possess the power, not only to discern and to will the right, but to do it? The up-building of character, the formation or rather formulation of such habits and powers in the prospective citizen as are indicated in the foregoing queries, are the all-important object of the high school,—of all teaching, indeed. The office of the artificers, chief among whom is the academic head master, who are to preside over and direct the metamorphosis of "the whining school-boy creeping, snail-like, unwillingly to school" into the good citizen, clear in thought, capable in action, righteous in conduct, is truly a great and a responsible one.

Now it goes without saying that the adequate discharge of the varied duties of this important office, presupposes in our high school and academic teachers, scholarly attainments of a high order, intelligent professional skill, formally acquired or otherwise, and a dominant and sympathetic personality, which will enable them to do their work to the very best advantage, and with the least possible waste of energy, either on their own part or on the part of those whose teaching they are directly to conduct or to supervise. And this is eminently true with regard to the head master, for he is to the school what the engineer is to the engine, the master to the ship, the commander to the army. Buildings, school appliances, attendance may be all that can be desired, but wanting a capable person at the head, and failure inevitably results. It is not enough that his work may never fall to the level of the dead-line—it must be up to the level of greatest productiveness. His intentions may be the very best, his character irreproachable,—he may be the possessor of much parchment, and give proof of his intense zeal by working after hours for the benefit of his school, yet if he achieve but mediocrity he is relatively incompetent. He must be courteous, keen to estimate the real value of a recitation and ready to see what is wanting in the way of repression or encouragement, and

he should be capable of testing quickly the true standing of his school by driving down deeply the ploughshare of interrogation into the ostensible attainments of each pupil. He should be judicious, in his analysis of breaches of discipline, diplomatic in concealing his judgments, and suppress misconduct mediately by removing or modifying its cause rather than immediately, by applying correctives. He should have a clear understanding of the principles and methods of education, be familiar with its history and progress, and with the philosophy of teaching. He should be a master in the subjects which he teaches; his range of scholarship should embrace a generous knowledge of all the subjects of the course of studies, and having due regard to their educational and practical values, he should be able to make an intelligent choice of that sequence of studies, and that time-allotment for each study, which would be most advantageous to the school as a whole.

PROF. A. G. MACDONALD, M. A., NORMAL SCHOOL, TRURO.

This outline of a head master's qualifications, though not by any means exhaustive, is, perhaps, sufficiently full to form a basis for the practical question of considering what tests should be applied by the Council of Public Instruction to candidates for a head master's license. Satisfied though I am that the present tests for licensing academic teachers are not all that should be desired, yet, I confess that when I undertook to write this paper I shrank from the difficult and delicate task of stating what, in my opinion would be better tests. I felt that my opinions, or for that matter, the individual opinions of anyone, on a matter of this kind, would not carry with them much weight unless supported by arguments irresistibly strong and convincing,—arguments that are always difficult to advance in support of any moot question. Under these circumstances I ventured to adopt another course. I undertook to get the opinions of as large a number as possible of leading educationists in our province;—indeed, I was seized with the ambition

of getting the question treated in the Symposium style. Accordingly, I sent a note and circular slip containing a few queries, calculated to elicit definite statements on the subject in hand, to sixty persons in all, including all our school inspectors, all or nearly all our academy and high school principals and some of their associate teachers, representative professors of all our Nova Scotia colleges and of Sackville college, and two or three others prominently engaged in our educational work. The note and queries sent were as follows:

"Having been requested to write a paper for the forthcoming Teachers' Convention, on the subject: 'What qualifications should Head Masters of Academies possess?' and having consented to do so, I take the liberty of asking you, as one of the educationists of Nova Scotia, to answer as fully as possible the queries on the enclosed circular slip.

"My object is to elicit the opinions of as large a number of our leading teachers and educationists as possible, with a view to deducing therefrom general conclusions which may be helpful in further advancing academic education in our province. There does not seem to be any reason why the names of persons answering the submitted queries should be made public or indicated in any way; and in no case shall publicity be given the names of writers marking their replies 'confidential.'

"Hoping to hear from you at your earliest convenience,

"I remain, respectfully yours,

"A. G. Macdonald.

"Scholarship Requirements for Head Masters:

"(1) Possession of both classical and scientific 'A.'
"(2) " " either with a University degree.
"(3) If neither (1) nor (2) what would you suggest?

"Professional Requirements:

"(4) Four years' *successful* experience in doing actual 'B' or academic preparatory work.

"(5) A first rank Normal School diploma and two years' subsequent experience as in (4).

"(6) Three years' experience as in (4) succeeded by successful examination, written and oral, on professional subjects, and English Language and Literature.

"(7) If not (4), (5) or (6), give outline of what you would consider good preparatory training for position of Head Master.

"(8) Would you favor a law constituting Head Masters and Supervisors, in incorporated towns, members *ex officio* of the town school committee?

"(9) Should towns which are the seats of the larger academies provide Head Master with residence and garden?"

Of the sixty to whom the circular was sent, forty-five, or exactly seventy-five per cent., sent me replies. To these I wish here to offer, most cordially, my sincere thanks, and to record my keen appreciation of their kindness towards myself personally, and of their public spirit, and laudable interest in the cause of secondary education. Many of these replies treat the subject with great fulness and ability, and all of them with clearness and vigor.

As I consider they form a distinctly valuable contribution to our literature on secondary schools, I shall take the liberty of handing to the secretary for publication, with the minutes of the proceedings of this Convention, copious, and generally *verbatim*, selections which I have made from them. It is true that they were not written with a view to publication, but this fact does not detract, to say the least, from their value as a criterion of the trend of thought amongst those who are in the best position to think clearly and intelligently on the subject. That

diversity of views obtains, particularly as to the best means for encompassing certain desirable ends,—on which, on the whole, substantial agreement exists,—is only what might be expected; personal predilections, peculiarities of environment, local difficulties, and preferences, resulting, perhaps unconsciously, from scholastic training, are liable to color if not to warp the judgment of the best of people.

These replies have afforded one a very interesting field of study. The spectacle of earnest, capable men and women striving for the advancement of a grand and noble cause cannot but command one's admiration. The conclusions which have been forced upon me by a careful study of these communications would seem to point out for our academic teachers a somewhat different training from that which is now required of them. I shall endeavor to sum them up in a few propositions, which I think will be found by those who shall have read these selections to be fair, moderate, and legitimate deductions. Of course my own views on and acquaintance with the subject have entered somewhat into the shaping of these propositions. And in order to simplify matters, I wish to be permitted to divide the academies of our province into two classes, smaller and larger academies, the smaller employing only one academic teacher, and the latter two or more.

1°. The smaller academies should not do any work beyond grade XI, together with any two of the four subjects—Latin, French, advanced chemistry and advanced botany, for options.

2°. A curriculum for a new grade "A" should be adopted, covering such parts of the present bi-lateral "A" as would secure a scholarly and efficient mastery of the subjects of such grade XI.

3. The minimum professional requirements for this A should be two or three years' experience in teaching, together with a first rank Normal School diploma obtained while holding "B" certificates.

4. Teachers in large academies, other than head master, should hold minimum A, as in the case of the smaller academies, together with an *ordinary* degree from some college of recognized standing, or one of the present A's, with one or two subjects on the classical and two or three subjects on the scientific side suppressed.

5. The head master should hold a minimum A, and a degree with an honor, or past graduate course in the subject or group of subjects he is to teach.

6. The professional training for both A's for larger academies to be the same as for the minimum A, with the exception that the head master should have an additional one year's experience as principal of a miscellaneous school of not less than three departments

The one holding the minimum A has thus two roads open to him, either of which leads to the lower position in the larger academies; but if his aim is the head mastership he cannot long hesitate as to which road he should take. I have studiously made the road to the highest academic position through the college: the certificate of scholarship that qualifies one for it should not be obtainable, *per saltum*, through the agency of private study, cramming, or the contingencies of written examinations.

No one fitted for, and desirous of following teaching as a profession, should find the requirements I have stated either excessive or calculated to unduly retard his promotion, while securing in those holding academic licenses more through scholarship and more real culture, than are necessarily implied by such licenses, at present. I shall not here refer to the difficulty, with regard to degrees which the existence of so many colleges in our province presents, as the subject has been anticipated and a solution offered or outlined, by, at least, one learned correspondent, whose communication I shall presently read to you.

Nor shall I enlarge on the value of culture, which a good college course can best give, to those who would aspire to the exalted office of training our young men and women for the higher positions and duties of life, as here, I am also anticipated by several correspondents. I take the liberty, however, of quoting a strikingly beautiful passage on the subject from the pen of the late gifted and learned Sir Morrel McKenzie, published, not long since, in the "New Review."

He says :—"Culture is not the possession of a stock of facts or ideas, literary, scientific, artistic, or philosophical; it is a condition of the intellect, or rather of the whole microcosm; analogous to that state of physical perfection which athletes strive to attain to by training. Culture implies strength, sureness and flexibility of mind, and the development of all its faculties to the highest possible degree, so that they can be concentrated without difficulty on any subject that may present itself.

"Culture, therefore, being a condition of intellectual efficiency of mental health comparable to the state of bodily well-being when all the organs work harmoniously together, the practical question arises, how is this most desirable object to be attained? Culture is not an innate quality or a heaven born gift; every man has to acquire it for himself by laborious and protracted effort. There is only one way of bringing the mind to full functional perfection, and that is by cultivation. Its different faculties must be disciplined and increased in power by exercise; in one word, they must be carefully trained. As for the instruments of culture, by which I mean the special studies which serve best for the acquisition of it, I confess I am strongly in favor of the older discipline by means of which so many generations of men of the highest eminence, both in the world of thought and that of action, have been made what they were, namely, classical and mathematical studies. The mind that will not be made accurate by conscientious study of the close-linked chains of mathematical reasoning, and by minute analysis of the grammatical structure of the ancient languages, will hardly have its congenital deficiency remedied by any other means. It is this which makes classical studies so extraordinarily valuable, even though 'small Latin and less Greek' remain as a permanent possession in after life. The facts themselves may be forgotten, but the mental vigor gained by striving to master them will not be lost."

Question (8) also received a fair share of attention from those who answered my circular. Some took strong ground in support of it, while about an equal number as vigorously opposed it. It was seen that if there was some way of making universal, what is now the general practice, of having head masters and principals present as *advisory* members of the board, when discussing school matters, that there would be no need for any legislative enactment on the subject. And I suppose the practice will not become universal until school boards become educated up to the fact that the assistance of the head master in dealing with school affairs is as indispensable as that of the lawyer when dealing with legal matters.

Question (9) fared like its predecessor :—for the present, at least, if school boards practice reasonable liberality in paying their head masters, the profession can well afford to leave the subject in abeyance.

Those who will read the subjoined selections from my kind correspondents, will find these questions, as indeed all the other topics, discussed in an exceedingly interesting and intructive manner.

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[The following replies to Prof. MacDonald's circular given here are typical of all. Some others appear in the Appendix. The figures on the left hand margin refer to questions on page 132.]

(1)

With regard to the scholastic requirements of head masters, it seems to me to be almost imperative that the master should not only have a general acquaintance with the principal subjects taught in the schools under his charge, but also be a master in the subjects which he is to teach. In calling attention to the need of a general knowledge of the subjects of a school curriculum, I wish not to recommend a specialist's knowledge of *all* these subjects. He may, I think, have had no training in some of the less important subjects; but in such cases his general intelligence and his developed power of acquiring knowledge quickly, will soon render him, in some degree, master of the subject. For example, a well educated

man in a very short time may make himself master of such subjects as book-keeping and some of the subjects whose elements alone, are taught in our schools. Such acquaintance as this is quite sufficient for the head master's work, which is here assumed as one of supervision.

But the head master, in fact, every leading teacher, should be thoroughly trained in the subjects that he teaches. He should not be merely a few steps in advance of his pupils. Assuming, then, that the head master should be a specialist in the subject he teaches, and also be sufficiently acquainted with the subjects of the school curriculum to do effective supervising, what regulations are best adapted to secure these objects.

The thorough mastery of any one subject or group of subjects cannot be acquired, in my opinion, from a course of study in any of our academies. A university course seems to be necessary for this, and furthermore, not a pass course but a specialized or honour course. Accordingly I should deem a university degree with honours on some subjects, or its equivalent (the equivalent being accepted upon good reasons being shown) an indispensable requirement.

Unfortunately all university courses and degrees do not imply the same standard. Consequently the C. P. I., on the advice of the Superintendent, must either select a number of universities whose courses are satisfactory (a plan in some respects the most satisfactory) or confess their inability to select and require of all candidates who have taken their degree with distinction an additional test. Perhaps the most satisfactory test under these conditions is an examination on many subjects of equal degree of difficulty; but rather an advanced examination in the subjects, e. g., mathematics which the candidate intends to teach; and thus accept the university degree for the remainder of the subjects. Our present Grade A, (classical or scientific), examination does not test high attainments in any one subject or group of subjects, but rather a general knowledge of several subjects. This general acquaintance might be assumed to be possessed by those who hold university degrees. For the degrees represent much more than knowledge,—they represent training, which the present examination does not necessarily imply.

With regard to the professional requirements of head masters, the first thing necessary to be sure of is that those who are to hold the foremost positions in the teaching profession are not only learned but have the capacity to teach. So I should require something more than certificate of success in passing examinations in professional subjects.

Now what is the best test of this capacity to teach? Experience in teaching is thought to be a test,—but who are the judges? If the failure is complete or the success very marked the public find it out, but in the great majority of cases there is nothing to rely upon except public rumor, and this very often is misleading.

A long period of service in different places may sift out the chaff; but if several years of successful experience, four or more, are required by law, the good man or woman who is well qualified at the end of one year's service, and who is acknowledged competent by all, is kept out of the good positions, greatly to the detriment of the profession and the public. For in all probability such a man will leave the profession and other good men will be deterred from entering it. The profession then only becomes a *stepping-stone* for good men and the refuge for the incompetent and unenterprising, who, by virtue of importunity, attain unto the highest positions.

Some other test must be devised. The best seems to be a course in some professional school or Normal School where frequent opportunities for teaching and frequent criticisms of such efforts are given. Here competent judges have an opportunity to form an opinion.

Furthermore, I have been going on the assumption that teachers are born, not made. Fortunately this assumption is not entirely true. Courses in professional training schools not merely test the candidate's capacity for teaching, but also instruct him in the art. "*Hominis, dum docent, discunt.*" Such instruction

comes best, it seems to me, through actual teaching under the supervision, criticism and suggestion of an experienced teacher. Hence I should regard much practical work as most important for the testing and training of the candidate.

Also the Head Masters should be intelligent teachers,—that is, should not merely be able to teach well, but know the how and why of their art. This is particularly important where the Master is afterwards called upon to supervise. Hence I think they should become familiar with the best literature upon educational theory.

Here I should consider not the rules and tricks of instruction the more important, but the general principles and objects of teaching. Accordingly I consider a course in some professional school in which there is an abundance of practice, and a good course in the principles and objects and methods of teaching, an indispensable condition not merely for testing the candidate's capacity for teaching, but also for training him and instructing him in the principles of his art.

Unfortunately, however, this test is not always quite satisfactory. It is one thing to teach a single class in a department under the control of the regular teacher, and another thing to keep two or three classes working smoothly and well,—to draw up a time-table and keep everything working smoothly, etc., etc. Some men do excellent work with a single pupil or group of pupils, but fail when given charge of a school. The tutor and the schoolmaster are quite different. The only way in which one can be tested and trained in this respect is by being given complete charge of a school. Hence I should recommend a year's experience in addition to the course in the training school.

In conclusion I may sum up for—

Scholastic: University degree with honours from a recognized university, or if necessary an examination (advanced and difficult) in the subjects to be taught by the candidate—*in addition.*

Professional: Course in training school and one year's experience.

8. Supervisors, yes. Head masters, no.

NOTE.—*Scholastic requirements* for head master in Scotland—a university degree with honours from any Scottish or other recognized university.

Professional—a course of lectures on teaching, 3 months, teaching 2 hours per diem in some public school, and the favorable report of the supervisor.

(2)

1. There should be some head masters holding classical "A's," some scientific, and some holding both. Perhaps one or two or even more subjects might be dropped from the present "classical," three or four from the "scientific," and yet more from the syllabus of the grade in which both are combined.

2. There should be a university degree, covering two or three classical papers, and two or three scientific ones. Our county academies should not do any "A" work. I would not absolutely shut out non-university men as academic teachers; nor would I grant "A's" to any one without a government examination.

4. Yes, with a government examination on professional subjects, all candidates for "A" to be examined at the Provincial Normal School, examinations to extend over eight days and to include laboratory work, determination of plants, etc.

5. A good substitute for what I have outlined in (4.)

6. Not needed.

7. Already covered.

8. Certainly not. Head masters and supervisors should be present as advisors, not as *ex officio* members.

9. No. Pay him a sufficient salary and let him be supposed capable of selecting for himself a sanitary and pleasant home. "Residence and garden" is a survival.

(3)

Concerning the present division of academic licenses into classical and scientific, I have no sympathy with either, as they are at present. Rather would I favor a return to the old grade A, with its somewhat wider syllabus, than the present bifurcatures. On its face it may not indicate its superiority to the present classical A, but the far more searching character of the examination necessary to obtain it, made its attainment impossible to one who can get the present A classical with minimum aggregate only.

The one who could obtain the old grade A was almost of necessity a college man, but to-day those who are little more than children are getting it from some of our academies, and in how many cases do they really *know* the subjects on which they have passed. As an academic teacher I can easily answer as to that. Let us suppose for a moment, and the supposition is an extravagant one, that they possess a good knowledge of those particular books specified in classical grade XII. Is that a sufficient qualification for the teaching of those works? A much wider knowledge than what is implied by the ability to *pass* in these works is necessary to teach them. Therefore, if the present conditions continue to hold, the possession of a college degree must be made imperative, if only to save us from a crop of immature and half-educated teachers.

I do not think much of our scientific "A,"---its pretentions are great, the results small,—but even if it were otherwise it is a superfluity in a public educational system. One who KNOWS as much science as is specified in the grade XII requirements, would almost be fit for a Harvard professorship in science; and the field for the exercise of all this science in the public schools of the country would be limited indeed. In the first place there is no demand for scientific A. In the second place there is not now, and cannot be for many years, the means for teaching its subjects. In the third place it is not public school but university work.

But when we consider that, as in the case of classical A, a half-knowledge only is necessary for the attainment of scientific A, the case becomes much worse, for there are few things more dangerous and more incompatible with the spirit of true education than a half knowledge in the field of science. As things are at present in this and other matters we are, I am afraid, leaping after the unattainable.

Failing anything better, I would suggest a return to the old grade A, with its mixture of classics and science—of the latter, not very much, but known thoroughly, in the true scientific spirit—together with a college degree.

As regards the professional training I would favor parts of (4) and (5) along with (6), i. e., the successful experience, first rank Normal School diploma, and the examination mentioned before those who are recognized authorities in such matters, and especially would I lay stress on the candidate's being thoroughly practised in the teaching of academic subjects during, at least, a year of Normal School attendance. For it seems to me that, though skill in teaching, *per se*, is the most important factor in primary work, yet a solid, far-reaching knowledge of the subject taught is of equal weight in academic work, and nothing tests this like teaching.

To (8) I would give an unqualified assent.

With respect to (9), much as I would like to see such a reform carried out on account of its securing greater permanence of position, yet I hardly think our Province sufficiently educated up to the advantage of such a step.

(4)

1. The possession of *either* A (Cl.) or A (Sc.) should be sufficient for any head master in our Province, as the classical side will give sufficient science for ordinary requirements and the scientific side sufficient classics for all ordinary students.

2. If there was an established Provincial university, not a teaching but an examining body, and all the colleges followed the same curriculum, I think a university graduate should be entitled to recognition as an "A" teacher, but only so far as scholarship is concerned. As things are I think the present system the best. I am also of opinion that none of the academies should spend their strength in pushing through "A" students. This work should be done by our universities.

3. With reference to professional requirements I am of the opinion that no Normal School can, for lack of time, give the required training, and that the best a head master can obtain is by actual teaching in preparatory work. The time limit of four years is perhaps too great. I would oppose any university graduate taking a head master's position until he had attended Normal School for a full year, unless he had previously attended such a school, or at least could give evidence of three years' successful experience as teacher. My opinion is that a short time, say one year, spent in teaching, preparatory to attending Normal School, would be more beneficial than obtaining a diploma first and then teaching. The training in the first instance would give the diploma higher merit. Head masters should have Normal training, but it should, I think, be had while holding a B certificate.

