

DALHOUSIE UNIVERSITY.
Place of Meeting.

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DOMINION EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

THE MINUTES OF PROCEEDINGS,

WITH

ADDRESSES AND PAPERS

OF WEHE

THIRD CONVENTION OF THE ASSOCIATION

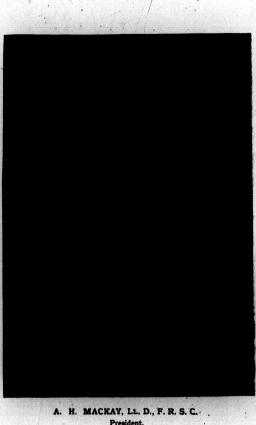
HELD AT

HALIFAX, N. S.,

- - AUGUST 2-5, 1898.

PUBLISHED BY THE ASSOCIATION.

HALIFAX:
NOVA SCOTIA PRINTING COMPANY.
1900.



President.

OFFICERS OF THE ASSOCIATION.

President.

A. H. MACKAY, LL. D., F. R. S. C., etc., Superintendent of Education, Nova Scotia.

Vice-Presidents.

HON. COL. BAKER, Minister of Education, British Columbia.

D. J. GOGGIN, M. A., Superintendent of Education, North-West Territories.

Hon. CLIFFORD SIFTON, Minister of the Interior.

JOHN MILLAR, B. A.,
Deputy Minister of Education, Ontario.

J. M. HAREER, Ph. D., Inspector of High Schools, Quebec.

PROFESSOR J. B. HALL, Ph. D., Provincial Normal School, Truro, N. S.

J. B. INCH, LL. D., Chief Superintendent of Education, New Brunswick.

D. J. McLEOD, Chief Superintendent of Education, Prince Edward Island.

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A. McKAY, Halifax.

Treasurer.

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Directors.

THE REV. PRIN. ADAMS, D. C. L., Lennoxville.

J. A. MACCABE, M. A., LL. D., F. R. S. C., Principal, Ottawa Normal School.

Inspector J. W. McOuat, Lachule.

HON. P. BOUCHER DE LA BRUERE, D. C. L., Superintendent of Public Instruction, Quebec.

JAMES L. HUGHES, Inspector of Schools, Toronto.

GEORGE U. HAY, M. A., F. R. S. C., St. John.

J. A. McLellan, M. A., Ll. D., Principal, Ontario Normal School.

ALEXANDER ANDERSON, LL. D., Principal, Prince of Wales College, Charlottetown.

Hon. G. W. Ross, Lt. D., Minister of Education, Ontario.

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PREFACE.

THE Third Meeting* of the Dominion Educational Association was held in Halifax, N. S., August 2-5, 1898.

The attendance was exceptionally large, every province of the Dominion being represented.

The public meetings, held in the Academy of Music were crowded to excess. The largest rooms in Dalhousie College, (kindly placed at the disposal of the Association by President Forrest), proved to be much too small for the accommodation of those who wished to hear the papers in the various sections.

The Addresses and Papers cover a wide range of educational topics. For ability, originality and profound knowledge of educational theory and practice they will not only compare favorably with those of former Conventions of this Association but with the best of the larger Conventions of the United States.

The delay in issuing this Report was caused by the fact that the majority of the writers provided but one copy of their papers. For the purpose of making abstracts of them they were lent to the newspaper reporters who sometimes failed to return them promptly. Two of the most valuable papers were thus lost entirely and could not be re-written.

It also happened that in the cases in which proof-sheets were sent to the authors of papers they were sometimes retained for several days, and even for weeks.

To prevent similar delay hereafter the writer of a paper should supply the Secretary with three copies—type-written if convenient, and the Secretary should be allowed to correct the proof-sheets.

THE SECRETARY.

The second meeting of the Dominion Educational Association was held in Toronto 16-18 Association. With the thirty-fourth Annual Meeting of the Ontario Educational

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CONSTITUTION OF THE DOMINION EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

ARTICLE I. NAME.

This Association shall be styled the Dominion Educational Association,

ARTICLE II.—DEPARTMENTS.

Sec. 1. It shall consist of seven departments: The first, of School Inspection; the second, of Normal and Training Schools; the third, of Elementary Schools, including Kindergarten; the fourth, of Higher Education; the fifth, of Industrial Education; the sixth, of Art Education; the seventh, of Music Education.

Sec. 2. Other departments may be organized in the manner prescribed in this Constitution.

ARTICLE III. - MEMBERSHIP.

Sec. 1. Any person interested in the work of education shall be eligible for membership and may continue a member by the payment of one dollar at the general meeting or convention. On neglect to pay such fee the membership shall cease.

Sec. 2. Each Department may prescribe its own conditions of membership, provided that no person be admitted to such membership who is not a member of the general Association.