With reference to (8) I can say yes, except that it might be injudicious to give them voting powers in financial matters. In all other matters pertaining to schools I think they should have a vote. As a general thing the Head Master is appealed to by the Board in such matters, and it would give him a better status if he were recognized by law as one of the Board. This principle is followed in all the denominational academies and collegiate schools, their principals being members of the senate executive.

As to (9) I hardly think this *ideal* could be adopted in our province. It certainly would give the Head Master a better standing financially, and possibly a more lively interest in the institution in every way. But I hardly think we have arrived at that stage of advancement yet.

There are other matters of importance to be considered in this connection, and one especially is this: How is a Head Master to teach successfully all the subjects of the three grades when he is entirely alone? Another: Should these smaller Academies be obliterated and the larger ones take their students? And, are there not too many such High Schools and Academies?

(5)

The head master should have all the qualifications included in (1) and (2.) But of course he may have all these parchments—and in (2) they may really be all they seem—and yet the holder may be utterly unfit for the position. And he may be splendidly fitted for the work, without having any sheepskin at all.

4. Good, very good, capital.

5. Would depend altogether on the value of a first rank Normal School diploma.

6. Good—if the examination is such as to test—not mere cramming ability, but sound, thorough, systematic and sympathetic knowledge of language and literature. The "professional subjects" do not interest me at all.

7. Four or five years as a student in a high school taught by good teachers who did not think that their chief duty was to prepare their pupils for such an examination as the N. S Provincial examination. Then a year or two years' practice at teaching in the same or a similar school,—and all the time live for and work at some special subjects—say two or three—one of which ought to be a science, and one a long, broad and deep course of reading in English literature. I am thinking of the reality now and not of the form at all. Of course a real

education and a real culture and a real preparation may be covered by a degree and a Normal School diploma, etc., but my observation leads me to think that as a general rule—in this province at least—such is not the case.

8. Don't think.

9. Haven't decided.

(6)

Without going into details of qualifications, I may say that what you want in a head master is the warm, genial, magnetic, dominant manhood which sways and moulds young minds towards all that is good. Get a man so endowed, fill him full of all manner of knowledge, give him a free hand and put him in charge of a school: then you will have education.

(7)

1. Yes, if he has assistants who can take up the other side of the work. I believe that every head master should be a college graduate.

2. Successful experience in preparatory or *8th grade* work is not sufficient for head master. He should have some experience in high school work as well.

3. No one preparing for the position of head master should receive a *first rank* Normal School diploma until he has guaranteed to a certainty that he can teach. Having done so, it would be immaterial whether he had the subsequent experience or not.

4. A better way would be to have a head master's diploma, or in fact, a diploma for grade A awarded only after successful teaching. Awarding the diplomas first and getting the successful experience afterwards is very risky.

5. Written *exams.* are a poor test of fitness to handle a school. Every teacher should have practical experience under the supervision of some experienced head, and should have handled a school with good success before promotion to head mastership.

6. Yes, the lack of this is one of the weaknesses of our system. In no other way can the Board be kept in sympathy with the teachers and in touch with the workings of the sch[illegible] A business company would scarcely meet to consider their affairs and arrange for successfully conducting their business without having their manager with them. Yet school boards meet to discuss school matters without having with them any one who knows anything of the details of the school work.

7. I think head masters would prefer getting reasonable salaries and providing their own residences.

(8)

1. I regard the possession of both classical and scientific "A" as a good scholastic equipment for head masters.

2. One of the A's with a university degree may not be any better, and in many cases will prove not equal in value to (1). One must be pretty good all round to pass in classics and science and come out strong in (1), but a specialist may slip through a university, being strong enough to pass on one of these and pretty weak in the other.

3. At the present time with the facilities we have at hand for preparing teachers and with the demand for the best, I would not set up a standard lower than (1) or (2).

4. This training for some would produce a pretty good teacher; for many others it would not prove sufficient, and in no case would it be equivalent to, or take the place of some training under specialists in the art, and some experience in teaching.

5. This meets the case pretty well; but I would put one year's teaching before attendance at the Normal School.

6. I do not think that anything can or should take the place of some Normal School training if we would produce the best teachers. The three years' experience might prove of some value, but in that time the teacher might get into wrong habits and methods in some particulars that would never leave him, and still prepare himself to pass a pretty good examination.

7. One year's teaching followed by one year's attendance at the Normal School and again followed by two years' teaching. I would then add the examination as in (6) in order to be assured that the teacher is keeping up his reading, and possesses an active and vigorous mind.

8. I can see an advantage, indeed many advantages, that would result from such a law.

9. No. Instead of this make the salary sufficient, and let them choose their own residence. Much however can be said in its favor.

(9)

I do not think that it would be at present opportune to exact any further qualifications for head masters; but as a hypothetical affair, I beg to point out what may in the course of time be considered desirable. And for convenience I shall divide all our academies into two classes—one class supplying one academic teacher, and the other, two or more. The former I shall designate as the *smaller*, the latter as the *larger* academies.

The teacher employed in any one of the smaller academies cannot, for sheer want of time, follow the present high school course with anything like thoroughness. As it is not advisable to attempt the impossible, he should teach thoroughly such parts of the curriculum as best meet the needs of the section and pupils as a whole. This will determine the character of his work as classical or scientific, and determine the choice of the school board in engaging a head master. Hence, A (cl.) or A (sc.), as the case may be, will be sufficient for the smaller academies, or rather, good work can be done by either, even if he were not able to make time for all the subjects of the course. In the larger academies it would certainly be desirable that the head master should hold a scientific and a classical A, for he would thus be able to effectively supervise the work of all his subordinate teachers.

But for these institutions it seems to me that (2) would be, on the whole, preferable. A university degree with all that it implies, i. e., a ripe scholarship and a mind broadened and cultivated by contact for a considerable number of years with highly educated men, ought to be worth more than the qualifications implied under both "A's."

With regard to professional requirements, I think either (4,) (5,) or (6,) ought to be sufficient, and some one of three, or an equivalent, should be considered necessary. I believe that experience, if successful, is more valuable than Normal school training only, as a preparation for head mastership. The management of the school as a whole—teachers as well as pupils—requires experience which no Normal school, from the nature of things, can give.

8. Yes, most certainly.

9. No, let the town provide the salaries. Individual tastes and local conditions should be allowed free exercise in such matters.

(10)

With regard to requirements as to scholarship, what we want in a head master is a thorough knowledge of the subjects he is to teach and a general knowledge of the subjects to be taught by his subordinates,—meaning by knowledge not of course the mere possession of a stock of information but

a living, powerful knowledge. I do not think that the possession of both "A" certificates, or of one of the A's with a university degree is an adequate guarantee of the possession of the knowledge specified above. In my opinion the best guarantee would be the certificate of a teaching university of good repute and sufficently equipped, to the effect that the candidate for head mastership has pursued a course of study, including advanced work in the department he is to teach, and work in representative subjects of the department, the teaching of which he is to supervise; and, of course, that he has pursued this course of study with earnestness and success Such certificate would usually take the form of a degree with honors.

As answers to the (3) therefore I would suggest:—A degree from a good teaching college representing advanced work in the department to be taught and a well selected course of study in the main subjects of the department to be supervised.

With regard to professional requirements what we want in a head master is that he should be a good teacher himself and able to stimulate and assist his subordinates. A man may be a good teacher himself without any formal study of education, though most men would be the better, much the better of it. But such formal study seems to be a necessary condition of the efficient assistance of subordinates. A head master therefore, whatever his natural gifts, should I think have pursued a course of study of education, historical, theoretical and practical, either at a Normal School or at the education department of a university. The practical study should include both teaching under critical supervision and criticism of teaching carried on in his presence. If a candidate is put through a sufficient amount of such practical work, his teachers can easily form a judgment as to his ability or his promise as a teacher and as a supervisor of other teachers. If his teachers can certify only to promise as a teacher, it would, I dare say, be well for him to undertake subordinate work before that of a head master. But if his teachers can certify to ability as a teacher and promise or ability as a critic of teaching, I think he might well be permitted to undertake head master's duties at once. To condemn him to four or three or two years at subordinate work as a preliminary seems to me to involve no gain and much loss—at any rate little gain and much loss. I would myself have much more confidence in a recommendation from the teachers of a Normal School, provided they had had sufficient opportunity of judging of a man than in the recommendation of a head master or a school board, even after years of experience.

With regard to (8), I think it undesirable that a head master or supervisor should be a full member of the school committee or board, but desirable that he should meet with such committee regularly and have the right of taking part in their discussions.

As to (9) the more attractive the position of a head master can be made the better. But I should think that most men would prefer the amount of the rent of the house and garden to the house and garden themselves. There would doubtless be advantages however in having a residence for the head master near the school building, and the provision of such residence would perhaps add to his dignity, or rather his office, in the esteem of the community.

Discussion:—A lively discussion followed as to whether a head master should be a college graduate or not. Professor Eaton held that college graduates should not be kept on the same footing as others. They might pass on professional subjects only.

Inspector Maclellan protested against the proposition to shut out from high school preferment all but college graduates. It would prevent all but the sons of the comparatively wealthy from the attainment of honorable position in the teaching profession. Some of our best and most successful high school teachers of the past had not been college graduates. Many of the best at the present time

were not. He believed in setting a high standard of scholarship, but not in specifying the means by which it should be attained. The public could in general be relied upon to form a correct estimate of the value of a teacher, even if unstamped by a college.

Inspector Craig :—I am the last person who would deprecate in any way a college training, but I am surprised that Prof. Eaton would advise the revival of a system of licensing in this province, which, when it was tried, threatened to impair the efficiency of the high school work. When the law was in force admitting college graduates to an academic license by passing on professional subjects alone they came in by scores.

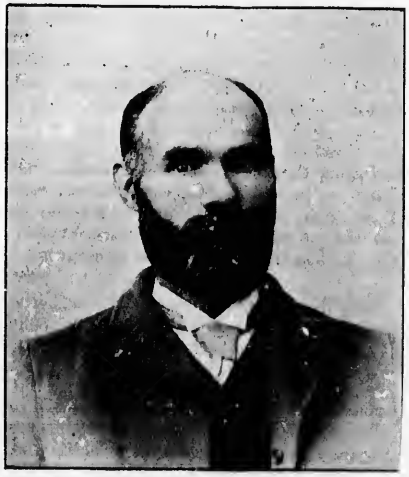
The education department, seeing the danger of allowing such a loose system of selection in force, revoked the statute ; and lo ! the result, not a dozen appeared the next year for the grade A examination, and few of these were graduates.

Sir, as long as college graduates show incompetency by failing to pass this "A" test, and every college has had its quota, they should be treated as ordinary mortals and be subjected to the same treatment.

Had we one central teaching university it would be different, but with several colleges having different curricula it would be most unfair and very detrimental to our educational system, especially the higher departments, to return to such a plan.

The leading academies of this province are principaled by men who have never had the advantages of a full college course, and do you believe that the public opinion is in error, when it commends these men to great positions of trust I do not say that those men would not have been the better of a college training, but the circumstances of their early life precluded such a course ; and would you say that these men ought not to enter the competition who, by their own dint of perseverance, have reached the top of their profession, a place their own intelligence and energies have commanded !

Inspector Roscoe argued that as many men who had got through on professional subjects only, had failed, they should be tested both in scholarship and in teaching ability.



Robert Maclellan, Esq., Principal Picton Academy.

*6th session—THURSDAY.*

# NATURE STUDIES IN THE SCHOOLS THE BEST PREPARATION FOR INDUSTRIAL OCCUPATIONS.

By W. R. Campbell, B. A., Truro Academy.

There was a time in the history of education when a man who could read correctly, write a good legible hand, and perform the ordinary arithmetical operations of every day business transactions was considered to have a good common school education. To secure this was the object of the district school, and, having accomplished this, the schoolmaster felt that his task was completed, and his obligations to the people fulfilled. Those who were more fortunate and entered the universities only received in addition higher mathematics, classics and philosophy. This was considered a finished education. No course was specially adapted to suit the likes of the student or avoid his dislikes. He received a general training without any regard to the course he intended to pursue in after life. His education fitted him equally for all professions and specially for none. Subjects were studied not for the direct benefit derived from them, but for the mental drill which they afforded. Narrow as such a course may be, we cannot overlook the fact that from these schools came forth some of our best thinkers. At the present time the school course contains a large number of subjects, some of them closely related, others widely diversified, so that a teacher who has given his attention merely to the three R's of the course, has only touched upon the outer edge of his manifold duties and has as yet only accomplished a small part of his work. A recent writer pointed out sixteen subjects on the course of study of an ordinary grade of the common schools. These were reading, spelling, composition, dictation, language, punctuation, parsing, analyzing, grammar, writing, drawing, history, geography, arithmetic, nature studies, music. From this he proceeded to prove the enormity of such a course for the ordinary child. To my mind he proved that he knew nothing about the matter at least in a practical sense. Many of these are not separate subjects but co-related parts of one subject. They cannot exist as separate subjects in the mind of the child. They will not be considered as separate by any reasonable teacher. Yet excellent as our present common school course is, we cannot overlook the fact that there is something in it that is destroying the life of the school and is not producing the results which its promoters had hoped it would produce. Many are of the opinion that it is the so-called new fads, drawing and nature studies, that are responsible for this. It must be evident to every observer that the time spent in these subjects is largely wasted, that other subjects which should receive more attention are being neglected, and that pupils are leaving school to-day worse prepared than formerly. The number of pupils from country schools who can creditably pass the entrance to the 9th and 10th grades is becoming less each year. Their knowledge of science is absurd and worse than useless. Their English and mathematics shews a marked falling off. The difficulty, however, is not in the

course itself, nor even in the subjects themselves, so much as in the method of teaching the subjects.

The primary object of all education should be to give the child such a training as will enable him most easily to secure the necessary comforts of life and at the same time to be of most good to his fellow-citizens and the community in general. Hence the three R's should form the basis of all primary education. It is with this end in view that the state undertakes the education of the child and says, under certain limitations, what shall be taught; and requiries the child to be in school at least a part of each year.

The fundamental duty, then, of each teacher should be to see that every child can read, write and speak good English readily and correctly; and that he has such a knowledge of arithmetical operations as will enable him to perform the ordinary business operations of daily life with reasonable accuracy. These are the most valuable educational acquisitions which a boy can carry with him into active life, and having these, he is well equipped for the duties of every day life. It is a matter of regret that so many of our young people of to-day leave school

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without being able to write a paragraph of good English or to apply their knowledge of mathematics to the ordinary affairs of business life. There is another duty equally devolving upon the teacher, and one which he should never loose sight of, namely, the moral and patriotic duties, the forming in his pupils of fixed and honorable character, the implanting in their minds of a sense of right and wrong, and the cultivation of that love of study and that general intelligence which will enable them in after years fitly to discharge the duties of citizens.

Education, however, has a secondary or special aim, namely, the presenting of the whole field of knowledge and providing the student with the means of properly exercising all his powers, mental, moral, æsthetic, manual, physical. A glance at the diversified nature of these subjects will shew that no one subject or set of subjects can give the required training, but that the whole field of knowledge must be scanned, and that studies the most widely diversified must enter into the course. To accomplish this, the student must follow an extensive range of subjects, many of them widely diversified and indeed bearing no relation whatever to each other. These will include, history, geography, language, ancient and modern, literature, mathematics, science, philosophy, physical culture, manual training, music, drawing, painting, modelling, and perhaps some others. I am not

among those who claim that these subjects are of no practical use to the child, although it is an open question to what extent they should be placed on the course of our public schools. It is evident that all of them have a certain educational value in themselves, not only for the practical use which they may be to the individual in after life, but also from the amount of mental discipline which the pupil receives from a thorough and systematic study of these different subjects. It is further evident that all these subjects have not the same educative value even from the standpoint of mental discipline. Some subjects, too, awaken a deeper interest in the pupil than others and consequently have greater incentives, and thus are more valuable from a moral standpoint. The ultimate end of all study should be to develop power in the individual, power to bring about results for himself in whatever field of labor he may choose, power to act with judgment, to think intelligently, and to express himself properly either in word or act. Now the power developed by the study of any subject must of necessity be specific, or in other words the power developed through one subject can not be transferred to another subject different in its nature. Thus the power derived from being a good linguist does not make a good scientist, or the power derived from both does not necessarily produce a good artist or sculpter, or even mathematician. This power, however, will be general inasmuch as it develops careful habits of thought and accurate forms of expression. If there is any one plea more than another for an extensive and varied course of study even in the lower grades of our common schools it is found in this fact that it is necessary in order to produce the fully developed, many-sided, liberal-minded man and woman.

There are many, however, who think that unless a subject can be gone into fully it had better not be attempted at all. We think that to be thorough we must be specialists, that to give pupils general ideas is but to give them a smattering of the subject, to make them flippant in their methods of study and conceited in their ideas. Better than much knowledge is the power to think intelligently, to express oneself accurately, and to investigate profitably. This leads to the question that, if all subjects are not of equal value in a school course, what proportion of time should be given to each. Prof. Honus of Harvard, one of the best authorities on educational value, classifies the values of the different subjects somewhat as follows: Language, literature, history and philosophy, being richest in incentives, develop most interest, and thorough interest develops permanent habits of thought and action. These subjects have accordingly the highest educational value. Of the other subjects, mathematics, natural science, manual training, have no social or ethical incentives and consequently have but a feeble educational value. It is not my intention in this paper to discuss these educational values, but, if the value of a subject is to be estimated by its richness in incentives, surely those subjects which bring the pupil face to face with nature, subjects in which pupils may examine the workings of nature and their laws, ought at least to be as rich in incentives as history or philosophy and consequently of equal educational value. Nature studies, however, as at present taught in our schools (I refer more particularly to the common schools) are not only worthless but are a positive injury to the school. Perhaps I might include much of the so-called scientific teaching in many of our high schools and colleges as well, but in these the mind of the student is more matured and consequently less susceptible to any injurious influences which may result. Let me outline a few of the methods of teaching nature lessons which are commonly practiced in many schools throughout the country.

Some teachers prescribe a text-book in science and require the pupils to memorize a certain amount for each lesson. I know actual cases where teachers have required their pupils in the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades to memorize lesson after lesson in Huxley and Yeoman's physiology as their course of drill in nature studies. Better no teaching than such teaching, not only is this of no benefit to the pupils, but the mind is being over strained by trying to grasp words without

ideas. The ordinary health reader, whi should form the basis of very valuable lessons to classes, is being debased to the same end.

Another method and one more common than the last, is that of dictating a large number of facts on a given subject and requiring the class to write them down and then memorize them. It proves superior to the last, in that it may be a very good exercise in dictation, but beyond that there is no difference; very closely allied to this is the method of telling the class everything. If pupils do not remember from the first telling, it is told again until they are forced to remember from frequent repetition. The defence for such a system has always been, we have not time to investigate, we have not time for research The course is too elaborate, too many subjects, too much work. The evil is rather within ourselves. What we want is not to teach many things, but to teach well; better a few lessons well taught than much stuff poorly taught. There are many teachers but few trainers, many who know how to tell, but few who know how to get the child to observe, reason and understand. It must be evident to every one that a large number of teachers grossly incompetent in the matter of teaching nature studies and in fact any subject, come forth each year; teachers who have no special idea of what is required of them, and who have no natural ability to adapt themselves to the requirements of their pupils. One has but to spend an hour in many of our schools and hear pupils repeating parrot-fashion, words of which they do not know the meaning much less the ideas. They give to their classes what they have themselves received, words without knowledge, the shadow of education without the reality. So long as men and women are allowed to enter the profession without any guarantee of their ability to teach, so long will this state of affairs continue. During the year ending 1894, the last for which we have any official returns, there were 2,351 teachers employed in the province. Of these only 432 or not one-fifth had been over 10 years in the profession; 950 or two-fifths had been 5 years and over in the profession; of these 288 were new teachers. When we consider how few of these ever had any special training or in fact ever attended a good school we cannot wonder at the results.