Sec 3. Any person eligible to membership may become a Life member by paying at once ten dollars.

ARTICLE IV-OFFICERS.

Sec. I. The officers of this Association shall be a President, one Vice-President for each Province and Territory represented in the Association, a Secretary, a Treasurer, eight Directors, and the presiding officers of the several departments.

The president, vice-presidents, secretary, treasurer, directors, and presiding officers of their respective departments shall constitute the Board of Directors, and as such shall have power to appoint such committees from their own number as they shall deem expedient.

Sec. 3. The elective officers of the Association shall be chosen by ballot unless otherwise ordered by the meeting on the third day of the convention, the majority of votes being necessary for the choice. They shall assume office not later than the first day of January following the convention.

Sec. 4. Each department shall be administered by a president, vice-president, secretary, and such other officers as it shall deem necessary to conduct its affairs.

See. 5. The President shall preside at all meetings of the Association and of the Board of Directors, and shall perform the duties usually devolving upon a presiding officer. In his absence, a vice-president shall preside; and in the absence of all vicepresidents a pro tempore chairman shall be appointed on nomination, the Secretary putting the question.

The Secretary shall keep a full and accurate report of the proceedings of the general meetings of the Association and all meetings of the Board of Directors, and shall conduct such correspondence as the Directors may assign, and shall have his records present at all meetings of the Association and at the Board of Directors. The Secretary of each department shall, in addition to performing the duties usually pertaining to his office, keep a list of the members of his department.

Sec. 7. The treasurer shall receive, and under the direction of the Board of Directors shall hold in safe keeping, all moneys paid to the Association, shall expend the same only upon the order of the Board; shall keep an exact account of his receipts and expenditures, a full statement of which he shall, on retiring from office, submit to the Board of Directors. The treasurer shall give such bonds for, the faithful discharge of his duties as may be required by the Board of Directors.

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President, presented ctors, and Sec. 8. The Board of Directors shall have power to fill all vacancies in their own body; shall have in charge the general interests of the Association; and shall make all necessary arrangements for its meetings. Upon the written application of ten members of the Association for permission to establish a new department they may grant such permission. Such new department shall in all respects be entitled to the same rights and privileges as others. The formation of such department shall in effect be a sufficient amendment to this Constitution for the insertion of its name in Article II, and the Secretary shall make the necessary alterations.

ARTICLE V.-MEETINGS.

- Sec. 1. The meetings of the Association shall be held at such times and places as shall be determined by the Board of Directors, provided that not more than three years shall intervene between two general meetings or conventions.
- Sec* 2. Special meetings may be called by the president at the request of ten members of the Board of Directors.
- Sec. 3. Any Department of the Association may hold a Special Meeting at such time and place as by its own regulations, it shall appoint, provided that the expense of such meeting shall not be a charge upon the funds of the Association, without the order of the Association.
- Sec. 4. The Board of Directors shall hold their regular meetings during the convention.
- Sec. 5. Special meetings of the Board of Directors may be held at such other times and places as the Board or the President, with the concurrence of five other members of the Board, shall determine.
- Sec. 6. Each new Board shall organize at the session of its election. At its first meeting a Committee on Publication shall be appointed, which shall consist of the President and the Secretary of the Association for the previous year, and one member from each Department.

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ARTICLE VI.-By-LAWS.

By-laws not inconsistent with this Constitution may be adopted by a two-thirds vote of the Association.

ARTICLE VII.—AMENDMENTS.

This Constitution may be altered or amended at a regular meeting by the unanimous vote of the members present, or by a two-thirds vote of the members present, provided that the alteration or amendment has been proposed in writing at a previous regular meeting.

By-Laws.

- 1. At each regular meeting of the Association there shall be appointed a Committee on Nominations, one on Honorary Members, and one on Resolutions.
- 2. The President and Secretary shall certify to the Treasurer all bills approved by the Board of Directors.
- 3. Each member of the Association shall be entitled to a copy of its proceedings.
- 4. No paper, lecture or address shall be read before the Association or any of its departments in the absence of its author, nor shall any such paper, lecture, or address be published in the volume of Proceedings without the consent of the Board of Directors.

CONSTITUTION DE L'ASSOCIATION D'EDUCATION DU CANADA.

ARTICLE I .- NOM.

. Cette Association portera le nom suivant : Association d'Education du Dominion du Canada.

ARTICLE II.—DÉPARTEMENTS.

rère Divis. L'Association comprendra sept départements : le premier, l'inspection des écoles ; le deuxième, les écoles normales et les training schools (écoles pour l'étude de l'art d'enseigner) ; le troisième, les écoles élémentaires et les "Kindergarten;" le quatrième, l'éducation supérieure ; le cinquième l'éducation industrielle ; le sixième, l'éducation artistique ; le septième, l'éducation musicale.

² de Divis. On pourra organiser d'autres départements de la manière prescrite par cette Constitution.

ARTICLE III.—AFFILIATION.

tère Divis. Toute personne intéressée au progrès de l'éducation pourra devenir membre de l'association en versant la somme d'un dollar à la réunion généralé ou convention; et elle pourra continuer son affiliation en versant la même somme (un dollar), annuellement. Elle cessera d'être membre des qu'elle négligera de payer cette contribution.

ade Divis. Chaque département pourra prescrire ses propres conditions d'affiliation. Une personne ne pourra être affiliée, cependant, que lorsqu'elle est déjà membre de l'Association générale.

3me Divis. Toute personne éligible à la position de membre pourra devenir membre à vie en payant, une fois pour toutes, la somme de dix dollars.

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ARTICLE IV.—OFFICIERS.

dent, un vice-président pour chaque province et territoire représentés à l'Association, un secrétaire, un trésorier, huit directeurs et les présidents des divers départements.

^{2me} Divis. Le président, le vice-président, le secrétaire, le trésorier, les directeurs et les présidents des divers départements constitueront le Bureau des Directeurs, et, en cette qualité, ils auront le pouvoir de former des comités dont les membres seront choisis parmi eux, selon qu'ils le jugeront à propos.

3me Divis. A moins d'ordre contraire de la part de l'assemblée, les officiers de l'Association seront élus par voie de scrutin, le troisième jour de la réunion; la pluralité des votes décidera le choix. Ils entreront en charge le premier janvier à dater de la réunion.

4me Divis. Chaque département sera administré par un président, un vice-président, un secrétaire et par tout officier jugé nécessaire à l'administration de ses affaires.

5me Divis. Le président présidera toutes les assemblées de l'Association et celles du Bureau des Directeurs, et accomplira les devoirs appartenant ordinairement. à un président. En son absence un vice-président présidera; et, en l'absence de tous les vice-présidents on nommera un président temporaire, après mise aux voix des noms des candidats par le secrétaire.

6me Divis. Le secrétaire devra garder un rapport complet et exact des délibérations des assemblées générales de l'Association et de toutes les assemblées du Bureau des Directeurs, et se chargera de toute correspondance qui lui pourra être confiée par les Directeurs, et il devra apporter avec lui ses registres à toutes les réunions de l'Association et du Bureau des Directeurs. Le secrétaire de chaque département devra accomplir les devoirs appartenant ordinairement à sa charge, et, en outre conserver une liste des noms des membres de son département.

^{7me} Divis. Le Trésorier devra percevoir, d'après les instructions du Bureau des Directeurs, tous les deniers payés à l'Associa-

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mbre es, la tion, les placer en garde sûre, et les employer seulement d'après l'ordre du dit Bureau; il tiendra un compte fidèle de ses recettes et de ses dépenses, il en fournira, au sortir de fonctions, un relevé complet au Bureau des Directeurs. Le trésorier donnera toutes les garanties que pourra exiger le Bureau des Directeurs concernant le fidèle accomplissement de ses devoirs.

8me Divis. Le Bureau des Directeurs aura le pouvoir de remplir les vacances survenant parmi ses propres membres ; il soignera les intérêts généraux de l'Association, et verra à tous les arrangements nécessaires à ses assemblées. Il pourra décréter l'établissement d'un nouveau département sur demande écrite à cet effet de la part de dix membres de l'Association. Le nouveau département sera revêtu des mêmes droits et privilèges que les autres départements. La formation d'un tel département sera, par le fait même, un amendement suffisant à la constitution à l'effet d'inscrire son nom à l'Article II, et le secrétaire devra faire les changements nécessaires à ce sujet.

ARTICLE V.-ASSEMBLÉES.

jours et lieux que déterminera le Bureau des Directeurs pourvu qu'il ne s'écoule pas plus de trois ans entre deux assemblées générales.

pirecteurs le président pourra convoquer des assemblées spéciales.

me Divis. Tout département de l'Association pourra tenir une assemblée spéciale aux jours et lieux indiqués par ses propres règlements, pourvu que les dépenses de ces assemblées ne soient pas à la charge de l'Association sans un ordre de celle-ci.

^{4me} Divis. Le Bureau des Directeurs devra tenir ses assemblées régulières pendant la convention.

5me Divis. Le Bureau des Directeurs pourra tenir des assemblées spéciales à des jours et lieux que le Bureau ou le président pourra déterminer concuremment avec cinq autres membres du Bureau. l'A

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6me Divis. Chaque nouveau Bureau devra s'organiser à la session même de son élection. A sa première assemblée on devra nommer un comité de publication, formé du président et du secrétaire de l'Association de l'année précédente et d'un membre de chaque département.