(1) To remedy these evils we must have better training on the part of teachers; not until new teachers are put under a thorough course of practical teaching under skilled supervision, can we look for better results. Model schools or district institutes, should be established at different centres for a part of each year, leaving to one central normal school the advanced training. By grouping large numbers of students at one centre it is impossible to give each student that personal attention which is necessary to secure a skilled teacher. By slight modifications of our course of study, many of our high schools aided by the inspector could give candidates a professional training, which would be productive of immense good throughout the schools of the province.

(2) Better supervision over those engaged in teaching. Country schools suffer most from lack of proper supervision. City and town schools have a system of inspection either through their supervisor or principal, which does much to remedy this state of affairs. New teachers too, learn by contact with the older and more experienced ones. Our inspectors are doing excellent work for the country schools but with their one ot two visits a year, they cannot accomplish what is necessary. If district supervision could be added to inspectoral visits much good would be done.

(3) Fewer text-books in our schools. With many teachers, text-books are used as a means of avoiding work. Pupils are made to memorize everything without regard to its practical use or their ability to understand or apply it. It is easier for teachers to sit down and hear pupils recite than it is to handle and teach the lesson. Such teachers are false to their trust and dishonest before God and man. I hope the day is not far distant when there will not be a text-book in the common school course but reading, spelling and problems in arithmetic.

4. More interest on the part of teachers. Many teachers feel that when school is dismissed their work is done until to-morrow. It is one thing to lock up the

worries of the school at the end of the day; it is another thing to lock up the responsibilities. No teacher can be successful who does not plan out of school the work to be carried on in school. No teacher can teach a subject rightly unless he has first outlined some plan of work and made himself familiar with the subject, unless, in short, he has placed himself in the position of the child and found out what difficulties the child is likely to encounter, and how he can best meet those difficulties. A man who for the third of a century stood at the head of his profession, when asked why he did not spend more evenings out, replied, "I have not time. It takes all my evenings to arrange my work so as to make the most out of the work for next day." Yet, I am safe in saying that one half of our teachers never give any forethought to the lessons required for the day, and don't even know in the morning whether their lesson shall be on plants, animals, or minerals. The natural process of education is from the simple to the complex. The child begins with the perceiving objects. It is things, not names; ideas, not words. After the proper knowledge of the object comes names, and not until the child is familiar with the object is the name of any significance. Sensation, observation, imagination, are as well developed in the child as in the man. Memory, except in its simplest form, is not developed. To exercise memory at this stage is only to injure the child. Hence, through these channels the education of the child should be conducted.

The popular *Science Monthly* in a recent article says: "If there is a fact experience has overwhelmingly illustrated and established, it is that mere book-teaching of science is void and of none effect, nay, that it is worse; that it has an actively injurious effect on the mind, which it deadens with meaningless jargon and befogs with ill comprehended notions. How hollow, and often how fantastically absurd are the ideas children acquire of things of which they are told but which they have never seen or handled. Let us turn children out of the public schools ignorant, if need be, of many things that are taught to them now, but let this idea be rooted in their minds, that this world is made up of real things; and this further idea that words are worse than useless unless they can be applied in the most definite manner to well understood objects of sense and thought."

The first aim of nature studies should be to cultivate habits of correct observation. You are all familiar with the instances often quoted of masters who had developed the power of observation in their pupils to such an extent that they could tell everything that was exhibited in a shop window while running past it. Observation in itself however may be of very little worth. Many people have the power of observing even to the minutest details things in which they are interested without deriving any practical value from it. Such observation you may find developed in many animals. It may be nothing more than a loading of the mind with disconnected facts none of which have any bearing upon the other. Observation to be of any real value must be organized. It must relate one thing to another and interpret one thing by another. It must find relations of cause and effect. In other words observation must be followed by thought, reason and even imagination.

Nature studies encourage habits of investigation. When once a child begins to investigate for himself he finds that many of his ideas are wrong. New ones have consequently to take their place. This desire for further investigation continues. Habits of original research and systematic study are instituted. I cannot believe that it is the love of wilful destruction that makes the child tear to pieces its doll or its flower. If we knew the working of the infant mind we would probably see that a desire to find out something was the prime cause. It is the duty of the teacher to guide these desires and direct these investigations in accordance with nature and not kill out all such desires by trying to crowd the mind with words without meaning, and facts which to them have no reality. Nature studies stimulate the imagination; especially that imagination which enables the pupil to deduce general principles from particular occurrences. By a systematic

study of nature, habits of carefulness are formed, carefulness in making observations, in performing experiments and in drawing conclusions. It will consequently lead to more accurate forms of expression and hence forms an excellent training in the use of language.

Nature studies then in brief may be said to develop the power of observation, encourage habits of investigation, stimulate the imagination, quicken the power of thought, secure more accurate expression, give the pupil a deep and abiding love of nature and lead him from nature up to nature's God.

[Halifax Herald Report.]

Discussion :—"This paper was well received and aroused a spirited discussion.

Principal McVicar was on his feet at once when the speaker took his seat. He considered this association as the best he had ever attended, and that he knew was the general belief. He thought the need of the time was better teachers. Let text books be discarded. They were oftener a hindrance than a help. He believed that district institutes would greatly improve matters.

Principal Smith, Guysboro, found the work too severe, and the time too short in order to get over the work of the high school course so far as it relates to the professional qualifications required of those who write for license. He contended that most of the teachers would come from the high schools for years yet. The time taken at the normal school for professional work was far too long.

Professor Haley, of Acadia College, gave an illustration of a model lesson by a New England teacher, to illustrate the teaching of geography. His idea was that if we used right methods the trouble would not be to get children into the schools but to keep them out. He advised geographical excursions, etc.

Professor Eaton asked if that sort of lesson was on the line of concentration.

Professor Haley said the trouble was with the teachers. They required several years of thorough training. They should go into teaching to stay and not drop out in six months ; permanency was required.

Professor Eaton fully agreed with Professor Campbell. He agreed in the practical abolition of text books for the common schools.

Professor Smith, of the Provincial School of Agriculture, thought the last few speakers had been soaring. He thought if the common school teachers were so poor, it was the fault of the high schools for not making them better. They did not teach as they preached. If they did their duty the common school teachers would be all right.

Principal Kennedy came to his feet. He at once threw the blame on the normal school. He did not believe that teachers were so bound down to the text books as had been stated. If it were so, there was need of some heavy missionary work. He did not believe it. He struck a humorous vein and convulsed the audience by his apt illustrations of bad teaching through compelling pupils to memorize.

Inspector Maclellan said he had heard a grade B teacher, who was also a Normal School graduate, decline to give a language lesson when asked to do so, because there was no text-book to be found in the school room. A second search resulting in the discovery of a book, this teacher sat down, opened it at the first page and asked in all seriousness, "what is a word"? To this enquiry came the prompt reply : "A word is a significant combination of articulate sounds capable of being represented by written characters" The speaker wished to emphasize the fact that, although the teacher referred to had come from the

W. E. MACLELLAN, L.LB., INSPECTOR OF SCHOOLS, PICTOU.

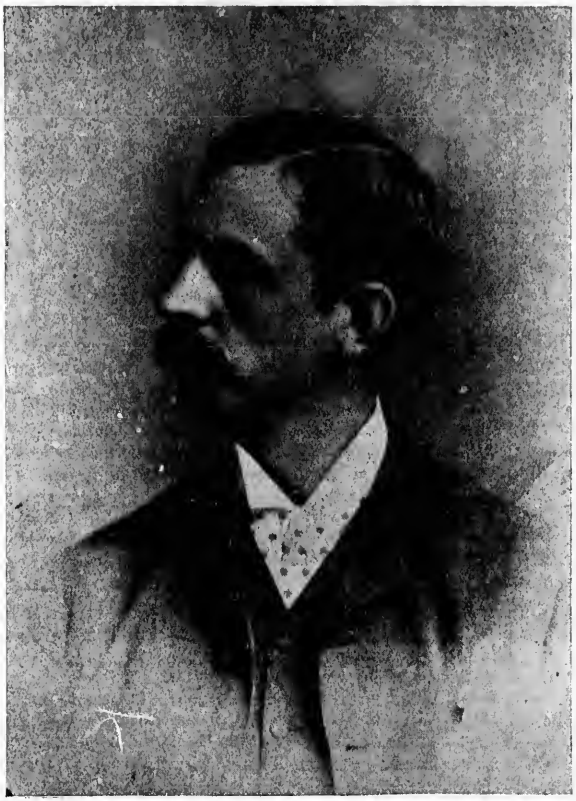
Normal School, yet that institution was no longer turning out such work. He paid a high compliment to the efficiency of its present services in the training and improvement of teachers. He thought that its influence for good would soon be still more widely felt. A well trained, competent and enthusiastic teacher left his mark on a section for many years. He knew of one section in the county of Pictou where the beneficial effects of the work done by a teacher of some twenty years ago could still be distinctly traced on that and a number or adjoining sections. Teachers who contented themselves with the hearing of recitations from text books could accomplish no such work as this. He believed in minimizing the memorizing of the text books, and, in increasing as much as possible the time devoted to actual teaching in school. Text books should be mainly regarded as books of reference.

PRINCIPAL FORREST asked if it would be permitted for an old fossil like himself, who was in danger of being pinned up as a specimen, to speak, for a few minutes. He would just like to say that there was just a little danger of "gushing." He asked how a teacher in Maitland could go to the head of the Shubenacadie river to show how a river takes its rise, or where a teacher in Halifax would go to find the source of the Atlantic ocean. He believed that a school could not be well taught without memorizing something. Memorizing was necessary as well as other things. The geography was too diffuse. Geography could be taught all right, right in the school room. He thought the discussion was in the right direction, but, said he, our fathers knew something after all.

DR. HALEY said his remarks were really in the way of a suggestion. He told that at the Sheffield high school the boys, taught without the text books, even in the case of as abstract a subject as geometry, were better able to do good independent work than those who had used them. The Yale college examiners had told him so and he did not doubt it from his own experience in that line.

DR. HALL said that from his observation in the German schools the use of the text book should be limited just as far as possible.

# THE IDEAL PRODUCT OF THE COMMON SCHOOLS GRADES.

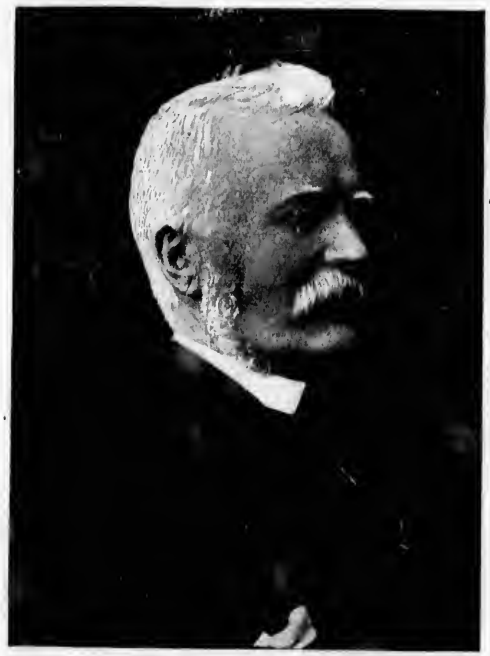


ALDERMAN W. J. STEWART, ESQ., CHAIRMAN HALIFAX SCHOOL BOARD.

[HALIFAX HERALD REPORT.]

"COMMISSIONER STEWART of Halifax was to have read a paper on the "Ideal product of the common schools grades," and COMMISSIONER MCKERRON of Halifax was to speak to it, but he took Mr. Stewart's place in introducing the subject. He instanced a case in the Halifax schools where he had visited a school room and asked

a teacher to teach a lesson. She said there were to be no lessons this morning. Well, give me a lesson you have taught, he said. She then got a text book and heard a lesson in geography. He thought also she was not alone. In flowing sentences he "went for" the teachers and the schools in most severe terms. He seemed to think there were few honest teachers. Said he, are the teachers giving value for their salaries? Let every teacher solemnly lay his or her hand on his or her heart and ask whether he is or she is honestly doing the work which should be done. He thought the answer would be in the negative. After thoroughly rating them for their inefficiency and in many cases dishonesty, he undertook to show how the work should be done. He showed how readily children learned and remembered a little rhyme like "He learned to Kiss Yum Yum," and thought if some such method was used, proper results would be obtained. After finishing



WM. MCKERRON, ESQ., COMMISSIONER OF SCHOOLS, HALIFAX.

his exposition of methods, he asked why teachers were not more permanent in their positions, or in other words, why they were so itinerant. Was it because they were not paid, or what was the reason? But turning to the question, the ideal product was a thorough man. He urged greater moral training, and urged it strongly. He gave a long disquisition on the vast importance of moral training to the youths of the land, and shewed how it could be accomplished. Morality he considered of more importance than any other thing the schools could produce." [We regret not being able to procure a fuller report of Commissioner McKerron's able speech.]

DISCUSSION :—PRINCIPAL LAY, Amherst Academy : Ideals are very unsatisfactory things to write about, very elusive things to reach for, except by novelists and poets, and they are on safe ground, for they manufacture not only the ideal, but the forces that produce it, and according to their skill can correlate them. In this present discussion we have the forces in being, very complicated forces, and out of a very vast and varied display of products, we are supposed to be looking for an ideal. Will we find it, or, if the present speaker does so, will it be at all after the fashion of anything on the earth or in the sea of his neighbor's imaginings? I have had a good opportunity of seeing the products of our C. S. system, for as pupil and teacher I have known it since its inception, but up to the time of the announcement of this paper, I am doubtful whether I had seriously thought of any particular being or charneter as it product. In common with my fellow teachers of similar length of service, I have followed many and varied careers in the persons of old pupils. The pulpit, the bar, medicine, the farm, the ocean, the merchant's office, and even, a very unique experience, the convict's cell, have sent me tokens of recognition as an old teacher of some occupant, and never did I think of their condition as the product of forces I was superintending. I acknowledged the force of the home, of companions, of heredity, but not of the schoolroom, in these products, but after all there may be floating about the direct product of our school system.

But let us try to gather from our subject what the compiler of this program was seeking for when he evolved the title, and to do so we must study the course of study. Prominent there, we find the time-honored trio, which has given all students the privilege to command the whole field of knowledge, and to enter and possess if he pleases.

Our ideal reader is not only able to read to his own satisfaction, but to please his listener, for his training has given him something of elocutionary skill, and added to that, a tact for seeing the meaning readily, together with a taste for the most profitable kind of reading. And he is going to revise the good old custom in the winter evenings, of reading aloud to the assembled family circle, instead of selfishly burying himself in books, or newspapers. Does our course make such readers? Is the source of the pupil's reading such as to give him a taste for good and beautiful literature? Is this spending of a year at a reading book that does not contain as much as a good daily newspaper, often perhaps familiar beforehand through the reading of the last class, this repeating and re-repeating of old lessons until the time comes for a new book, to profit? Do those books contain the most judicious kind of reading? Are our teachers getting the kind of training that will enable them to produce our ideal readers?

Then our ideal pupil is a good writer. No flourishes, but a plain honest hand that tires no one's eyes or patience, but lies level, black and upright before you on the page. His copy-books have been so well graded, his teacher's watchfulness so ever present, that he is a good writer, and prides himself upon it. He knows when he writes a letter, just how to fold the paper to fit the envelope, instead of thrusting it in a bundle. The address, looks fair from east to west, and is plain enough too to run the risk of the dead letter office. He knows that his writing is the first testimonial he will present to the world which he is eager to enter, and he is not afraid of its inspection.

He is able to perform the fundamental rules of arithmetic correctly and neatly rather than quickly. There is no more chance of making a mistake in the addition of a lengthy column than of a dwarf one. His knowledge of fractions will enable him to add or substract 3 and two thirds and $4\frac{1}{2}$ without reducing to improper fractions and finding the C. D., and there is no chance of his misplacing the decimal point. He can tell you the number of cords in a pile of wood, the number of bushels in a bin of grain, the thousands of shingles or feet of boards necessary to cover a building. He may not know how much above cost to put the price of his father's hay or butter or beef, so that a certain per cent may be dropped, and the old man still

make a profit of another certain per cent, but he is able to tell the cost of butter or beef, or hay, and whether ruling prices are giving him a profit or not. He does not grieve if he is ignorant of the metric system even, for his father has told him how easily the pupils of a former generation dropped into the use of $'s and cts. when their use was made a necessity, although the boys and girls were not educated up to it by years of drill in the arithmetic. He is satisfied that when the government calls upon men to use metre and kilogram, that they will pick them up as easily as their fathers did the $'s and cts. and that necessity after all is the only schoolmaster that educates people up to the point of adopting the new for the old. He is not quite sure about true discount but he can calculate the interest on a note correctly. He can keep a correct account of his doings with his neighbors. It may be all done in one book, preferably a cash book for he reached that point in ethics which requires him to owe no man anything, but that book shows him his standing, and can yield him just as plain a balance sheet as if he knew all about ledger and I. B., and all the multifarious rules of journalizing. He can write you a note, if necessary, without leaving out the essential parts, and can give a receipt.

His knowledge of drawing enables him to draw the plan of the interior of a house, and a fair elevation of it. He cannot perhaps, draw a cone in different positions, but he can sketch a maze of country roads to the untravelled stranger. He is not good at ornamental designs, but he can sketch to the carpenter what he wants in door or bookcase, can draw a field or garden plot, perhaps measure its angles and estimate its area. What little manual training he received has been in connection with this, so that his knife, at the least, can follow his pencil plan, and his designs show in relief as well as on the flat. He can fold and tie a parcel neatly, can give a good point to a lead pencil, and do many a little thing that only a careful teacher sees can be made useful in his training.

His careful attention to form and frequent re-writing of common words enable him to spell the ordinary words in a letter, while his teacher's care in drilling him in the use of a dictionary keeps him from making a dash at the extraordinary ones. He is still hoping for the spelling reform, but his teacher tells him it seems to be farther away now than a decade of associations ago.

### GRAMMAR.

I am afraid a rigid examiner would find his parsing and analysis a little out, and his definitions not always correct. He has forgotten many of the rules of syntax, and forgotten page after page of etymology, but his faithful instructor has cultivated his ear so that it is pained by bad syntax, and has so carefully watched his playground English that he speaks correctly. We understand his meaning, spoken or written, which is more than we can say about our text books on grammar sometimes, and we thank our school system and take courage, since he has been enabled to steer clear of the giant despair of formal grammar, and in spite of him walk erect before his castle clothed in the armour of honest Anglo-Saxon.

I would like to see the experiment tried of putting the text book on grammar out of the schools for 3 or 4 years, and then a careful examination made to see whether our ideal speaks and writes the English language more or less correctly as the result. Will he be any more apt to say he "laid in bed too long" and to tell his dog "to lay down" than he is now? When he hears that they are going to begin the study of grammar again, will he be any the less likely to say "I ain't going to study no grammar."

As to composition our grade VIII. describes it well. "Pupils at this stage should be able to express themselves fluently and with fair accuracy in writing for all ordinary purposes," though how they are at this particular stage to do so is not, perhaps, quite so plain. But all along the way advice has been given and principles laid down involving a boy who can write an interesting letter home about school or scenery,—not the ones in the comic papers, they are written by grown up boys who are paid for it,—but a description

that tells us plainly what the writer wishes us to know. And he has not forgotten his punctuation marks, for he has been taught to get along fairly well with comma and period, and a question mark if he needs one. The capitals are all in their proper places, and if he has been taught to paragraph, the divisions are as patent to the eye as to the mind.

GEOGRAPHY.

He leaves in his text book, instead of his head, the heights of mountains, lengths of rivers, latitude and longitude, but is able to sketch from memory a fairly correct map of his country, his province, and even of the continents. He knows a good deal about the surface of his native country, the direction of its rivers, the slope of the land, facilities for farming or manufacturing or mining, and has some general idea of the same in foreign countries. He has pretty shrewd notions of the effect of situations, slope and surroundings of a place on its climate and even its soil, and can figure a little on early frosts or drought in such a locality. As you see, a good deal of his geography has been learned out of doors. He has traced a brook to its source, and watched its work; has seen the work of the stream in bringing down its tidal sediment and wearing away the land, enough for him to understand something of what these forces have accomplished in the past.

HISTORY.