ARTICLE VI.—REGLEMENTS.

On pourra adopter, par deux tiers des votes des membres de l'Association, des règlements qui ne seront pas incompatibles avec cette constitution.

ARTICLE VII .- AMENDEMENTS.

On pourra changer ou amender cette constitution à une assemblée régulière ou par le voté unanime des membres présents, ou par les deux tiers des votes des membres présents, pourvu que tel changement ou amendement ait été proposé par écrit à une assemblée régulière précédente.

REGLEMENTS.

- 1. A chaque assemblée régulière de l'Association on devra former un comité pour la nomination des officiers, un pour la nomination des membres honoraires et un pour les résolutions.
- 2°. Le président et le secrétaire devront certifier pour le trésorier tout compte approuvé par le Bureau des Directeurs.
- 3°. Chaque membre de l'Association aura droit à une copie des délibérations.
- 4°. Il ne sera fait lecture d'aucun document, d'aucune conférence ou adresse devant l'Association ou aucun de ses départements en l'absence de son auteur; et l'insertion de tels documents, conférences ou adresses ne se fera pas au Registre des Délibérations sans le consentement du Bureau des Directeurs.

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THE DOMINION EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

HALIFAX, AUGUST 2-5, 1898.

OUTLINE MINUTES OF PROCEEDINGS.

(Inter Alia.)

THE FIRST DAY-2ND AUGUST.

The Third Convention of the Dominion Educational Association met at 8 p. m. in the Academy of Music, Halifax, Nova Scotia.

Dr. A. H. MacKay, the President, asked His Honor Lieutenant Governor Daly to take the chair,

His Honor extended to the members of the Association from all parts of lhe Dominion a most hearty welcome.

Addresses of welcome were also delivered by the Hon. Attorney-General of Nova Scotia, His Worship Mayor Stephen of Halifax, Rev. Dr. Forrest, President of Dalhousie College; Dr. Russell, M. P., Halifax; and Chairman Faulkner of the Halifax School Board.

Addresses in reply were made by the President, Dr. A. H. MacKay, Superintendent of Education; Hon. Dr. La Bruère, Superientendent of Public Instruction, Quebec; D. J. Goggin, M. A., Superintendent of Education, North West Territories; Dr. J. A. McCabe, Principal Normal School, Ottawa; Dr. Inch, Chief Superintendent of Education, New Brunswick; D. J. MacLeod, Chief Superintendent of Education, Prince Edward Island.

The meeting was also addressed by the Hon W. W. Stetson, Superintedent of Education for the State of Maine.

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THE SECOND DAY-3RD AUGUST.

FORENOON.

At 9.30 a. m. a general meeting was held in Dathousie College. After some routine business the various sections met in different rooms to organize, and to real and discuss educational papers.

Elementary:

President — J. B. Calkin, M. A., Principal Normal School, Truro.

Vice-President - Principal Lay, Amherst Academy.

Secretary - Principal Starratt, Yarmouth.

The Rev. D. Macrae. D. D., Principal of Morrin College, Quebec, read a paper on "Denominationalism in Education."

J. O. Casgrain, Editor of the Journal de l'Instruction Publique, Montreal, read a paper in French entitled "Quelques rèflexions sur enseignement primaire."

Hon. W. W. Stetson delivered an address on The emotions as a factor in education."

Higher Education.

President—D. J. Goggin, M. A., Supt. of Education, N.W.T. Vice-President — Rev. Canon Adams, D. C. L., Principal Bishop's College.

Secretary - S. A. Morton, M. A., Halifax Academy.

W. J. Robertson, B. A., Ll. B., of St. Catherines, read a paper on "Secondary Education in Ontario; its development, present condition and needs."

This paper was discussed by Dr. MacMechan, Mr. G. U. Hay and Principal Adams.

A paper by Prof. Bober, of Kings College, was read by Principal Soloan, of New Glasgow. It was discussed by Rev. Dr. Reynar, of Victoria University, Mr. Robertson, Prof. Lanos, Supt. Goggin, and Principal Soloan.

Thos. Kirkland, M. A., Principal of the Normal School, Toronto, read a paper on "Some Characteristics and Tendencies of Modern Education and their Remedies."

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President - J. M. Harper, Ll. D., Inspector of Superior Schools, Quebec.

Vice-President — J. B. Hall, Ph. D., Normal School, Truro. Secretary - C. W. Roscoe, Inspector of Schools, Wolfville.

H. V. Bridges, M. A., Inspector of Schools, Fredericton, read a paper on "The Duties and Powers of School Inspectors."

W. S. Carter, M. A., Inspector of Schools, St. John. read a paper on "The Qualifications of a School Inspector."

Kindergarten.

President-Miss E. Bolton, Superintendent of Kindergartens, Ottawa.