He does not know a great deal about history, but he has had enough interest aroused in his mind on the subject in the school room to determine him to read up as soon as he can get the books. What he has learned about the colonization and discovery of his native province has whetted his curiosity about his forefathers and their history, and what he has gathered about government, is going bye and bye, to set him seeking into the politics of other countries. His past relations with his neighbors have given him an interest in present ones He has heard much interesting biography and heard from his teacher. The lives of the true and the brave have been brought near to him, and he is going to emulate them. He knows about the government of the school section, who the members of the county council are, how they are elected, and what are their duties. He knows who goes from his county to Halifax every spring for the session of parliament, who sends him and what he goes for, ditto about the greater personage that journeys to Ottawa. In short, although not great at dates or genealogies, his human interest with the rest of the big family of man has been touched, and he is a better member of that family, and better equipped to take his place in it, and help shoulder it along the path to progress.

NATURE LESSONS.

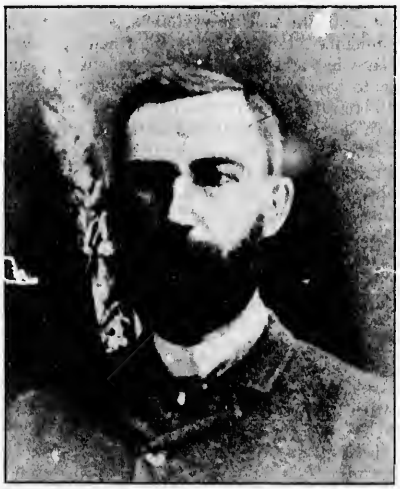
These have been so numerous and so varied that it is hard to say just how our ideal pupil is equipped by their aid, but the teacher's faithfulness and the help of the course cannot have been in vain; he must have imbibed a strong love for nature. He has forgotten, or perhaps, never heard the botanical terms, but he knows the Rose F. and Heath whenever he meets one of their numerous offspring, and this acquaintance begets interest. He knows an annual from a perennial weed, and he knows whether it is necessary to destroy the root or not. He knows something about grafting and sets, and altogether, his knowledge, although not very bookish, is of the nature that leads to practical results. And then he has learned a little about soil and plant food, not much, but enough to tell him the difference between hungry and fertile soil, between the food necessary for the pea and for the potato.

MINERALS.

He knows a piece of quartz when he sees it in other ways than by its colour, can tell limestone from plaster, gold from pyrites, is quite sure about iron ore, and

certain that he won't mistake any variety of it for manganese. He would not prospect for coal along the granite coasts of Guysboro, nor for gold in a Cumberland free-stone quarry, and although some of this is the result of later experience, the lessons of the course have had important place in obtaining this knowledge.

He knows the life history of an insect, can recognize the injurious ones, and knows a little about their poisons, will not kill the lady-bug and the ant along with the aphis, but will recognize them as friendly fellow-destroyers. When some new maggot attacks his carrots or onions, he knows it is a larva, patiently tracks it to its propogating home, preserves it till the insect appears, sends his information to the man of science from whom he receives the compliments due a discoverer, and who sends a learned disquisition by some simple formulas, conductive to the future welfare of onion and carrot crop.



E. J. Lay, Esq., Principal Amherst Academy.

He understands the use of the barometer and thermometer, can tell you the danger of bad ventilation, learns its signs and some simple ways of overcoming it. His simple health lessons have taught him the danger of narcotics, the advantage of exercise, necessity of care in eating and drinking, care of his teeth, how to stop bleeding in case of accident, what to do in case of drowning accidents, etc., or scalding, till the doctor arrives. He may not be able to give an exact definition of loyalty or patriotism, but he feels both. His lessons on the old flag, the greatness of the motherland, and the future of his native one, the stories of those who have battled for what he now enjoys, have started in him a little plant of patriotism that is bound to grow, and has made him a loyal son of Canada, and when he comes to manhood, whether he be grit or tory, and the ideal boy is going to be largely grit, he will see that his country's birthday is going to be a school holiday. His words have not been neglected. He has been taught to love purity and truth, to be honest in everything, respectful and gentle to all, scorning a mean action, delighting to help the weak, doing a good day's work for his neighbor as for himself. These are some of his equipments, but not all. I trust that along with them the true end of this training is not lost, the power has been put in him of

acquiring new knowledge. His eye and hand and mind have been taught to work together, not to pile up truths in his memory that others have hewn out of the rough, but to pick up their untouched or discarded blocks, and by his own 'prentice hand discovering what is hidden, to use his mind, his eye and his hand in observing the visible world around him and in judging according to evidence.

Now, I flatter myself I have sketched quite a delightful young person, and one whom you are all glad to know, and you all know him, for he is not the product of our common school system ; i. e., the ideal product. If not, where lies the fault? In the course? Assuredly not, for it has everything down in black and white that I have mapped out, and a good deal more. Does the course then demand too much? You would be loathe to think so, after accepting it unreservedly for so many years. You would be throwing a grave reflection on your judgment. Are our boys and girls not of the make up to digest this food? You reject that. Again, our teachers themselves are the product, and presumably the best product of this course, for it all leads up to the teaching syllabus. This increases our perplexity. Where then is the difficulty? It must be in the teaching ; these good appliances must be misused. In what other way can we explain it, if our ideal is not to be found, or if so rare as to be a museum curio? My own opinion is that the teacher in the mass must be blameable, but he has not to bear all the blame, the heaviest part of that rests on the system that calls an unskilled workman to perform skilled labor ; that puts into the hands of the raw apprentice the costly tools and delicate material that should fall to the lot and leaves it there. But the workman must serve his apprenticeship ! True. He must make mistakes ! True again. We are forced to employ this unskilled labor ! But the terrible truth is that the apprentice takes possession of the shop, and although he remain an apprentice all his days, he stays there. Even after a normal school training, he is but an apprentice, his manner of approaching his work a little more confident, his tools a little brighter, but perhaps not more skilfully handled when he comes to use them from under the eyes of his master.

And I am here to testify, that in scores of hamlets in Cumberland and Colchester, when those polished tools, that went so smoothly through the carefully prepared material at Truro, struck against the rough knots of the raw material that they were thrown aside with the terrible disappointment of failure, often never to be resumed.

The trouble then is, that the apprentice does not go on "from more to more," mainly because his training ends too soon. Where is this after help to come from? There is the rub. I have my own opinion about it, but that is another matter.

I may be allowed a word of explanation here. I took the liberty of changing the title announced for my paper. It should be not The, but My ideal product of the Common School Course. The ideal product of my idea of a course might present more striking peculiarities. I do not want its shoulders to be burdened by more than it has to bear.

*7th session—FRIDAY.*

# THE PART WHICH THE SCHOOL PLAYS IN MORAL EDUCATION.

By Prof. W. C. Murray, M. A., Dalhousie College.

**Moral Education (a) Its Problem.**

Among the many noteworthy changes which have recently taken place in the interests of the educational public, is the revival of interest in the moral and political bearings of education. As evidence for this, one might mention the several text-books on Practical Ethics and Civics, intended for use in schools, which have been published within the last two or three years, also the recent outburst, in this country and Great Britain, of popular interest in religious instruction in schools. For the strength of the demand for religious instruction in public schools lies in the belief of its advocates, that religious beliefs are vitally important for civic as well as for private virtue.

This increased interest in moral and civic instruction is, however, a revival. The recognition of the moral and civic value of education is as old as the ancients. No one, so far as I know, has attached more importance to moral education than Plato. In the "Republic" we have perhaps the best discussion of the object, the methods, and the instruments of moral and civic education.*

In our great English classics, the same prominence is given to the moral side of education. According to Milton, the object of education is "to repair the ruins of our first parents." (Tractate on Education). Locke also says, "that which every gentleman desires for his son, besides the estate he leaves him, is contained in these four things, *Virtue, Wisdom, Manners, and Learning* * * * * I place virtue as the first and most necessary * * * * I put learning last and think it the least part."†

The partial eclipse of moral education in this century was no doubt due partially to the spell which science, with its marvellous discoveries, has cast upon the men of this time and the consequent magnification of the importance of knowledge in education. It is also in some small measure due to the gradual disappearance of the private and boarding schools. These schools professedly put morals and manners first and knowledge second. The public schools with their large numbers and short hours, their inevitable examinations and their inspections cannot give as much attention to moral training.

The present day enthusiasts for moral education have unfortunately too often identified the objects of moral and of intellectual education. They seem to think the object of each is increase of knowledge; in one case it is increase of knowledge of nature, and of man, his occupations and his history; in the other it is

*[Note.—Of Nettleship's essay on the "Theory of Education in the Republic of Plato" (published in Hellenica by Longmans), which is little more than a systematic statement of Plato's theory, Prof. Laurie says it is "the most admirable of all modern treatises on the Philosophy of Education."

[† Thoughts on Education, §§ 134, 135, 147, (Quick's edit.)].

increase of knowledge of right and wrong, of the good and bad, of the noble and base. Accordingly they attempt to use the same means and methods for teaching morality that have proved successful in teaching knowledge. To this want of discrimination between the objects of moral and of intellectual education we must attribute the use in the schools of text-books in morality.

But the objects are quite different. Moral education is concerned with conduct, action. Intellectual education has for its object either increase of knowledge, or increased capacity for acquiring knowledge. Moral education has not done half its work when it has only imparted correct ideas of right and wrong. It has not formed the desired habits and hence has not developed character. The mere possession of knowledge of right and wrong does not necessarily lead to virtuous conduct. There must be not merely knowledge of the right, but a disposition to do the right.

The great difficulty of moral education is to produce their willingness to do the right—the will inclined unto righteousness. Any theory of moral training which does not recognize that the disposition towards virtue is the first thing to be aimed at, and that knowledge of virtue is only of secondary importance is already doomed to failure.

But some may ask, is not action influenced by knowledge and may not the presentation of moral truths be the most effective way of securing good conduct? The difficulty of moral education, it is said, is to supply effective motives, and is not knowledge of right one of the most effective motives to virtuous conduct? Yes, we may answer, knowledge may be the most effective motive for the *good man*. But we are concerned with boys and girls, with children whose powers of grasping moral truth are limited and whose characters have only begun to develop. How appeal to them? How incline them towards right doing?

We cannot dispose them to right action by appeals to reason, let us see if we can attain the desired end by appeals to their instincts.

**(*b*) Its Assumption.**

Are children naturally bad? Do they begin life predisposed to evil? Some of you no doubt feel inclined to smile at these questions. They have a strong theological flavour about them; and they seem to be of no vital importance to him who is interested chiefly in the easiest way to prevent mischievous boys and talkative girls from turning the school into a pandemonium. Yet this question of the natural disposition of the boy or girl is a most important one for any theory of moral training. The parent or teacher makes certain assumptions about the boy's propensities and forthwith proceeds to devise ways and means for expressing or developing those natural inclinations. If the child be predisposed to evil, the only course to pursue is to eradicate the bad. The method adopted is usually one of punishment, or an appeal to his fears. The teacher or parent endeavors by liberal and frequent castigations to readjust the balance of pleasures and pains in favor of right doing. Moral education then becomes a kind of birch cure for inborn depravity.

In the Tractate on education Milton says, that the task of education is "to repair the ruins of our first parents." In other words, the parent or teacher must recast the boy's nature. This belief in the total depravity of the boy is not merely distasteful to those who like children, but is sadly discouraging to the earnest teacher. Well may the teacher ask himself in tones of despair, 'How can I succeed, if upon my shoulders rests the great task of recasting the child's nature.' 'There would be some hope of success, if my work were merely to guide and direct a nature already pre-disposed to goodness.'

Not only is this belief in the native depravity of the child sadly discouraging, but it tends to defeat every effort made to make the child better. Experience has taught us all that boys and girls generally act up to the opinion which we form of them. If we are suspicious of a boy's truthfulness or honesty and let him see our suspicion, too often he will lie to us or deceive us. On the other hand, if he

knows that we trust him he will seldom wilfully deceive us. If boys come to the conclusion that they are to have a bad name, they seem disinclined to forego the delights of law-breaking; but if they feel that they stand well in the esteem of others, they delight in maintaining their reputation.

Now, if a teacher looks upon his pupils as little fiends or demons, who are quiet only because they cannot help themselves, very soon those active little fellows unconsciously will set about exerting themselves in accordance with the teacher's expectations. I say 'unconsciously'; for they are quite the victims of suggestion. The teacher by word or act lets them into his fears or anticipations, and that thought takes possession of their active little minds, and no sooner is it in possession than it sets the small boy in motion.

Let me quote from a very suggestive work on education by Guyau. "The state of the child at the moments of its entrance into the world is more or less comparable to that of a hypnotised subject. It is peculiarly open to *suggestion*. Everything the child perceives will therefore be a suggestion. This suggestion will give rise to a habit which may sometimes be prolonged through its lifetime, just as the impressions of fright instilled in children by nurses are, as we know, perpetuated. The moral art of suggestion may be defined as the art of modifying an individual by persuading him that he is or may be other than he is." Again he says: "It is often enough to tell children and young people or otherwise lead them to believe that we assume this or that good quality in them, to induce them to exert themselves to justify the opinion. To assume in them depraved sentiments, to reproach them undeservedly, to treat them badly is to produce the contrary result." "All education indeed should be directed to this end, to convince the child that he is capable of good and incapable of evil in order to render him actually so." *

What is the true view of the child's nature? Though we must reject the idea that the child is naturally depraved, we cannot take leave of common sense and fly to the other extreme and believe in the perfect goodness of children—a belief eloquently defended by Rosseau. Yet, if one were compelled to choose between "total depravity" and "perfect goodness," one would prefer "perfect goodness." There is more hope and I believe more truth in it.

But a middle course is open to us. The child is by nature neither entirely good nor bad; but we believe *the good in him predominates*. He is susceptible to appeals of love, of justice and of honor. In fact the boys who are full of energy and are likely to turn out great men are more easily moved by such appeals than by those of fear and of self-interest. The boy is a bundle of possibilities—possibilities for good and for bad. The issue of those possibilities depends largely upon his surrounnings and his early training. If his surroundings evoke the bad within him, the bad side of his nature will develop at the expense of the good. If they appeal to his better nature, the bad will be suffocated and the boy will grow up strongly disposed towards goodness.

**(c) Its relation to environment.**

The environment plays the important part it does in the child's moral development because of its SUGGESTIONS The young child is a bundle of desires and impulses. He is always doing or trying to do something. He is overflowing with energy. He requires nothing to urge him to be up and doing, but he does want something to do. There is no settled purpose in his actions. He is active simply because he delights in being active. The objects, the movements and remarks of persons about him suggest to him actions, and instinctively he acts upon the suggestion. They appeal to two of his strongest instincts, imitation and curiosity.

**How man has become so responsive to environment.**

Some one may ask how has it come about that these instincts which make a child so responsive to his surroundings, are so strong and play such a large part in the child's life?

* EDUCATION AND HEREDITY, p.p. chap. I, sect III.

Every one is more or less familiar with that great fact first studied scientifically by Malthus, and afterwards made by Darwin the chief idea of his explanation of evolution. Life is a struggle, a keen competition in which that type of being, human, animal or plant, succeeds best which conforms most readily and completely to its conditions of existence i. e., its environment. That type of being which does not conform to its environment sooner or later disappears. For example the weavers of the early part of the century found their environment suddenly and greatly changed by the introduction of machinery. Those who readily adapted themselves to the new conditions and learnt how to manage machinery, prospered, but those who persisted in following the old methods, soon experienced the full effect of poverty and gradually the class of weavers disappeared. We have at the present time a good illustration of the pressure which environment puts upon the class and the individual in the case of the Turk. The Turk is trying to govern his kingdom by ancient methods—methods, moreover, quite acceptable to the world two centuries ago. Unfortunately for the Turk, times have changed. The old environment has passed away. And now unless he conforms readily and completely to the pressure of his environment, he too will disappear from the active scene of this struggle for life.

The operation of this law which requires ready and complete adaptation to to environment, has eliminated the majority of the stiff-necked and those who defiantly resist the demands of their surroundings. Perhaps this work of elimination has been considerably accelerated in recent times by the great increase of liberty. For more liberty means, as may readily be seen in the case of liberty of trade, *more* effective competition, a *keener* struggle for success.

The result then of the operation of this law which eliminates the stiff-necked is to bring about the survival of those who are susceptible to the pressure or suggestions of environment. The civilized nations are growing more social, benevolent, charitable i. e., more susceptible to the appeals of the environment.

If any one here has not already noticed how very susceptible he or others are to the influence of environment, let him recall how his feelings, his thoughts, and very often his acts have changed as he has passed from one environment to another. Sometimes the change excites disgust with self, and we lament our instability. These changes are however but the workings of the instinct of conforming to our environment.—This instinct is a legacy of our successful forebears.

The majority of our methods of social reform rely upon this instinct. They cannot *compel* a man to become better, but they can surround him with good influences and trust to his responsiveness to the better surroundings.

**Moral training through control of environment.**

The child in early life is largely under the sway of its instincts of imitation and of curiosity—instincts which render it peculiarly responsive to the suggestions of its environment. The child's conduct may accordingly be influenced by the teacher through *suggestion*, which calls the instincts of imitation and curiosity into activity. Hence the moral art of control is the art of suggestion. The suggestion, however, is through the environment. Accordingly, the art of moral training consists in so manipulating the child's environment that certain actions follow and are repeated until the acts develop a habit.

**The School and the boy's moral development.**

The school plays upon the child's life through his environment. The importance of the school in the moral development of the boy will depend upon its importance as a factor in the boy's environment. Is the school a prominent factor in the boy's environment? and does it influence the boy as no other factor does? In other words, does the school play a *large* part in the boy's life and does it play a *new* part?

By environment we mean much more than the material objects with which a person is surrounded. His associates, his books, and the opinions, moral, social, political and religious, of those about him, are included in the meaning of the term

environment. In fact, persons, books and opinions are the important elements in one's environment; material objects are almost unworthy of notice. With this conception of environment before us, let us look at the change the school brings into the boy's environment.

**School vs. Home Environment.**

Before school life begins, the boy moves in a very limited circle of friends and companions. He knows little of anything beyond the home circle. The school atmosphere is quite different from that of the home. In the home *affection* reigns. The atmosphere is friendly. Consideration for one another prevails. Beyond the home, *competition* reigns. Every one has to stand on his own merits. LOVE reigns in the home: JUSTICE in the school. The petted boy, the selfish boy, the mean boy, who imposes on every one in the home, meets with little consideration and often unfriendly treatment at the hands of his school-fellows. He begins to find that he cannot impose on others with impunity. If he wishes to share in the enjoyments of others, he must show himself ready to contribute to the enjoyments of others.

The school is a society in miniature. Not only is a boy taught justice in a good school, but he finds that dishonesty, untruthfulness, all meanness and every dishonorable act are detested and often severely punished. And perhaps the severest punishment which he receives—the punishment which he dreads most—is the disapprobation and contempt of his fellows.

Is not the strict code of justice and honour, which rules English gentlemen, largely the product of their great public schools?

No doubt at first the boy feels a great difference between the kindly air of the home and the somewhat chilly air of justice which pervades the school. So great was the chill which the sensitive John Locke experienced when he entered the school of the flogging Busby, that he ever after condemned public schools. Yet Busby's school fortunately is no more, and the days of Busbys and of young savages are past. And now even the shy boy soon feels at home and experiences the exhilaration of a new life when those strong social feelings of comradeship, of loyalty and affection for school and its associates begin to assert themselves. No better preparation for citizenship is possible for our boys and girls than a course in a public school with a healthy moral tone. There we learn independence, fairness, honour, friendship and loyalty. These we have impressed upon us in a way that moves us,—how much others detest meanness, treachery, unfaithfulness and dishonesty and how affection and kindness call forth their kind.

**The Teacher and the Boy's Moral Development.**

Doubtless many of you who are anxious to do the best for your boys and girls are becoming somewhat restless under these general remarks, and would like me to say something about the part the teacher can play in this training in morality and citizenship. Can you, I ask, do anything more than direct and control the boy's environment? Should not your first care be to secure a good healthy tone in the school—a healthy contempt for unfairness, meanness, untruthfulness, dishonesty, treachery and tale-bearing? Boys are particularly sensitive about points of honour, meanness, fairness and treachery, and are very ready to respond to high appeals. (By appeals I do not mean lectures, talks. Boys loathe such things. But expect good things of them, trust them, show your contempt for unfairness, etc., when such matters arise in the daily intercourse of the boys one with another.)

Does not the whole problem of the moral training of the boy lie in the control of his environment? The teacher's task is not to recast the boy's nature, but to direct it, to influence it as it develops. If you attempt to do more than prepare the soil, sow the seed and keep away destructive intruders, your boy grows up a weakling, without self-reliance, wanting in resource, or he grows up a young savage who broods over his bondage and meditates all manner of excesses when the day of liberty arrives.