Vice-President - Mrs. S. B. Patterson, Truro, Normal School Kindergarten.

Secretary - Miss Lena Woodill, Halifax.

Directors - Miss Hume, Dartmouth ; Miss Stewart, St. John.

AFTERNOON.

The afternoon was devoted to a delightful excursion in the S. S. Chebucto and Whitney to points of interest about Halifax Harbor.

EVENING.

Géneral meeting in the Academy of Music. The President, Dr. A. H. MacKay, in the chair. It was agreed that Mr. Parmelee, Prin. Calkin, Prin. Kirkland, Geo. U. Hay, Supt. McLeod and Supt. Goggin be a Committee on Resolutions. It was also agreed that Mr. Parmelee, Supt. Inch, Prof. Hume (for whom Prof. Mills was afterwards substituted) the President and Mr. Seaman be a Committee on Nominations.

The Hon. Dr. LaBruère, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Quebec, read a paper on "The Catholic Schools of Quebec."

The Hon. Attorney-General of Nova Scotia delivered an address on "The Spiritual Element in Education."

Rev. Principal Adams read the following original poems: "Quebec," "Dominion Day, 1895," "Fourth of July," "Sir John Thompson's Death." He introduced them with appropriate com-

Dr. J. M. Harper, Inspector of Superior Schools, Quebec, read a paper on "A Central Educational Bureau."

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f Superior THIRD DAY-4TH AUGUST.

FORENOON.

Elementary.

Prof. S. W. Dyde, D. Sc., Queens College, read a paper entitled, "The Value of Poetry for Children."

Mr. John Brittain, Normal School, Fredericton, read a paper on "Means and Methods in the Common Schools."

Kindergarten.

Miss Eliza Bolton, Principal of Kindergarten, Ottawa, read a paper on "What Education Means."

As a very general desire was expressed by the Common School teachers to flear Miss Bolton's paper it was read before the Elementary Section.

Mrs. S. B. Patterson read a paper on "Some Queer Children, and How to Treat Them."

Miss M. A. Hamilton, of Dartmouth Kindergarten, read a paper on "The Management and Equipment of Kindergarten in the Smaller Communities."

Higher Education.

Miss E. Ritchie, Ph. D., of Wellesley, read a paper on "The Best Collegiate Education for Women."

This paper was discussed by Principal Kirkland, Principal Adams, Miss Mackintosh and others.

Mr. George U. Hay, M. A., LL.B., of St. John, read a paper on "Nature and Literature."

Inspection and Training.

Prof. J. G. Hume, Ph. D., of Toronto University, read a paper on "Pedagogics as a University Subject."

This paper was discussed by Dr. Hall, Prof. Murray, Supervisor McKay and others.

A paper in French by the Rev. Th. G. Rouleau, Principal Laval Normal School, on Professional Training, was presented by Principal Ahern.

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J. Coyle Brown, Inspector of Schools, Peterboro, recommended certain changes in the use of the letters of the alphabet. His scheme was discussed by Dr. A. H. MacKay, Prof. Ahern, and Dr. Harper.

AFTERNOON, 2 P. M.

Prof. E. M. Kierstead, D. D., Acadia College, read a paper on "The Development of Character."

Miss Eleanor Robinson, of St. John, read a paper on "The Parent and the School."

Higher Education.

(Section divided into three sub-sections.)

(a)-Language.

J. W. Logan, B. A., of Halifax Academy, read a paper entitled "Value of Latin as a subject of a High School Curriculum."

Rev. A. H. Reynar, M. A., LL.D., Victoria University, read a paper on "The Ancient Classics and the Modern Classics in our Schools."

(b)—Mathematics.

Chairman-Principal Adams.

Secretary - H. M. MacKay, B. A. Sc.

D. A. Murray, Ph. D., Cornell University, read a paper on "Euclidean Geometry and its Modern Substitutes compared."

A discussion followed in which Principal Adams, Prof. Ahern and Principal Oakes took part.

H. M. MacKay, B. A. Sc., of Pictou Academy, read a paper on "Mathematical Drawing."

(c)-Technical Education.

James Mills, LL.D., President of Ontario Agricultural College, read a paper on "Technical Education in Schools."

Prof. W. W. Andrews, M. A., Mt. Allison College, read a paper on "The Advantage and Feasibility of Combining Technical and Public Instruction."

Miss Helen N. Bell, of the Halifax School of Cookery, read a paper on "Domestic Economy in the Public Schools."

Prof. McKinnon, B.Sc., of St. Francis Xavier's College, being absent, his paper was read by title.

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Inspection and Training.

On account of the small attendance in this section, Principal Soloan's paper on "The Advantages of Consolidating Rural School Sections" was read by title.

Inspector Dearness, of London, Ont., being absent, his paper on "The Post-Graduate Training of Teachers," was also read by title.

AFTERNOON, 5 P. M.

General meeting. The President in the chair.

Inter alia

Dr. Harper, on behalf of the committee appointed to report upon the Constitution, read each article in its present form, and explained the nature of the amendments agreed upon by the Directors.

On motion of Dr. Mills and Principal Kennedy, the proposed amendments were adopted unanimously.

Dr. Harper gave notice that at a future meeting he would move the following resolution: "As the Association is a representative one, the Executive shall be enlarged by representatives chosen by the Provincial Association of each Province, or by the Council or Board of Education of any Province where such an Association has not yet been organized. Accredited delegates from all local Teachers' Associations or Institutes shall be allowed to sit at the meetings of the Executive when they are in session during the general meeting or convention."

The following telegram from Sir William Dawson was read: "President and Teachers' Association, Halifax, N. S. Age and infirmity prevent attendance. May God bless Convention."

The Secretary, Dr. Adams, and Supt. Goggin, were appointed a committee to draw up a suitable reply.

The meeting then adjourned, to enable the Officers of the Association, and those who had read papers, to attend a reception given by the Local Branch of the Women's National Council, at the residence of Mrs. Chas. Archibald, 32 Inglis St.

EVENING.

General meeting in Orpheus Hall, the President in the chair. He announced that the Coastal Steamship Company had placed the S. S. Bridgewater at the disposal of the members of the Association for an excursion on the harbor on Friday afternoon, the 5th.

The President read the telegram which had been sent by Sir Wm. Dawson, and the meeting authorized the following reply: "The Dominion Educational Association, assembled in Halifax, acknowledges with much pleasure the kind message of its veteran friend, Sir Wm. Dawson, whose important and lifelong services to education in Canada it gratefully recognizes, and expresses its deep sympathy with him in his infirmity."

- J. A. MacCabe, LL D., Principal of the Ottawa Normal School, read a paper on "A Uniform Standard of Teachers' Licenses."
- G. W. Parmelee, B.A., of the Education Department, Quebec, read a paper on "Teachers' Pensions."

Miss Ethel Muir, Ph. D., of Mt. Holyoke University, read a paper on "Evolution and Education."

Prof. Horrigan, of St. Francis Xavier, read a paper on "English Literature in High Schools."

FOURTH DAY-5TH AUGUST.

FORENOON.

General meeting in Dalhousie College. The President, Dr. A. H. MacKay, in the chair.

The Nominating Committee recommended as officers for the next Convention:

President—J. A. MacCabe, M. A., Ll. D., F. R. S. C., Prin. Normal School, Ottawa.

Vice-Presidents—Hon. P. Boucher De La Bruère, D. C. L., Supt. Pub. Ins., Quebec; Hon. Geo. W. Ross, Ll. D., F. R. S. C., Minister of Education, Toronto; A. H. MacKay, B. A., B. Sc., Ll. D., F. R. S. C., Supt. of Ed., Nova Scotia: J. R. Inch, Ll. D., Chiet Supt. of Ed., New Brunswick; D. J. McLeod, Esq., Chief Supt. of Ed., Prince Edward Island; Hon. J. D. Cameron, M. A., Attørney-General, Manitoba; D. J. Goggin, M. A., Supt.

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D. C. L., F. R. S. B. A., B. R. Inch, cod, Esq., Cameron, A., Supt. of Ed., North-West Territories; S. D. Pope, LL.D., Supt. of Ed., British Columbia.

Directors—Thomas Kirkland, M. A., Principal of Normal School, Toronto; Rev. T. Adams, M. A. (Camb.) D. C. L., Principal Bishop's College, Lennoxville; J. B. Calkin, M. A., Principal Normal School, Truro; S. P. Robbins, M. A., Ll. D., Principal McGill Normal School; W. S. Carter, M. A., Inspector of Schools, St. John; J. D. Seaman, Esq., Prince Edward Island; Prof. J. Ahern, Laval Normal School; Daniel MacIntyre, M.A., Winnipeg.

Secretary-J. T. Bowerman, M. A., Ottawa.

Treasurer, Alexander McKay, Halifax.

On motion of Supt. Goggin, the Report was unanimously adopted, and a formal ballot was sent to the President to confirm the appointment of these officers.

The President elect thanked the members for having so honored him.

The Committee on Resolutions reported recommending the adoption of the following Resolutions:

1. Resolved: 'That in view of the beneficial results which have followed the establishment of chairs of Pedagogy in the universities and colleges of Great Britain and the United States, this Association strongly recommends the universities and colleges of the Dominion to make provision for the teaching of Pedagogy.