**Does this method seriously Limit the Teacher's Power?**

Perhaps some may think that this limitation of the teacher's work to the control of the boy's environment is a serious limitation of his powers. But is it?

The control of the boy's environment is the *most effective* way of influencing the boy's conduct. What you wish to do, is not so much to fill the boy's mind with knowledge, as to prompt him to act, and to make him responsive to the appeals of what is good. Your first care is to secure good acts, then to develop right feelings, and lastly to fill the mind with knowledge. Now control of his environment appeals to the strongest instinct of the boy; namely, the instinct of imitation. You suggest by act, or word, he imitates. He is constantly endeavouring to repeat what he sees in those whom he likes. Until his antagonism is aroused, he is like a person half hypnotised He trusts you; consciously and unconsciously he imitates you; you are ever in his thought.

The great merit of this method of suggestion is that it does not interfere with the boy's spontaneous activity; it does not constrain, compel him. It merely opens up lines of activity which he follows because he is kindly disposed to his surroundings.

Nor must you imagine that this method of suggestion regards the boy as a kind of mirror. You present the object, and the boy mechanically sends back the reflection. This appeal to imitation does not imply that the boy is a mere repeating machine. Prof. Royce, of Harvard University, recently published a report of his experiments upon imitation. The one thing that he was convinced of was that imitation was not mechanical, but implied first, *interpretation* and second *reproduction* of the idea in the person's own code of movements. In fact simple imitation did not differ greatly in outline from that which a boy does when he writes out on his slate an extract dictated by his teacher. He must interpret the teacher's spoken words and then reproduce their meaning in written symbols.

Again, we should not conclude that the boy's environment is of trivial importance. It includes not merely the persons he rubs against, but also the the ideas, opinions upon moral and religious questions of those about him, and the opinions of the books which he reads. In countless ways can the parent or teacher who restricts himself to the control of the boy's environment, influence his action. If you control a boy's reading, his companions, his ideas upon right and wrong, the noble and the true, there is little to fear of the boy's future.

**Text Books in Ethics for Schools.**

Here the believer in text-books may be inclined to assert that there is an opportunity for text-book work. "May not," he asks, "good text-books be used for teaching these ideas, these opinions which form an important part of the boy's environment." But I ask why be so ready to put yourselves under the thraldom of a text-book. Of all subjects, morality is least fitted for text-book teaching. A science or a theory of morals may be taught from a text-book, but practical morality never. Our boys are too young to learn a theory of ethics—a subject sometimes beyond college graduates—but they are never too young to learn the practice of morality.

Why is morality, you ask, the least suitable of all subjects for text-book teaching? Text-books are little more than epitomies of theories and condensed descriptions of facts. The only thing a boy can get from text-books is information; seldom do they excite his enthusiasm; still more seldom do they prompt him to act. Is morality a kind of knowledge—a mass of instructive facts? Is it simply a code of laws? Or is morality something more than knowledge. A moral man is no more one whose knowledge of moral laws is great than a just man is one whose knowledge of law is great. The ignorant savage, who sticks by his companions in times of danger, is more moral than the university graduate, Holmes, whose knowledge of what is right and wrong, is the equal of that of his contemporaries. Morality means more than knowledge. It means *character*. Can character be taught from text-books?

What do we mean by character? It is not knowledge, and yet it is in a sense dependent on it. The character of Cromwell's Ironsides was in some degree dependent upon their religious and moral opinions. Still, knowledge is not the central thing in character. Nor is feeling—the individual sentiments about moral matters—character; and yet feelings, moral sentiments enter into character. Still, sentiments are not the central thing in character. Is not character primarily a bundle of habits, and including a habit of forming habits of a certain kind. Knowledge, feeling, are accessories but habits of will are the main things.

Can habits—habits of honesty, fairness, truthfulness, kindness, etc., be formed from text-books? I think not. Text-book teaching, sage lectures and talks on right and wrong, too often repel and drive boys into the very habits which the teacher wishes them to avoid.

The key to the formation of habits lies in the use of suggestion. An act is suggested, and the boy instinctively imitates. Each response to a suggestion makes the succeeding response more ready and certain. Every repetition of an act tends to confirm the habit.

Now the first condition to the success of suggestion is the favorable disposition of the boy towards the teacher who suggests. The healthy contempt which all boys have for moral lecturings and dry unintelligible lessons on abstruse subjects, such as are to be found in text-books on ethics, makes impossible the first condition of successful suggestion.

**Motives to which Doctrinal Teaching of Morality.**

And this brings me to the last debatable question, viz., that of the motives to which teachers of dogma too often appeal.

Doctrinal teaching in morality attempts, as we have said, to influence conduct through increase of information. But in order that increased knowledge may influence conduct, there must be not only willingness but eagerness to follow the path wisdom points out. Unfortunately this necessary condition is too often absent. Teachers and parents have felt the usefulness of mere doctrine, and have attempted to make doctrine effective by resorting to penalties and reward. The greater such a teacher's desire to influence conduct, the more he has come to rely on appeals to fear and a "lively sense of favours to come."

Such moral teaching is almost without a redeeming feature. It makes use of the meanest motives. It develops either cowards or contemptible self-seekers. Further, *such a system does not teach self-government.* As soon as the restraint is removed, or the fear is gone, the mean desires and cowardly fears hitherto allowed free development in one direction burst out and run riot in the soul.

**Suggestions.**

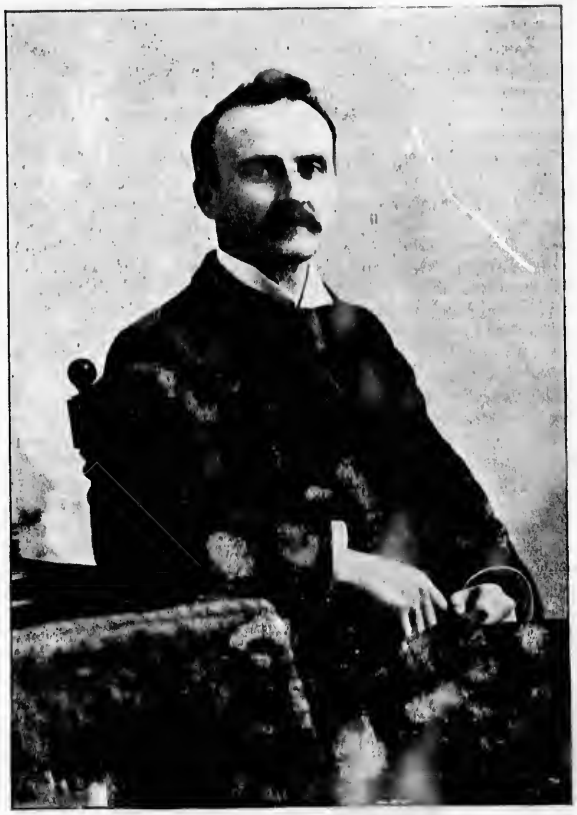
The only moral motives worthy of the work is love, gratitude, and in its train come honour, justice, charity and all that ennobles and refines. This motive cannot be elicited by dogma. It is only *personal* influences that call it forth. Living persons are necessary for the young whose imaginations are as yet in the bonds of the present. For the more mature the thoughts and deeds of those persons who have lived and lived worthily may suffice to call forth devotion and gratitude.

When we wish to impart clear and correct information of right and wrong to children let us not resort to the dry abstruse and abstract statements of a text-book, but let us rather present these ideas in the concrete in the lives of those about the children, in stories, in biographies, and in histories. When moral truths come to children in this form they not merely enlarge and rectify the child's knowledge they also strengthen his desires to imitate. They influence his conduct as much as they increase his knowledge, and the effect upon conduct is the desired object.

It is the opinion of the writer that the most effective way of teaching morality and citizenship is not by lessons upon our duties to others and to the state but by surrounding the growing boy with a good moral environment and by seeing that in his daily intercourse with his companions due regard is paid to the rights of others. Further, that the direct instruction in morality, which may be necessary, should be conveyed through concrete examples presented to the boy so as to excite his

interest, e. g., in the form of stories, biographies and histories ; and such literature should occupy a more prominent place in our common school courses and should be studied not for its philological and grammatical value but for its moral and patriotic teaching.

The teacher, still more the parent, and above all the state, should see that our children "do not grow up amid images of moral deformity as in some noxious pasture and there browse and feed upon many a baneful herb and flower day by day, little by little, until they silently gather a festering mass of corruption in their own soul . . . but dwelt in a land of health, amid fair sights and sounds and receive the good in everything ; and beauty, the effluence of fair works, shall flow into the eye and ear like a health-giving breeze from a purer region and insensibly draw the soul from earliest years into likeness and sympathy with the beauty of reason."*



W. C. Murray, M. A., Prof. of Philosophy, Dalhousie College.

* Plato's Republic. Jowett's Translation, 3rd Edit., § 401.

NOTE.—To avoid undue misapprehension, I wish to state that moral training conducted as sketched above is not complete. There are at least two stages in moral development. Only the first, or the stage of uncritical and habitual morality, is considered above. No better description of its process, methods, and results can be desired than the following taken from Nettleship's Essay on the Theory of Education in the Republic in *Hellenica*:

"Literature and the Arts, by presenting to the soul the true principals of human life in the sensuous material which it is able to assimilate, prepare it unconsciously for assimilating those principles when presented at a later stage in a more rational form. They teach it how to live by telling how divine beings and great men live and have lived; they teach it what to love by surrounding it with what is really lovable; they foster its acquisitive instincts by encouraging the quick and accurate use of the senses, they develop its tendency to order and law by accustoming it to recognize severe symmetries of sound and form; and finally, they introduce it to manhood endowed with an instinctive capacity of doing and saying the right thing at the right time and with an instinctive perception of what is right and wrong in the deeds and words of others."

In the second stage man begins to criticize his conceptions of right and wrong and to attempt to justify them. Moral opinions and sometimes practices are put in the crucible of doubt. Such self-examination and testing, however, should be postponed until the young are beyond the "puppy dog stage,"† i. e., beyond the teens at least. Even then anxious and timorous orthodoxy may accuse the teacher of corrupting the morals of the young, as they did in the case of Socrates, the first great teacher of morality, in the philosophic or second sense, to the Athenian youth.

DISCUSSION:—PROF. MACDONALD emphasized the importance of the teacher's having faith in the goodness of his pupils, and trusting them if he would secure that most desirable product of instruction—the formation of a sound moral character.

PRIN. CALKIN expressed his entire sympathy with the statements made in Prof. Murray's excellent paper, and illustrated in a very happy manner the effect of environment on boys.

INSPECTOR MACLELLAN thought that the first lessons on moral and patriotic duty might well be given in connection with the every-day life and affairs of the school-room. More time should be spent in inculcating the duty of politeness, in teaching manners and establishing habits of honor and fair dealing. Patriotism ought to begin with the school-house and its surroundings. The child's public duties commence with the school. Each pupil, therefore, should be stimulated and encouraged to do all in his or her power to further the interests of the school attended. Each one should be induced to contribute to the common good by doing something towards the improvement or adornment of the school-room and grounds. The pupils should be encouraged to take an interest in school-meetings and to exert their influence with parents or guardians to secure liberal votes of money for school purposes. The school should be set before them as the prototype of the state, for the promotion of whose interests it ought to be a pleasure as well as a duty to labour. The speaker begged to suggest as a question worthy of consideration whether something might not be accomplished in this direction as well as in the direction of promoting a broader loyalty and patriotism, by offering a flag, say the British flag, for competition in each inspectoral district, to be awarded annually to the teacher and pupils of the section in such district accomplishing most in the way of improvement by their own efforts.

† REPUBLIC, § 539.

PRIN. KENNEDY wished to emphasize one or two points. From Prin. Calkin we have learned something in the management of a school,—to call in the good will of the boy himself to aid in the government of the school room. He suggested in addition that some of these multitudinous things be used as objects from which lessons may be taught. That will change the articles gathered up by the boy for amusement into objects from which instruction may be drawn and useful knowledge given. Mr. Kennedy paid a very high compliment to Prof. Murray. He was a living proof of the truths contended for in his splendid paper and no man was better capable of having written it.

PRIN. MCLEOD :—I agree with all that Prof. Murray has said in his very excellent paper. I believe every boy has some good in him to which the teacher can appeal successfully It is a mistake to think that harshness and the rod will do a boy good. Let the teacher be a true man himself; let him set a good example, and show that he has the welfare of his pupils at heart, and he will have no trouble with incorrigible pupils. If a school has an incorrigible pupil it is the teacher, not the pupil, that should be sent to the reformatory.

Lectures on morality, or against the use of tobacco or strong drink, by teachers who do not practice what they preach always do more harm than good. Better not lecture at all than to preach and not practice.

PRINCIPAL MCKAY of Parrsboro, gave an incident in his experience where mild measures had succeeded when severity had failed. In this case the pupil had threatened to waylay the teacher with an axe; the teacher however had a friendly and confidential talk with the boy and result success.

MISS BURGOYNE asked how teachers were to record the number of minutes spent weekly if they only gave lessons on moral and patriotic duties incidentally. She supposed that no conscientious teacher allowed opportunities for incidental teaching to slip by unused; yet there were many desirous of knowing some good methods of imparting regular instruction in this branch so as to be able to give an exact report of the time thus spent.

The PRESIDENT replied that it was not supposed to be a time table subject, but that teachers would embrace every opportunity as it occurred for the imparting of instruction in moral and patriotic duties, and report approximately.

MISS GRAHAM thought that a good rule among children is what does not hurt anyone is right, what does is wrong. She advocated the formation of societies for the prevention of cruelty.

PRIN. SMITH, Guysborough, referred to experiments, such as the killing of birds and insects before the class, as having a tendency to lower sensibilities and do injury.

PRIN. CAMPBELL believes in ornamenting school rooms with pictures and statuary, and drawings made by children themselves with colored crayons.

PRIN. O'HEARN wanted to know what about the environment of the pupils at home. He wished to direct attention to Mr. Miller's paper. He thought it had been passed over with too little discussion. He disagreed with Prin. Miller in the idea that there should be one central institution for incorrigible pupils. He thought there should be several small institutions—two at least for the city of Halifax.

MISS PARTRIDGE, of Sydney; Miss Hamilton, of Dartmouth kintergarten, Mr. Andrews and others spoke on the different features of this paper.

# THE CHARACTERISTICS OF THE EDUCATIONAL PERIODICAL BEST CALCULATED TO AID THE TEACHER.

By I. C. Craig, Esq., Inspector of Schools, Amherst.

The task is laid upon me within the limits of a brief paper to describe an ideal school magazine, and the embarrassment it brings to me must be apparent to every person who is conversant with journalism, especially this particular department.

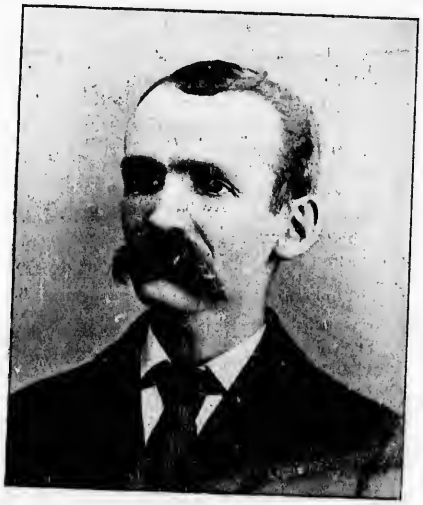
To aid me in the preparation of this sketch I have consulted the columns of twenty or thirty papers published either in Canada or the United States, that I might find what was best in each. The forms assumed by them are so manifold that it is difficult to discover clearly any one ideal toward the realization of which they are tending. It is less difficult to discern that one idea pervades all, and that is the improvement of the teaching profession.

Nothing pretending to be a medium of the teacher's ideas, wants or progressions was known in these provinces until 1858, when Dr. Forrester, the pioneer in so many educational fields, published a paper known as the *Journal of Education and Agriculture*. This continued to be issued until 1860; if later I have no opportunity of learning. True, we have had a Journal of Education as long as many of us can remember; published two years after the inception of the Common School Act it has come down to this time in three series, with but a single break in 1877-78; but being the official organ of the Council of Public Instruction it gave but little more information than the regulations emanating from that body, with the names of the teachers engaged in the Province and the Sections supporting them.

A Journal which at one time was largely patronized in this Province was published in Toronto and was known by various names, as suited the various managements under which it was published and edited. But not being in sympathy with our local wants it failed to command the Maritime Provinces as a constituency, so that we may say that we were without representation until the "Review" came into the field. What it has done for the promotion of education in these Provinces and the creation of an *esprit de corps* among teachers I need not state. Founded in June 1887, by Dr. MacKay, then Principal of the Pictou Academy, Principal Hay, of St. John, and Principal Anderson of Prince of Wales College, its success was assured. How far it has fulfilled the mission projected for it we are able to testify.

To quote its first issue,—Have its aims been in the interests of the teachers of the Maritime provinces? Has it furnished us with improved methods to supplement deficiencies of text-books? Have its criticisms of educational systems been as bold as we wished? Have the discussions on management, discipline and methods been helpful. I believe I can answer, yes! for its many readers present without being too presumptuous. But what of the journal of the future? "It must be a journal of civilization. Along the main lines of culture represented in school work it must keep its readers well informed. Without claiming to be a journal of

literature, of science and of art, it must speak with authority as to what is best in literature, as to what are the most important discoveries and advances in science, as to what is truest and most uplifting in art. And its most important function is to be a paper of the profession, and the interests of education demand that the sympathy of all cultivated people be enlisted in its behalf! that the appeal be made not to leading teachers alone but also to the larger class outside the professors who are interested in the progress and methods of culture along many lines. It is especially necessary that it should be in the hands of the trustees of every school section. The ostensible scheme of an Educational Magazine is not realized when only the teacher enjoys it. How often are the teacher's best laid plans to carry out the instruction of a course rendered abortive by the interference of an unsympathizing unlettered Board of Trustees. To illustrate, a progressive teacher in a certain district assuming duty at the first of the school year, thought it proper to introduce the vertical system of penmanship in her school. She was met at



J. C. CRAIG, ESQ., INSPECTOR OF SCHOOLS, AMHERST.

the very threshold of her duties with an emphatic, No! from those who should be the patrons of learning.

"There was only one kind of writing and no innovations were to be palmed off on them." With a little light how different this case may have been. The teacher suggests the change to the trustees who arrange for a meeting to discuss with her the course of study, especially those portions of it bearing upon the wants of the school under their supervision. But prior to this they have been reading in the "Review" the arguments for and against the two systems of penmanship. Though prejudical to the times when "I was a boy" they have been made intelligent enough to yield to the march of progress. The teacher in this case is supported; but in the other all ambition is stifled. But how shall we reach the laymen to keep them enlightened upon the current history of educational progress?

It would be almost impossible to have such a periodical subscribed for directly. I suggest that the organ of the teaching profession be also the organ of the three

councils of public instruction of the Maritime Provinces. This would not necessarily subordinate the utterances of such a paper to any government or party. Each council could have an official department for which it alone was responsible. For this privilege a liberal endorsement might be given with the understanding that boards of trustees were to receive a copy at special rates. Trustees might also be authorized to pay for the magazine in part from the sectional funds. This idea is carried out with no conflicting interest in the Pensylvania School Journal, one of the leading and oldest magazines in the United States.

A paper subsidized in this way would give it sufficient capital to command the best talent. Every school journal in this commercial age must be a business success; but to be a success it must command a public.

We shall now presume that the paper is financially established.

Next it must be a comprehensive journal. It must undertake to represent all the work of the common and high school course and to strengthen the bond between these and the higher educational institutions of these provinces. There is no room for the journal of a special grade. One strong central teaching medium is what we need and what we must support. There may be a time when all teachers at the beginning of their work will possess such a wide range of general and professional culture that the journal devoted to their special work will suffice for them; that will be the time of specialists, but it is not yet.