2 Resolved: That a Committee consisting of G. U. Hay, M. A., New Brunswick: T. Kirkland, M. A., Ontario; D. MacIntyre, M. A., Manitoba; J. B. Calkin, M. A., Nova Scotia, and J. M. Harper, Ph. D., Quebec; be appointed to consider and report on the establishment of a Central Bureau of Education of Canada. [The name of the Hon. G. W. Ross was subsequently added to this committee.]

3. Resolved: That a Committee consisting of A. H. MacKay, Ll. D., Nova Scotia; W. S. Carter, M. A., New Brunswick; D. J. McLeod, Esq., Prince Edward Island; Rev. E. I. Rexford, B. A., Montreal, and W. J. Robertson, Ll. B., Ontario; be appointed to consider and report on (1) The universal use of the decimal weights and measures. (2) The simplification of English Orthography. (3) The general introduction of a distinctly legible phonetic shorthand.

4. Resolved: That this Association recommends that the school-day immediately preceding May 24th, be set apart as "Empire Day," and that the Departments of Education in the provinces and territories be respectfully requested to arrange for such exercises in their respective schools as will tend to the increase of a sound patriotic feeling.

Resolved: That the hearty thanks of the Association be conveyed to the citizens of Halifax for their many courtesies and kindnesses to its members; to the authorities of Dalhousie University for the use of their halls; to the Press of Halifax for the very complete reports of our meetings; to the railways and steam-boats for reduced rates of travel, and to the Coastal Steam Ship Company for its kindness in placing the Steamship Bridgewater at the disposal of the members on the afternoon of August 5th.

The Association hereby records its high appreciation of the courtesies of the Local Council of Women, shewn in the reception given to its members on the afternoon of Thursday, August 4th, at the residence of Mrs Chas. Archibald, and also of the Aldermen of the City of Halifax, for refreshments during the Wednesday

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The Report of the Committee on Resolutions was unanimously adopted.

J. Coyle Brown, Inspector of Schools, Peterboro, gave notice that he would move the following resolutions at the next Convention:—

At the next meeting of the Dominion Educational Association, I shall move that c be generally called ke; that g be generally called ge (as in geese); that h be called he; that w be called woo; y, yi; and z, ze. Also that appropriate names be given to oo, au and aw, ou and ow, of and oy; and that ch be called che (as in cheese); ph, fe (as in phenix); qu, kwe (as in queen); sh, she (as in sheep); th, the (as in theme), and the (as in these); wh, hwe (as in wheel); ck, ek (as in deck); gh, af (as in laugh); ng, eng (as in length); and teh, etch (as in fetch).

Rev. T. Adams, M. A., D. C, L., read a paper entitled "The Duties of Universities to the Community and to Educational Institutions."

In the absence of William Houston, M. A., his paper on "The Teaching of History," was read by title.

A paper on "Science Teaching in Primary Schools," by Prof. H. Montgomery, M. A., was read by title.

The President reminded the sections that it was their duty, before final adjournment, to elect their officers for next convention.

On motion of Supt. Goggin and G. U. Hay, the following resolution passed unanimously:---

Resolved: That this Association recommend, that in the engagement of teachers, good character, graceful manners, broad and accurate scholarship, and professional skill, determine the selection, rather than considerations of low salary

On motion of Principal Kirkland, a vote of thanks was presented to the retiring President, Dr. A. H. MacKay.

A. McKAY, Secretary.

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FINANCIAL STATEMENT.

Your Treasurer has the honour to report that since the last meeting of the D. E. A., held in Toronto, April, 1895, he has had practically no duties to perform.

He received from his predecessor in July, 1895, the sum of \$191.05, the balance in hand at that date as shown by the books, &c., vouchers and the certificate of a chartered accountant. This amount with \$25 received as fees in Toronto, was deposited in the Banque Nationale in July, 1895, and has remained till transferred to a Halifax Bank a few daysago. No payments have been made since your present treasurer assumed office.

The financial statement is as follows:

		RECEIPTS.		*
Cash in hand :-				1
Balance rece	ived f	rom E. W. Arthy		\$ 191 05
Balance received from E. W. Arthy				
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Fees, 1898, \$4	100 ?		F	\$750 00

Respectfully submitted,

G. W. PARMELEE,

Treas., D. E. A.

Halifax, Aug. 1st, 1898.

OFFICERS FOR 1898-1901.

President:

J. A. MACCABE, M. A., LL.D., F. R. S. C.

Vice-Presidents:

HON. P. BOUCHER DE LA BRUERE, D. C. L. HON. G. W. ROSS, LL.D. A. H. MACKAY, B. A., B.Sc., LL.D., F. R. S. C. J. R. INCH, LL.D., Chief Supt. Ed., N. B. D. J. McLeod, Esq., Chief Supt. Ed., P. E. I. HON. J. D. CAMERON, Winnipeg. S. D. POPE, LL.D., Supt. Ed., B. C. D. J. Goggin, M. A., Supt. of Ed., N. W. T.