The primary work of our common schools claim a liberal share of the paper's attention. If the editors of the "Review" will bear a criticism which has frequently been made to me when interesting myself in its behalf, it is this, that it is not helpful enough in this particular department. Great advances have been made in recent years in primary education. Few teachers even in the country miscellaneous school are satisfied to allow the child of tender years to swing his legs from a seat (much too high perhaps) five hours out of the six every day as a means of diversion. There is an inward monitor which cries out "wrong, wrong." Teachers most prolific in resources to engage the spontaneous activity of childhood must look beyond themselves for ideas lest they become narrow. Young teachers also, many of whom have not even had the advantages of good examples in school room methods, call for models which suggest new and helpful ideas. The journal of better parts will cater to this demand and thereby become a power only second to the Normal School in shaping educational thought. I am not in sympathy with those papers which supply us with pedagogical trash. A journal of devices, or the journal of primary teaching alone which will make teachers only knowing devices, should never be trusted alone, for our thoughts are not to be limited to the child that now is but is to go out to the youth that is to be. The special journal may do as much harm as good by contracting the intellectual horizon of the teacher.

Nature study should occupy in every issue of an educational paper a very prominent place with this ulterior aim in view,—its adaptation to the agricultural life of the farm. This will prove its practicability and tend to undo much mischievous work which our schools receive the credit of doing: namely, the creation in the minds of our people of an aversion for honorable toil. In passing I may say that no articles or series of articles which have ever appeared in the "Review" have been so well received or have done half as much to popularize the paper as the "Ferndale School Lessons."

The coming journal should have a department devoted to drawing, if drawing can be taught or encouraged through such a medium. "The recognition of the educational power of this subject, has led to a demand for its exercise; therefore it stands in the schools, mainly on an educational basis, and is regarded by educators as a means of expression which deserves the highest rank. Its value industrially is more fully recognized than ever before, while its value educationally is considered as far out-reaching its industrial value." In 1880, with a great number of young teachers, I attended a provincial association in this town, at which Prof. Walter Smith held out to us the merits of this subject. With many fellow teachers, I went back with my modicum of knowledge, determined to do my best.

Fifteen years have passed and what advances have we made? I think the results of the late government examination give a most decided answer. I have no quarrel with the examiner, for I believe he gave the candidates whom I knew, all they deserved. Yet, it seems hard that so many should suffer through the fault of a system or the want of an interest on the part of the teachers in the subject. A good example of work in drawing should be in every journal, with instructions thereon. Walter Sargant in "Primary Education" of September, gives an excellent idea of what is needed. One of the duties of an educational journal is to support a struggling but deserving cause, and here is a subject that needs in this province its immediate attention.

A department could be profitably devoted to the interests of school boards, school commissioners and the executive officers generally.

Herein could be given the best examples of architecture suited to country schools, plans and specifications of school rooms more recently erected, which might serve as a guiding hand to other sections about to build; methods of heating and ventilating, best adapted to country and town rooms. There is an immediate need of some guiding hand in the erection of the school rooms of this province, for the health and comfort of another generation is depending in a measure on what kind of buildings will be erected. It is now over 20 years since the common school Act came into force, and the first few years following saw the erection of the greater number of rooms in this province. Now they are fast falling into disuse and decay, and certainly those which supersede them in the next two or three years should be a great advance upon those of the past in every respect.

Through such a medium, the school commissioners of the thirty or more incorporated towns of these provinces where the compulsory attendance law is most needed might give the results of its adoption, and any improvements that could be made in the machinery which is required to put it into operation. Thus a live journal could put these executive bodies under obligations to it and at the same time be doing good to thousands.

A judicious use of the scissors is in the interests of an educational magazine. With the wealth of literature to be found in the school journals of this continent it gives the editorial staff rare opportunities of embellishing its columns with the thoughts of the most distinguished educationists.

The future journal must be liberal in its views. While giving a strong adherence to the institutions which it represents, it must be ready to decide what is good in the school system of other countries and demand it. The journals of all the other professions report the advances made in their respective spheres. A Pasteur or a Koch have but to make some discovery in medicine when it is blazoned to the whole civilized world that humanity may be benefited by it. Nothing less than the copying of such an example will place the educational journal in line with other professional journals of authority.

The editor of such a paper should be a teacher of teachers—a leader. One who is in perfect accord with the profession, and who loves it for its own sake. He should have ten years experience in all the gradations of its course, that he may be sympathetic, helpful. While he alone must edit the paper, the contributions of teachers pre-eminently successful should be solicited. It is not possible for one teacher to reflect all the conditions and wants of a profession with so many diversified paths. What I may fail in doing, some fellow teacher has not the slightest trouble in treating with success. For instance you have as the result of thought and effort succeeded in interesting your class in a lesson in Canadian History. You have made perhaps what comes to you as a new discovery with regard to the best method employed in treating it. Why not sit down in the evening and describe the method employed in presenting it for the benefit of your fellows, thereby casting something into the treasury for the common good. It may be of use to others and the very act of describing your process will be helpful to you. Teachers

as a class are too slow to make known their professional wants, and too modest to advance new theories.

Within the recognized *scope* of school journalism of to-day, there are many other subjects which I might have noted. I have cited those first which I believe a good journal should give prominence to. That it has a power to make these changes there is no doubt. On good authority it is stated that the *educational* press has a larger circulation than the religious press, or the medical and legal press united, and is as influential as any other department of journalism. It is the leading factor in professional progress to-day and should receive due recognition from all who are interested in humanity.

DISCUSSION :—PROF. MURRAY wished to corroborate Inspector Craig's opinions as stated in his very excellent paper. Our review should give us information as to the changes taking place in the world about us. It should be full—a large paper. It should be disconnected with the educational department.

INSPECTOR ROSCOE thought it a subject of interest to every teacher. Most teachers in his district read the journal and criticized it, and perhaps justly so. He thought it did not go far enough. If all teachers were trained there would not be the necessity for the "little things" that appear in the Educational Review. The demand to-day is for this "little work," and teachers are recognizing its usefulness in that proportion. It is very helpful to the beginner who enters the school room for the first time, without training and without experience.

MISS HAMILTON thought the future journal should pay more attention to the study of child nature.

PRIN. CAMPBELL thought that it was unfair to expect men, who have their own business to attend to, to give their time and work for nothing to the editing of a school paper. If the paper were put into the hands of every teacher in the country it would be able to secure the best effort of able men, because it would be able to pay for it.

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## "A TEACHERS' PROTECTIVE UNION."

BY MISS M. GRAHAM, CENTRAL ECONOMY.

It seems to me that the time has come when we teachers should organize ourselves into some sort of a union, similar to the societies existing in the medical, legal and other professions. These societies have their code of ethics, etc., why should not we do likewise? There is a lack of professional honor among teachers that would, I am sure, be remedied by a union where we were pledged to help and stand by each other instead of working against each other by "underbidding" for positions, as teachers now do. And surely the miserably low salaries now paid to teachers might be improved if we had a minimum rate fixed by the union. This is a matter that touches our empty pocket books as well as our full hearts. There are many ways in which a Teachers' Protective Union "would benefit the profession, and therefore everybody else indirectly, but I leave it to wiser heads to discuss the matter further."

A. MCKAY, SUPERVISOR OF HALIFAX SCHOOLS.—The teaching profession like the other professions should have a union, at least for defensive purposes. About two years ago, in the columns of the "Educational Review," I called attention to the National Union of teachers in England and advocated the formation of a

similar society for Nova Scotia. In England the Union makes itself heard in parliament and is represented there by two members.

As to the work to be undertaken by such a union here, I do not think that much can be done in improving salaries. But there are many educational reforms in which it might be helpful. It might promulgate a code of professional ethics, that would prevent under-bidding among teachers. It might discuss legal enactments affecting the teacher. But more particularly it might protect the individual teacher from the petty tyranny of some trustees and from the unrighteous magistrate who prefers to purchase the favor of his neighbor, by unjustly condemning the unprotected teacher. Such cases would be of less frequent occurrence if the magistrate knew that every teacher was protected by an organization that would invoke the aid of a higher court if necessary.

It would also be no small gain to have teachers cultivate a habit of mutual friendliness and helpfulness, and a common interest in the noblest of all the professions.

Inspector McLellan followed in an earnest, rapid speech in favor of a union. He emphatically condemned the lack of *esprit de corps* which permitted teachers to apply for positions already occupied, and by underbidding the teachers already in possession of the field, thereby oust them and secure the position for themselves. He knew of cases where the dollar was actually split in tendering for a position so as to underbid the present occupant without much pecuniary loss. A union would do much to rectify this wretched state of affairs.

Mr. Congdon, of Morris Street school, spoke in favor of the formation of such a union, believing it of vital importance to the teaching profession, and as legislation would be necessary he moved the following resolution :

"Resolved, that the principle of the formation of a Teachers' Union, as expressed by Miss Graham and Supervisor McKay, be approved by this association."

Commissioner McKerron spoke to the subject and spoke well. He thought the laborer was worthy of his hire, no more nor less. The extra demands made upon teachers in recent years demanded greater compensation. Teaching, however, was a commodity, and the price was governed by the law of supply and demand. He emphatically stated that there were a number of teachers in the province who were absolutely worthless ; they should be got rid of in the interest of the rest. He warned teachers that there was danger in the matter of salaries. If a minimum figure were fixed he felt certain it would be disastrous. The good teachers would have to carry the poor ones. The way to get salaries would be to earn them. The better they were the more salary they could get. The best goods always bring the best prices.

The resolution passed, one only dissenting.

*8th session—FRIDAY.*

# SUPERANNUATION OF TEACHERS.

By Peter O'Hearn, Principal St. Patrick's Boys' High School, Halifax.

At the meeting of the National Educational Association held in Philadelphia in February 1891 the department of superintendence passed the following resolution.

"Resolved, that justice, as well as the best public service, requires the retirement and pensioning of teachers after a service of thirty years and upon carefully devised conditions. We recommend the enactment of laws in the several states to permit and to regulate the retirement and pensioning of professional teachers."

There are systems of pensioning teachers in Ireland, Scotland, and partially in England. France, Spain, Denmark, Germany, Sweden, Norway, Hungary and other European countries pension their teachers. The province of Quebec also pensions its teachers. In England efforts are being made for a system of general pensioning. A bill was introduced into parliament some years ago to that effect and was largely supported. In some of the countries named the governments provide the pension fund. In others the teachers are taxed.

It seems to be an accepted fact that a system of superannuation is a good thing for teachers. Do we desire such a system in this province? If we do why not have it? I am sure most teachers desire it. How can we have it? I think only by taxing ourselves. We shall need the help of the government, but only in a small way. We would need a sum, not a large one, to make a beginning. The government would be asked to guarantee this sum. It would all or nearly all be paid back in a few years. The government might also be asked to continue the government grant to teachers who had taught thirty or thirty-five years. If a teacher became disabled before that time, and that his disability was occasioned by nothing inconsistent with the school law and his duties as a teacher, he ought to receive a part of the grant proportional to his service. This would not be asking much of the government, and in case it were granted it would be likely all that would be asked. It would not mean that every teacher who had taught thirty or thirty-five years would be then superannuated. Many teachers who had served that long would prefer to serve longer, that is, to keep earning a larger stipend than superannuation would afford.

In 1887 in Prussia there was one for every forty-two male teachers in active service on the pension roll and one female teacher for every nine in active service. There were 144 male and 103 female teachers on the roll. This shows that there were many more male teachers than females. The average pension of the males was $354 and that of the females was $118. As far as I can learn the teachers were not taxed to suport the pension fund. There was also a widows' and orphans' fund.

In Norway teachers after having taught a certain number of years received a pension amounting to two-thirds of salary. Salaries range from $214 to $1600. Besides in many places teachers had house-rent free.

The law of 1891 provided that every teacher having reached his sixtieth year, and having taught at least twenty-five years, should receive 50 per cent. of his salary. Teachers could retire on pension after ten years' service, being recommended by their superior officers. They receive 10 per cent for 10 years' service, forty for twenty years' service; fifty for twenty-five years' service; 60 per cent for 30 years. Teachers are not required to contribute to this fund but are obliged to secure annuities to their widows by paying from 10 to 20 per cent of their salaries towards that object.

In Denmark teachers are allowed a pension which amounts to two-thirds of their salaries. To receive such pension the teacher must be at least 30 years of age. There are also funds set aside for the benefit of the widows and orphans of teachers. The state provides the fund. Denmark is one of the foremost countries of Europe in the matter of elementary schools. Her expenditure for each inhabitant averages $1.54.

In Quebec the system of superannuation now in force was assented to in 1886. Not only the common school teachers but also inspectors and professors and teachers of normal schools are superannuated.

P. O'Hearn, Esq., Principal, St. Patrick's Boys' High School Halifax.

Teachers of the common schools, inspectors and normal school instructors are called "officers of primary instruction."

Any officer of primary instruction who has reached the age of fifty-six years and who has been employed ten years or upwards may receive a pension based upon the average salary received by him during the years he has passed in teaching and upon which he has paid the stoppages. If he has served ten years he receives ten-fiftieths of such salary, if he has served eleven years he receives eleven-fiftieths; and so on adding one-fiftieth for each additional year up to thirty-five years.

Thus thirty-five fiftieths or seven tenths of his salary is the greatest amount that can be received as a pension.

No one can receive a pension on a salary exceeding $1500. This makes the highest pension $1050.

After ten years' service every officer, whatever be his age, may receive a pension when a serious injury or enfeebled health renders it impossible for him to

continue such service, provided such accident or ill-health has not arisen through any conduct forbidden by law or against good morals. Such officer (who may be an inspector or teacher in a school under control of Government) must provide a physician's certificate before receiving any pension, and the pension is stopped when the cause which gave rise to it ceases to exist.

When the amount of an officer's pension is being established the years are counted from the age of eighteen, if the pensioner began teaching at that age. Any years spent in an normal school after having reached his eighteenth birthday also count.

The widow of a teacher receives half pension as long as she remains a widow.

When the Act of 1886 was passed an arrangement was made, if I am correctly informed, by which teachers who, at that time, had been for a number of years employed in Government schools, could by paying what are called "stoppages" for years previous to 1886, receive the full pension for the years they had taught. The arrangement was such that teachers paid part before receiving any pension and part from their annual pensions.

The pensions are provided for in this way :

1. A reduction or stoppage is made from the salary of each officer of two per cent. per annum.

2*. A stoppage of two per cent. is made yearly on the amount of pension to each officer.

3. A stoppage of two per cent. is made annually out of the common schools' fund.

4. The Government of the Province allows an annual grant of $1000.

If the interest on the amounts thus received does not suffice to pay the pensions applied for, the teachers may be taxed on their salaries, not exceeding four per cent. altogether, and the common schools' fund is liable to the same percentage.

All the foregoing is a meagre outline of what is being done elsewhere in the matter of pensioning. The question now is do we the teachers of this province, desire to have any such a scheme, and if so how can we have it. The former part of the question must be answered by the teachers. We here assembled, may give an expression of our own opinions.

As to how we are to carry out any scheme of superannuation I am not fully prepared to say. I would suggest that the legislature be asked :

1. That the Government Grant, be continued to male teachers after their having served thirty years and to female teachers after having served twenty-five years, should they then retire from active service.

2. That a male teacher, having taught fifteen years or more, or a female having taught twelve years or more, on becoming incapacitated to perform his or her duties, be entitled to a part of the Government grant proportional to years of service, provided that such incapacity is not the result of any conduct forbidden by law or against morals. (It would be well to have the grant in regard to pensions a fixed sum, say $120 for B's, $90, for C's, and $— for A's.)

3. That inspectors and all officers employed by the Government in connection with public school work receive this grant according to the grade they hold on the same footing as teachers, the years spent in teaching to be added to the years spent in other duties in connection with the public schools.

The Government could do this either by voting a special sum for that purpose, or by taking it out of the sum now at their disposal from year to year, when necessary to pension. The latter way would of course make the individual government grant less and would be a direct and varying tax on teachers in active employment.

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* I do not know whether this two per cent. is taken from all pensioners or only from those paying stoppages on years previous to the passing of the Act.

This would secure to every teacher a fixed sum under the conditions. But this would be a small amount, and not sufficient for superannuation. Any further fund must, I think, be provided by the teachers assessing themselves. Now the teachers received in salaries last year, in round numbers $652.000. Two per cent. of this would be $13,040. I am not prepared to say how far this would go, or what it would do for us. There are several things to be considered.

1. Whether teachers remaining a short time in service would receive back a portion or all of their annual assessments.
2. Whether pensions would be granted to teachers in good health, retiring before having served twenty-five or thirty years.
3. Whether pensions would be continued to those dependent on pensioners.
4. Whether there would be a system of commutation.

In conclusion I would respectfully suggest that we first give an expression of our views as to the desirability of superannuation. If we favor it, then we may appoint a committee to draw up a scheme.

Discussion:—Mr. Andrews opened the discussion by expressing himself as strongly in favor of such a scheme. He thought the teachers should help themselves—they were not beggars. Let them tax themselves 2 p. c. of their salaries to make a fund for this purpose.

Prin. Miller moved the following resolution:

*Resolved*, That this Association approve of the idea of a superannuation scheme for teachers and that a committee be appointed, consisting of members of this Association, to collect information on this subject to formulate a scheme suitable to the condition of educational affairs in this country.

Prin. Kennedy seconded the resolution, and spoke in favor of the scheme. Statistics show that ministers live longer than any other profession; that teachers come next in longevity. It was important that something be done, if possible, to secure some degree of security for declining years.

Com. McKerron spoke next. He referred to men grown grey in the service who had nothing ahead of them save age and want, that "ill-matched pair," and indulged in considerable arithmetic to show the amount to be derived from a $2\frac{1}{2}$ p. c. rate on the total salaries of teachers. The fund would be self-sustaining.

Principal McLeod:—I believe such a scheme would be an inducement for teachers to remain in the profession and, therefore, would prove beneficial to the cause of education. Those in other professions can earn to the end of their days. It is not so in the teaching profession. The strain is so great that the teacher has to retire when comparatively young. With his small salary he cannot make provision for sickness or old age. Unless, therefore, provision is made by the state, our system of education will continue unsatisfactory in its results.

Principal McVicar thought the older teachers who were committed to teaching as a life work would be willing to subscribe to such a scheme.

To ensure success it needed the support of the whole profession. It might be arranged that all persons enrolling as teachers after a certain date would be taxed a small percentage on salary towards the support of the annuity fund.

Such contribution, however, should be optional with those who were now teachers, and it was largely a question of generosity on the part of younger members whether they would surrender a portion of their salary to support a fund from which they might not reap a benefit.

The resolution passed unanimously.

RIGHT REV. NEIL MCNEIL, D. D., BISHOP OF NILOPOLIS AND VICAR-GENERAL OF WEST NEWFOUNDLAND.

[Bishop McNeil was chairman of the special committee which revised the Course of Study.]

A committee was appointed to formulate a scheme of superannuation for teachers and report to the next meeting of the association.

Committee :—Supervisor McKay, Halifax ; Principal O'Hearn, Halifax ; Principal Miller, Dartmouth ; Principal Lay, Amherst ; Mr. C. Moore, B. A., Pictou Academy.

The PRESIDENT stated that the P. E. I association wished to unite its meeting with that of Nova Scotia, and said he thought the next interprovincial association would be held in Halifax next year.

PRINCIPAL ROSS, Albro street school, moved that the time of meeting of the Nova Scotia Provincial Association be in future at this time of the year. Carried.

The meeting also decided that Truro be the place of meeting next year.

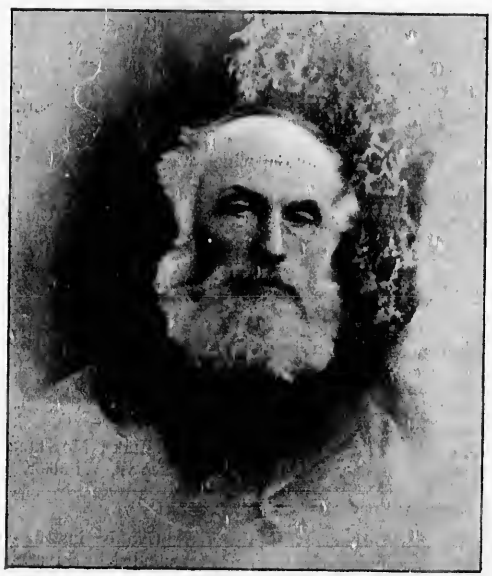
INSPECTOR ROSCOE moved the reconsideration of the above motion, seconded by Inspector Morse. Reconsideration carried.

Moved by Principal Miller and seconded by Congdon, that the place of meeting be left to the executive, which was carried unanimously.

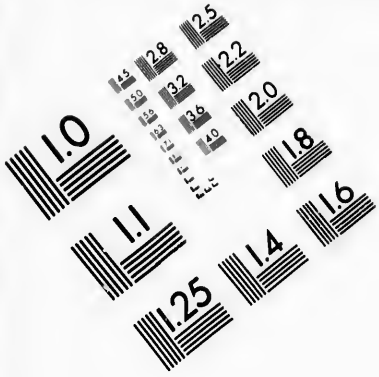
The meeting then proceeded to the election of officers.

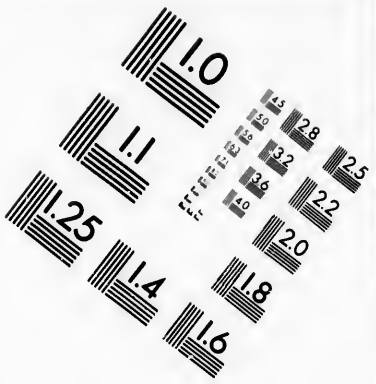
While ballots were being taken Prof. MacDonald, of the Normal School, moved the following resolution :—

Resolved, that this Association record in its minutes their high esteem of and admiration for the many eminent virtues and great services rendered to the cause of education by the late Inspector Condon of Halifax, not only in the inspectoral



THE LATE INSPECTOR CONDON, HALIFAX.

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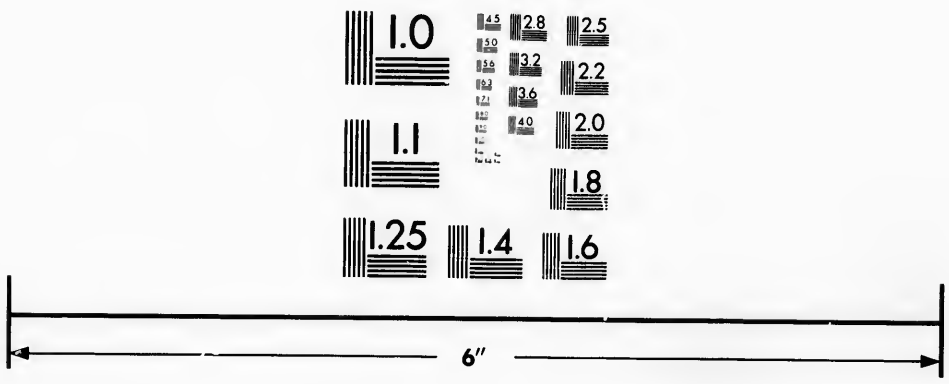


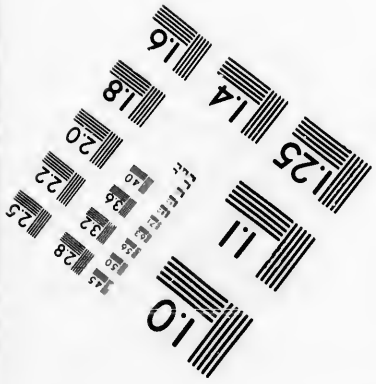


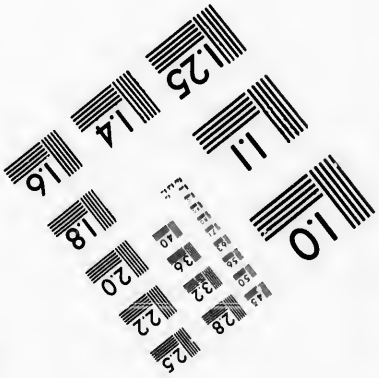


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district in which he so ably discharged his duties as inspector for 23 years, but in the province at large.

Also, resolved, that a copy of this resolution be sent to his bereaved family.

In seconding this resolution, Principal Kennedy said that a prince, a mighty man, in the educational work of our province had fallen. His heart was in his work and he always carried the work in his heart. He was ever fresh and enthusiastic. Neither rain nor cold—and he was intimately acquainted with both—could dampen his ardour nor cool his zeal. The children loved him, and what better evidence can there be of his genuine kindliness of heart? In his presence they felt an inspiration and always did their best. He never failed to carry the sunshine of cheer into the school-room, and many teachers and more pupils date their first real enjoyment of class-room work from the period of one of his visits. But now he has entered into his rest, and much good work is going on whose inception was due to his words and example.

This resolution passed with a standing vote.

The PRESIDENT then left the chair in order to allow those favoring a TEACHER'S PROTECTIVE UNION to organize.

INSPECTOR ROSCOE was called to the chair, and Principal Miller was appointed Secretary.

PRIN. KENNEDY, of Halifax Academy, was the first speaker. He took strong ground in favor of a protective union. Teachers taken singly are a "rope of sand, weak and easily demolished; but teachers united in a single body, such as the union proposed, would present a very different face to any attempt at oppression or persecution. He would be protected by the whole strength of the union, and would be sure of fair play in any event. The question of salaries ought to be kept in the background for the present at least, and the question of protection for teachers in all matters of dispute brought prominently to the front. Let the question of salaries wait. Let us first strive to develop an *esprit de corps* that will prevent teachers from any attempts to displace and underbid each other. He ended by moving that a protective union be formed for the mutual help and improvement of teachers.

MISS GRAHAM seconded the motion, which was unanimously carried.

PRIN. O'HEARN moved that the meeting proceed to elect a President, Vice-President and Secretary, and an Executive of five members. Carried.

SUPERVISOR MCKAY moved that Prin. Campbell, of Truro; Prin. O'Hearn, of St. Patrick's High School, and Inspector Craig be a nominating committee. Seconded by Prin. Kennedy and carried.

The nominating committee retired, and after some time reported the names of the following gentlemen:—

*President*—INSPECTOR MACLELLAN.
*Vice-President*—INSPECTOR CRAIG.
*Secretary-Treasurer*—PRINCIPAL KENNEDY.
*Executive Committee*—PRINCIPALS O'HEARN, Halifax; MCKEEN, Sydney; LAY, Amherst; INSPECTOR MORSE, Digby; MISS BURGOYNE, Windsor.

The report passed without change.

Moved by Principal O'Hearn that the Executive be instructed to draw up a constitution and frame by-laws for the Union, seconded by Supervisor McKay, and carried.

The meeting then adjourned, subject to the call of the President.

The work of the Association was resumed by the President, Dr. MacKay again taking the chair.

He announced the names of the elective officers for the following year as follows :—

C. W. Roscoe, M. A., Inspector, Wolfville.
W. T. Kennedy, Principal Halifax Academy.
A. G. MacDonald, M. A., Prof., Normal School.
Bertha B. Hebb, B. A., Principal High School, Maitland.

Miss Bertha B. Hebb, B. A., Principal Maitland High School.

W. M. McVicar, M. A., Principal Annapolis Academy.
W. E. Maclellan, Ll. B., Inspector, Pictou.
L. S. Morse, M. A., Inspector, Digby.
A. McLeod, Principal Kentville Academy.
Wm. McKerron, Commissioner of Schools, Halifax.

After the usual votes of thanks to press, railways, &c., the meeting adjourned *sine die*.

A. McKAY, *Secretary.*

# APPENDIX.

## I

### NORMAL SCHOOL ASSOCIATED ALUMNI.

"During the meeting of the Educational Association, one of the most significant features was the re-organization of the Associated Alumni of the Provincial Normal School. Several meetings were held during the week, and this important organization was once more placed upon its feet, where it is hoped it will continue to stay The re-organization this year was chiefly due to the efforts of Dr. Hall, Principal Calkin, Prof. McDonald, and a few others interested in the work of this great institution. Officers were appointed for the ensuing year :—

*President*—J. B. Hall, Ph. D.
*Secretary-Treasurer*—A. G. MacDonald, M. A.
*Executive Committee*—Messrs. M. J. T. McNeil, E. H. Nichols, J. N. Creed, E. T. McKeen, W. R. Slade, and Misses Hamilton and Mack.

WM. MCISAAC, B. A., INSPECTOR, ANTIGONISH.

"It was decided on vote that all former students at the Normal School, all teachers with a professional experience of at least three years, all school officials in general, be eligible for membership. Initiation fee was declared to be twenty-five cents. It was also decided by the society that medals be offered for competition essays on subjects to be announced later. The following well-known educationists were appointed a board to select subjects for essays: Inspector Creighton, Prof. Macdonald, Principal Calkin and Supervisor McKay. The following were appointed judges: Principals Soloan, Lay, Kennedy, O'Hearn and Miss Hebb, of Maitland. Winners are to be announced and medals awarded at meeting of next Provincial Association. Those eligible for competition are all Normal School graduates and all teachers with a professional experience of three years. All those eligible may become members at any time by remitting the fee and handing in their names to Prof. Macdonald, Truro."—*Halifax Herald.*

II

The Superintendent of Education held two evening sessions with High School teachers and Inspectors. The second is reported as follows in the *Halifax Chronicle*:—

FRIDAY EVENING SESSION.

Dr. McKay took the chair at 7½ o'clock, and Secretary Congdon read the minutes of the previous meeting.

The following resolutions were passed at the previous meeting: 1st, that the same books in literature be prescribed for D and C work, introduced by Principal Campbell; 2nd, that the 6th Royal Reader be taken off the "course" for examination purposes, introduced by Prin. Lay. No. 2 did not pass, but an amendment moved by Prin. Soloan that the selections be reduced one-half passed.

On the request of the President each one present furnished to the Secretary his name and residence. The following is the list:

James F. Putnam, B. A., Upper Selma.
Murray McNealy, A (sc.), Hantsport.
G. J. Miller, A (cl.), Dartmouth.
Isaac Crombie, B. A., Kingston.
C. B. Robinson, B. A., Pictou.
J. B. Calkin, M. A., Normal School.
P. O'Hearn, A (cl.), Halifax.
H. M. Vaughan, (B), Summerville.
Rev. D. A. Chisholm, D. D., Antigonish.
James Little, Truro.
L. C. Harlow, Great Village.
E. B. Smith, B. A., Guysboro'.
R. MacLellan, (A), Pictou.
Wm. MacIsaac, B. A., Antigonish.
E. J. Lay, (A), Amherst.
S. A. Fulton, (B), Lower Stewiacke.
G. P. Mackenzie, (B), Bass River.
J. F. Barteaux, (B), Maitland.
I. B. Longley, B. A., Digby.
W. M. McVicar, M. A., Annapolis.
T. C. McKay, B. A., Parrsboro'
W. C. Murray, M. A., Dalhousie College.
E M. McKenzie, M. A., Truro.
David Soloan, B. A., New Glasgow.
A. G. McDonald, M. A, Normal School.
May Tweedie, M. L. A., Truro.

E. T. Mackeen, M. A., Sydney.
I. C. Craig, Amherst.
C. L. Moore, B. A., Pictou.
Ida M. Benson, Bear River.
Inspector Morse, Digby.
John N. Creed, (B), Port Hawkesbury.
Wm. A. Creelman, A (cl.), North Sydney
M. D. Hemmeon, B. A., Truro.
A. McLeod, (A), Kentville.
Colin W. Roscoe, M. A., Wolfville.
Graham Creighton (A), Halifax.
W. W. Torey, (A), Springhill.
A. McKay, Supervisor, Halifax.
W. T. Kennedy, (A), Halifax.
W. E. Maclellan, Lt. B., Pictou.
W. R. Campbell, M. A., Truro.

G. CREIGHTON, ESQ., INSPECTOR, HALIFAX.

The discussion on the "Course of Study" was then resumed and the following recommendations were passed :

That Dalgleish's composition be discarded in favor of a better book.
That arithmetic be struck out of the 3rd year (B).
That arithmetic for D and C remain as it is for this year.
That geometry for D end with Prop. 32, Book 1.
That the B geometry be reduced to the end of Book 4.

Dr. McKay recommended that the geometry of this year be terminated at Prop. 19. Book VI, with two optional questions. This was satisfactory to all. The prescribed mathematics then came up and was rather severely handled. The book is to be re-written and improved in several respects, and in the meantime seven questions, two of which are to be optional, are to be set in Provincial examinations.

That the chemistry for C be reduced to, at least, 25 p. c. of the prescribed book (Williams'), which was also satisfactory to the meeting.

That the British American history be omitted from Grade D.

That we ask the C. P. I. to limit the number of subjects at the Provincial examinations to 4 papers a day, and that 1¼ hours be given candidates for each paper.

Amendment.

That the work be confined to 4 one hour papers a day, with an intermission of ten minutes between papers.

Amendment passed.

It being by this time 11½ p. m., and the convention having a pressing engagement at the Prince of Wales Hotel, it was resolved to leave these proposed changes in the hands of the Superintendent, in whose ability and good will to have them carried out as far as possible the convention expressed entire confidence.

## III.

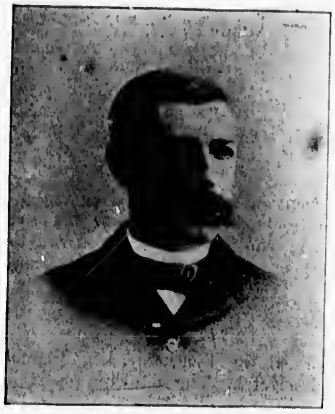
The Faculty of the Normal School entertained the Inspectors, High School Teachers and Professors at the Prince of Wales Hotel. The following report is also from the *Chronicle :*

"It was midnight, cold, and with half a gale of wind in their teeth, when the 40 members of the Convention marched in solid column under the arc lights, through the streets of Truro, to the Prince of Wales Hotel. There was a far-away look in every hungry eye and a half whisper of "oysters" passed through the ranks. When the hotel was reached there appeared the handsome Dr. Hall, of the Normal School, standing to welcome the members of the Convention in the name of the faculty of the college, upon whose invitation they were present. The dining hall was immediately invaded by the hungry crowd, and oyster stews for 40 was the order. The room, presided over by Principal Calkin, presented a gay and festive sight. Grave and solemn looking professors, inspectors and teachers, who had for four hours previous been splitting educational hairs over the subjects of the "High School Course," were now devouring oysters, laughing, joking and having what is commonly termed a "high old time." Toasts were next in order. The "C. P. I. and the Education Office," proposed by Prin. Calkin, and responded to by Dr. MacKay. "The Colleges," responded to by Rev. Dr. Chisholm, St. Francis Xavier; Prof. Murray, Dalhousie College, and Prof. Haley, Acadia College. "The Academies and High Schools," proposed by Prof. McDonald and responded to by Prin. Miller, Dartmouth; Inspector Roscoe and Prin. McLellan, of Pictou Academy. Dr. Hall proposed "The Press," responded to by H. S. Congdon. "The Ladies," responded to by Prin. Soloan, New Glasgow High School, and Prin. McKeen, Sydney. By this time it was drawing perilously near the "we sma' hour ayont the twal," and as many of the guests would require to take an early train next morning, the Convention broke up by singing with stentorian lungs the national anthem."

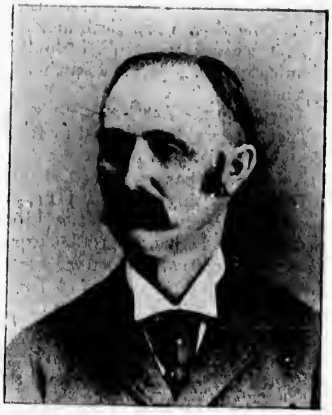
## IV.

### CORRECTING A MISTAKE.

In copying the reports of discussions from the newspapers I inadvertently included on page 124 a remark attributed to Principal Soloan of New Glasgow High School regarding the teaching of science in Pictou Academy, an institution for which he has the highest regard. As subsequently explained by Principal Soloan, the remark was never made. I refer to it here simply because it might be misunderstood.—*Secretary.*



H. H. Mackintosh, Esq., Inspector of Schools, Lunenburg.



B. McKittrick, Esq., B. A., Principal Lunenburg Academy.

## V.

## REPLIES TO PROF. MacDONALD'S CIRCULAR.

[Begun on page 134 and continued from page 141. For explanation of figures see page 132.]

### (11)

I should not consider it indispensable that in order to be efficient a head master of an academy should hold a classical and scientific "A." Successful experience I consider the most important qualification, and the want of it cannot be compensated for by the highest classical and scientific attainments.

The management of hundreds of young pupils, of the most diversified sentiments, sympathies and intellectual character,—the gaining of their confidence,—the stimulation of their ambition, the directing of their energies in the school-room cannot be successfully peformed by any head master unless he has been in close contact with young pupils, as teacher, for a number of years in some lower grade.

The most valuable training after acquiring the necessary scholarship is to know that special department of human knowledge—boy-nature—and which cannot be efficiently studied in books. It can only be studied in the class-room and on the play ground. The teacher who does not make boy-nature and girl-nature a special study can never become a successful head master no matter how brilliant his scholastic attainments.

I regard, therefore, a four or five years' experience in doing actual "B" work as a first qualification of a head master.

I do not attach much importance to examinations, either oral or written, as indicating special fitness, though they have their use as a test of scholarship. The possession of either classical or scientific "A" with good general scholarship, such as would be assured by having a university degree, ought, in my opinion, to be sufficient when compared with successful experience of four or five years of "B" work.

8. Yes, after the expiration of the first years' incumbency.
9. Doubtful.

(12)

2. Yes, preferably the classical A with a university degree in Arts. To my mind the scientific "A" and degree of B. Sc., are obtained without their possessor receiving the culture derivable from the studies taken for classical A and B. A.

7. If the scholarship requirements are satisfied, the professional will soon follow. In studying for the former the student has, for the most part, come under teachers of experience, and therefore, presumably, good teachers, first in his preparation for college and afterwards in his college career. The methods of the head master of the academy and those of the college professors will make their impress on him, and, to a large extent, will, in the case of a college-bred man, supply what a normal school is supposed to give. This equivalent then, with one year's successful teaching in almost any grade, fits a man for doing high school work in the smaller academies. In the larger academies I believe it essential for the head master to have served two or three years on the staff in a subordinate position. This is the preparatory training needed. In addition he must be possessed of executive ability, and possess qualities that make good teachers in the lower grades.

8. Yes.

9. No.

(13)

I believe the ideal scholarship for a head master can be best attained in requiring possession of both classical and scientific "A."

(2) Would be acceptable had we but one provincial university conferring degrees, and this under the authority of the Council of Public Instruction. As long as our provincial colleges confer degrees upon graduates who fail to pass the "A" test, their degrees should never be recognized.

I do not think that a special service in academic preparatory work counts for more than a particular aptitude to teach either in primary or intermediate grades. For professional equipment, I would suggest four years' successful experience in common school work with a first rank normal school diploma.

(8) It would serve no interest to have head masters members (*ex officio*) of the school board. They are now invited, in this district, to attend meetings and to give information and assistance, when matters pertaining to the schools come up for consideration. Occasionally the principalship itself has to be discussed, and, under such circumstances the presence of the principal, particularly an *ex officio* member of the board, would become unpleasant to all concerned.

9. A *good* salary is the equivalent of a *fair* salary and residence.

(14)

Without a university training I cannot well see how a person could fulfil all the requirements of Head Master except by holding A (cl.) and A (sc.,) more especially in our smaller academies where one teacher is required to teach all subjects. I should consider (2) even perferable to (1) in consequence of the broader scope of training involved.

Under professional requirements I should consider (5) the ideal: only that the experience therein referred to should include the correct principles and practice of grading classes other than those under the teacher's own immediate instruction. In lieu of (5) I should consider (4) or (6) a fair substitute.

8. I cannot see the real advantage that would accrue from this enactment, since, if the head master has the confidence of the committee the latter will show deference to his opinions and wishes in whatever pertains to the general good of the school as a whole, and if he has not that confidence he will not long hold his

position, and even if he did, his influence even as an *ex officio* member of committee would be *nil*.

(15)

As to scholarship requirements I should incline to say yes to query (1), but would give preference to scientific A with a degree. This would necessitate a study of both science and classics. I would attach very much importance to a university degree, because during the three or four years spent at college the student attends the lectures of learned and skilled teachers, and has the use of a well-equipped library. Besides he knows that his course will take him a certain number of years and he will therefore be more thorough in his work than he would be if he hoped to get through by "plugging." On the other hand were classical and scientific "A" alone required candidates for academic licenses, in many cases, would attempt to obtain licenses by private study. They would have no opportunity for doing practical or laboratory work, nor would their minds receive that broadening which university studies and life would confer.

With respect to professional training I would prefer (5) or (6) to (4), for I think that school Inspectors would be very apt to be lenient in their reports, charitably hoping for improvement in teachers' skill, with time and practice. Besides in (5) or (6) the candidate really has to stand two tests. Not only must he secure a favorable report from the Inspector, but he must also in the one case, stand the scrutiny of the Normal School faculty, which I know by experience to be a very trying ordeal,—or on the other receive a pass-mark from equitable examiners who know not candidates' papers.

8. Yes.
9. Of doubtful utility.

(16)

2. Yes, but in many cases the possession of a grade "A" scientific or of a grade "A" classical would be sufficient.
5. Yes, a good preparation.
8. No, at present in nearly all incorporated towns the principal of the academy sits with the school board as an *advisory* member.
9. No, as a bachelor it would be of no use to me. A good salary is enough. Let the selection of a house be *one* of the *optional* subjects with the head master.

(17)

As to scholarship, I know of some whose success would not be doubted, and whose only qualification was classical A; and I know of some very scholarly men who were failures as teachers. I think a grade A of either branch, or a college degree, or some equivalent, a sufficient evidence of scholarship.

With regard to professional preparation, other things being equal, one who has had the advantage of experience in an academy as assistant will make the best principal. I think that some natural qualities, too, are necessary: one must have patience, common sense, quick perception and above all not to be addicted to *fads*.

As a minimum test I should prescribe grade A of either branch, a couple of years of University residence, and at least three years' successful and progressive experience as assistant, and let the school board be competent to look out for the rest

8. No, not as school boards are now constituted.
9. Yes.

(18)

With regard to scholarship requirements, I would say, by all means let them

have a university degree and either a scientific or classical A ; it matters not which. I consider the degree of more value than the present "A" license, tho' it is better for both to go together. A person attending a college has more advantages than one attending a High School, or working by himself, has : he comes daily in contact with the best of teachers, and must almost of necessity gain good ideas of teaching always supposing that he has the teaching profession in view ; the knowledge he gains is likely to be more deeply seated, for he is not so apt to cram, inasmuch as the allotted time has to be passed in college ; meeting and mingling with so many varieties of students must have a widening effect on the mind, must give one a deeper insight into character, and should surely make him a wiser man and better fitted for taking charge of a school where he has to deal with so many dispositions. After such a course, preparation for an "A" examination is simply a reviewing, a gathering together of previous work, which tends to settle it more firmly in the mind.

With regard to professional requirements I found it somewhat difficult at first to decide between (4) and (5). After some consideration however I would give first place to (5).

At a Normal School one should get *directly* the best methods of teaching. One who has not received training in such a school, generally, only arrives at these best methods after a series of experiments on his pupils.

8. Have not considered it sufficiently to pass an opinion.

9. There would be the advantage of giving greater permanence to the head master's engagements.

(19)

1. Yes, decidedly. But by the possession of A (cl.) and A (sc.) I would understand possession of the qualification and not merely of the parchment, and therefore the proof or *evidence* of such possession though, of course, all-important, might depend largely on circumstances. The man equipped with the qualifications implied in (2), for instance, might be known to you as the superior of the one holding credentials under (1), or *vice versa*.

Speaking generally, then, and other things being equal, (or unknown) I would exact the possession of the qualifications indicated under (1).

4, 5, 6. As to these, it seems to me that the points are so well taken that it is hard to make a choice. For all that I can see, without the assistance of discussion, the three might well be made optional, and I think there is but little room left to go outside of them.

8. It seems to me that the position of head master would be incompatible with that of member of the school committee, as they stand in the relative positions of school teacher and trustee ; but I would decidedly favor a law, if such could be framed, that would require the attendance of the head master at all meetings of committee held for the consideration or discussion of the purely educational interest and government of the school, even to the employment or dismissal of subordinate or auxiliary teachers. Whether or not he should have a vote on such matters I am not prepared to advise ; but many reasons present themselves to me why the advantage of his superior knowledge of school government should not be lost to the committee.

9. I am not at all prepared to discuss this point ; and shall simply say that it would be a fine thing (especially for the H. M.) if it could be brought about.

(20)

It appears to me that the requirements for both classical and scientific "A," would be unnecessarily rigid.

I think that a person who receives a classical "A" at one examination, and a

scientific "A" at another should be granted an "A" classical and scientific. A university degree should be fully equivalent to "A" classical.

I think that either four years' successful experience in doing "B" work, which should be considered equal to the Normal School training for "A," or a first rank diploma and a shorter period of experience would be sufficient as professional requirements.

I think that a full course of training at a university of recognized standing should be regarded as partly equivalent to a Normal School training,—that is, a person holding a university degree should not be required to have so long actual experience in teaching or so long a course of Normal School training as one who does not hold a degree.

I would favor a law such as is indicated in query 8.

As to the desirableness of (9) I am doubtful.

(21)

As regards (1) I think that a distinction might be made between the case in which the head master is the only teacher in the school, who possesses an academic license, and the case in which there are other teachers with grade "A" scholarship. In the former event it would be almost necessary for the head master to possess both scholarships. He has to teach pupils of various natural endowments and talents; and he should possess the necessary requirements to enable him to be the teacher and guide, not only of those whose preferences may lie in the direction of classical training, but also of those whose natural bent inclines to the study of the natural sciences. If the head master's knowledge and training be one-sided, so to speak, his usefulness will be confined to a certain number of his pupils, while the others will have to grope for themselves. Whether it would be advisable, under present circumstances, to make the qualifications indicated under (1) compulsory, is of course another question.

As regards the second hypothesis, while it is desirable that the head master should possess both scholarships, in order that he may supervise the teaching of his *confreres* in their separate branches, it does not appear to be absolutely necessary. As a matter of fact, in colleges and universities, the principal is not often the peer of the professors in their respective fields of labor, and is reasonably satisfied in leaving to them the direction of all that pertains to the subjects which they teach.

As regards (2) I think that a university training would be a very desirable thing for head masters, though I must confess that at present I should not like to see it made compulsory.

With regard to professional training I think that (6) would serve as a very effective guarantee, though the end sought seems to be attainable by any one of the others.

I should be in favor of (8). There is no doubt that, ordinarily speaking, the head master is better informed in matters connected with the school law and academic work than the members of our school boards, as at present constituted.

I think that the time is hardly ripe for adopting (9)

(22)

3. Would suggest either a classical A or a University degree as sufficient for scholarship.

7. Training in teaching the subjects prescribed in grade VIII is good, but I believe no person should be licensed as a head master who has not had experience in teaching the subjects prescribed in grade IX, X and XI. The good head master is born, not made, and I think it would be a good thing if applicants for the posi-

tion were required to appear, *in propria persona* before a competent Board of Examiners.

8. Yes, most certainly.

9. Yes, but the idea is Utopian.



(23)

1. Yes, or (2).

7. Several years' successful teaching in the common ungraded schools with Normal training, followed by several years' successful teaching as a subordinate in an academy, doing high school work.

8. No, but think they should be consulted in all things relating to the educational affairs of the town.

9. Such a provision would tend to give the position a stability which it now lacks, but I think its adoption would have to be left to the discretion of the different towns.

(24)

3. I would classify scholastic attainments under two heads, ordinary "A" and superior "A." *Ordinary A* to be equivalent to both the present classical and scientific "A." *Superior A*, University degree with one year Post graduate in larger university in addition to "A."

7. (a) *One year's* successful experience in primary work. (b) *One year's* successful experience in more advanced work. (c) First Rank Normal School Diploma.

8. Yes.

9. Yes.

(25)

2nd. Yes.

5th. Yes.

8th. Supervisors, by all means. Head masters, no.

9th. I think that much might be said in favor of this, but I am afraid that we are not ready for it yet.

(26)

I would favor either (1) or (2). I think also that (5) would be a good prepar-

ation. My only objection is that the candidate would perhaps be too much in the power of the Inspector. Besides these officials differ very much as to what constitutes successful work.

8. No. I hold that teachers should be free from all public offices.

9. Yes,—if it would not discriminate in favor of those who would accept a smaller salary in consideration of getting the use of a residence. It might be the means of debarring single men from the position of principal.

A. McKay, Supervisor of Halifax Schools, Secretary.

H. S. Congdon, Esq., Assistant Secretary. P. E. A.

(27)

In answer to the first three questions of your printed circular, I would say that the candidate should possess either classical or scientific A, or a degree from some good university, or some equivalent to one of these—nothing more.

As to professional requirements I would say that any *successful* experience of, say, one year should be asked—nothing more. Let the value of the Normal School diploma, if the candidate has one, be estimated by the school board which has an appointment under consideration. The conditions suggested under Nos. 4, 5, and 6 would be accepted by no graduate of a good college: he would simply decline to have anything to do with the business of teaching. He would, by all means, choose something better, which would not be difficult under such conditions; and the country or rather the schools would lose the service of such persons.

8. Yes.

9. Yes.

(28)

I think the idea of providing a residence for the head master a particularly good

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## 39 and 41 Inglis Street,

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This popular resort is situated within two minutes walk of Railway Depot, and in close proximity to the Banks, Post Office, and principal Business Houses of the town.

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A. STANLEY MURPHY, - - - PROPRIETOR.

one. It would be a great boon to a man with a family and would tend to give permanence to one's position.

I think that the principal should hold both A's, but I should like to see them given in three examinations, and an average of 50 per cent. and not 60 per cent. be accepted.

There is too much strain, particularly for girls, as the A examinations are now.

For professional equipment I should be in favor of either (4) or (5).

I am not prepared to give an opinion on query (8).

13

(29)

Head masters should have either scientific or classical "A" and a university degree. Head masters who have this qualification are easily obtained and would presumably be better *students*, which means in a large degree, the true spirit of teaching.

It seems to me (4) and (5) are synonymous. He who has had four years successful experience in actual academic preparatory work should certainly be the equal of one having first rank Normal School diploma with two years' experience. I am fully convinced, however, that no one, no matter how distinguished in scholarship, should be employed as head master, unless possessed of either of these professional requirements.

8. Yes, emphatically.
9. No.

(30)

I would consider the possession of "A" scientific and classical enough under scholarship requirements.

5. Yes.

8. No, not head masters The teacher should avoid coming into collision with any body of the citizens in civic questions, and he could not possibly steer clear of these conflicts if on school board. I see no such objections to supervisors acting as such.

9. Would be very agreeable to me; and I cannot see why it would not be a good measure in any case.

VI.

FINANCIAL STATEMENT FOR 1890-1.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| RECEIPTS :— | | |
| Fees | 58 50 | |
| Government Grant | 66 88 | |
| | | $125 38 |
| EXPENDITURE :— | | |
| Deficit from 1889 | 14 05 | |
| Janitor | 5 00 | |
| Printing, N. S. P. Co. | 27 75 | |
| Advertising Ed. Review | 7 50 | |
| " Recorder | 9 00 | |
| " Chronicle | 9 00 | |
| " Herald | 8 75 | |
| Stationery | 1 40 | |
| Postage | 1 80 | |
| Allowance to Secretary | 50 00 | |
| | | 134 25 |
| | Deficit | $8 87 |

VII.

PROVINCIAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

The Thirteenth Annual Convention of the Provincial Educational Association will be held in the Assembly Hall of the Provincial Normal School, on the 14th, 15th and 16th of October, 1896.

A. McKay, *Secretary.*

VIII.

SUMMER SCHOOL OF SCIENCE AT PARRSBORO, NOVA SCOTIA.

TENTH SESSION FROM JULY 9TH TO THE 24TH, 1896.

President, Principal A. Cameron, County Academy, Yarmouth.

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# University of Mount Allison College,

## SACKVILLE, N. B.

DAVID ALLISON, LL. D., - - - - PRESIDENT.

THE UNIVERSITY, with its Associate Institutions, the LADIES' COLLEGE and the MOUNT ALLISON ACADEMY, constitutes one of the most extensive and symmetrical Educational Establishments in the Dominion. Students are admitted without distinction of sex for either the Full Arts Course or the Selected Special Courses. Young Ladies enrolled as University Students find an elegant domestic home in the Ladies' College, in close proximity to the University Class-rooms.

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**Is replete with every Comfort and convenience.**

The First Term of the Collegiate Year 1896-7 begins September 24th.

For full information as to the Courses of Study, Terms, Scholarship, Prizes, Degrees, etc., address THE PRESIDENT for a Calendar.

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# Mount Allison Ladies' College,

## OWEN'S ART INSTITUTION & CONSERVATORY OF MUSIC,

## SACKVILLE, N. B.

REV. B. C. BORDEN, D. D., - - - PRINCIPAL.

FORTY YEARS of Progressive Educational Work have given this Institution an unrivalled position in the public confidence. Instruction is imparted on subjects ranging from the Primary English Branches through the whole University Curriculum. Young Ladies studying for the Teaching Profession may here combine the accomplishments with the thorough drill necessary to their calling.

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THIS is one of the Oldest and Best Schools for BOYS in the Dominion. The Courses of Study comprise: 1st, General Elementary Education; 2nd, Preparation for Matriculation; 3rd, A Full Business Course.

Students will find here good social and moral influences, thorough education, and a comfortable home. TERMS MODERATE.

*First Term Opens August 27th. Write for Calendar.*

☞Young Ladies are admitted to the Commercial Department. These may reside at the Ladies' College. First Term, 1896-'7, begins September 3rd.

# VICTORIA SCHOOL

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HALIFAX, N. S.

# DALHOUSIE COLLEGE,

## HALIFAX, N. S.

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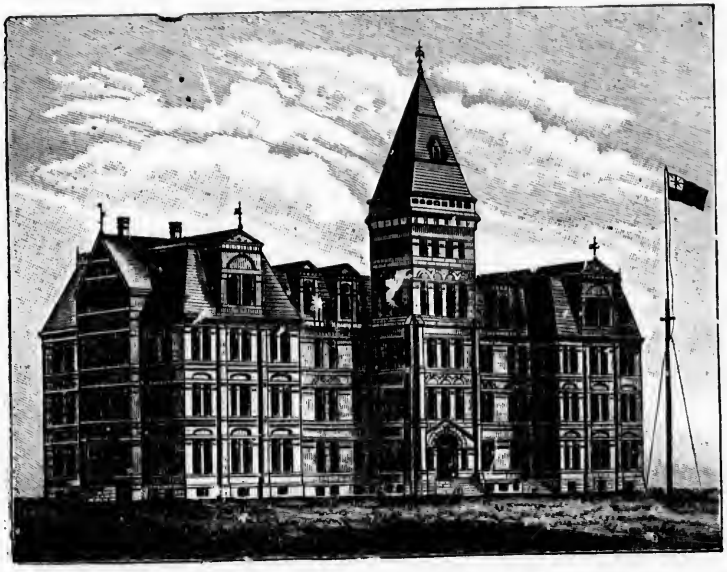
## SESSION 1896-'7.



**FACULTY OF LAW.**—Session begins Sept. 2nd, 1896.

**FACULTIES OF ARTS AND SCIENCE.**—Session begins September 9th, 1896.

**FACULTY OF MEDICINE.**—Session begins September 30th, 1896.

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## BURSARIES.

The following Bursaries will be offered in September, 1896:—**5 Bursaries of $40, 2 Scholarships $120. Mackenzie Bursary of $200. New Brunswick Alumni Prize of $50.00.**

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☞ The Calendar containing full particulars of the courses of instruction, examinations, regulations, exhibitions, bursaries, medals, and other prizes, may be obtained by applying to the President. The President will be glad to correspond with any student wishing information.

# R. J. TURNER.

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Piano Lamps, Banquet, and several makes and styles.

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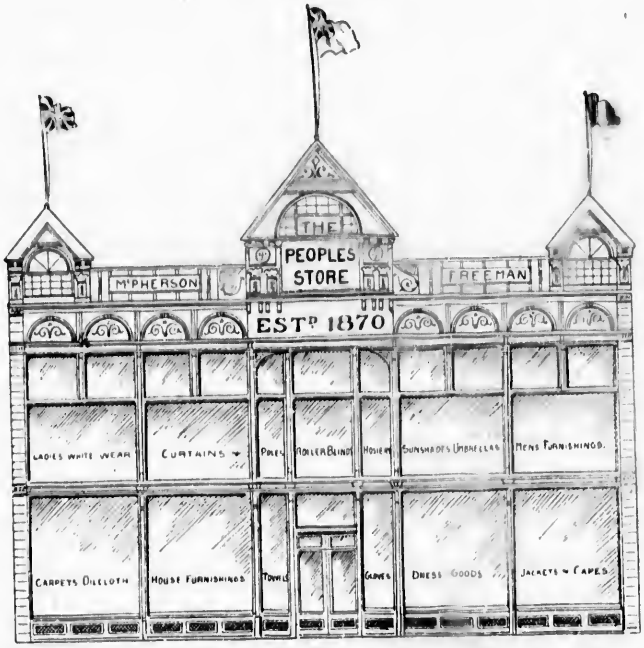
French and English Cut Tumblers and Goblets, Custards, Jelly and Wine Glasses, American makes Table Ware, and the Canadian makes, very low. . . . . .

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| | |
|---|---|
| Insurance in Force..... | $308,659,371 |
| New Business Written... | 69,025,895 |
| Claims Paid, 1895..... | 4,084,075 |
| Total Claims Paid..... | 25,000,000 |
| Gross Assets ..... | 5,661,708 |
| Reserve Emergency Fund. | 3,435,026 |

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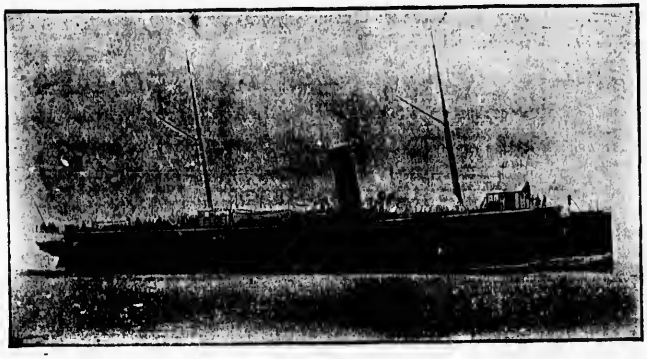

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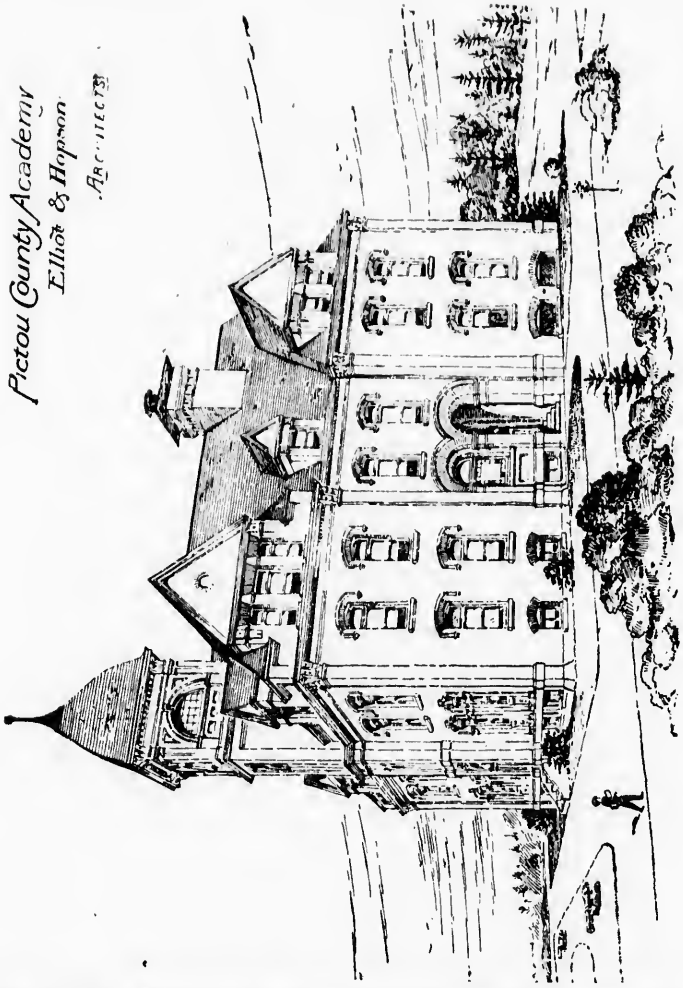


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