Directors:

T. KIRKLAND, M. A., Principal Nor. Sch., Toronto. Rev. T. Adams, M. A. (Camb.), D.C.L., Prin. Bish. Col. J. Br Calkin, M. A., Principal Nor. Sch., Truro. S. P. Robbins, M.A., Ll.D., Principal McGill Nor. Sch. W. S. Carter, M. A., Insp. of Schools, St. John. J. D. Seaman, Esq., P. E. I. Prof. J. Ahern, Laval Normal School. Daniel MacIntyre, M. A., Winniper.

Secretary:

J. T. BOWERMAN, M. A., Ottawa.

Treasurer:

A. McKay, Supervisor of Schools, Halifax.

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J. A. MACCABE, LL. D., F. R. S. C. President-Elect.

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ADDRESSES OF THE GENERAL MEETINGS.

MEETING OF WELCOME,

AUGUST 2nd, 1898, 8 P. M.

At the request of Dr. A. H. MacKay, Superintendent of Education, His Honor the Lieut.-Governor took the chair, and in welcoming the Dominion Educational Association to Halifax, spoke as follows:—

Ladies and Gentlemen, - I am very sensible of the great privilege that has been conferred upon me by asking me to preside at the opening of this third meeting of the Dominion Educational Association, but I must at the same time confess to a feeling of my own incapacity when addressing such an assemblage of learned men and women as I now see before me. My duty, however, is a simple one, and however inadequately I may be able to express it, I wish to assure you of the very great heartiness with which we bid you welcome to Nova Scotia. The cordiality of this welcome springs not alone from the knowledge of the personal merits of the members of your distinguished Association, but largely from a due appreciation of the dignity and importance of the educational pro-To that noble profession, above all others, including in it our ecclesiastical teachers, the public look for the moral and intellectual advancement of the youth of our country, and the magnitude of the responsibilities resting upon it in that respect, exacts from us our highest regard and consideration, which we

I believe this Association has been called into existence for the wisest and best of purposes. A great service is rendered to the profession by the drawing together from all the Provinces, of men most prominent and skilled in the various departments of educational knowledge, for the interchange of opinions, and the recital of the results of their experience. While the subject of education is reserved by the Constitution for the jurisdiction of the several

Provinces, and the several Provincial systems are entirely independent of each other, it is manifestly desirable that representatives from all parts should come together for the promotion, as far as possible, of uniformity, and for the maintenance of a just and liberal Canadian system. This desire is evidenced by the meeting of to-day, and I cannot refrain from expressing my humble tribute of praise to all members who have come here from far and near, and who, in the midst of summer holidays, are ready to devote themselves with zeal to the labors which the programme shows us are before them for this week. The fact of its being vacation time demonstrates an earnestness and devotion to the work in which they are engaged, that cannot be too highly commended. But, ladies and gentlemen, they have chosen Halifax for their place of meeting. In that respect we congratulate ourselves upon the honor which the visit of so many learned men and ladies, confers We are delighted to welcome them to this great seaport Capital, and at the same time I hope I may be permitted to say that in the selection of this happy and appropriate place of meeting, there is additional proof of the wisdom and far-sightedness of this learned Association. What would be almost intolerable labor among the hustling crowds of Montreal, Toronto or Quebec, with an overpowering heat, and perhaps an impending "coup de soliel" by which their faculties would be prostrated and all mental exertion rendered almost impossible, will here become mere holiday pastime in the cooling breezes of the great Atlantic Ocean, and the invigorating air of Nova Scotia.

Here, too, may be observed the singular spectacle of a political power giving almost universal satisfaction, and this may be said of whichever political party may happen to be in power. We have a "Council of Public Instruction," a political body that attains to that unique distinction, and though that same body, when acting in another capacity, (the name alone being changed into that of "Executive Council"), frequently challenges the loudest hostile criticism, still when as the Council of Public Instruction it deals with educational matters, party politics and sectarian strife are silent, equal justice alone is considered, and the undoubted rights of all upheld.

In conclusion, I again bid you welcome and I trust that all your anticipations as to the promotion of the noble cause of educa-

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Pub feel this tion will follow your deliberations, and that your visit to Halifax will be in every way agreeable to each of you individually.

HON. DR. LONGLEY, ATTORNEY-GENERAL OF NOVA SCOTIA.

Your Honor, Your Grace, Ladies and Gentlemen,—I believe I should strictly say, Members of the Dominion Educational Association, it is a source of disappointment to you, as I have no doubt it is a source of disappointment to all concerned, that the President of the Council of Public Instruction of Nova Scotia, and the Leader of the Government of Nova Scotia, who intended, on behalf of the Council of Public Instruction, to have tendered a welcome to this important meeting, is unable to be present in the city, and the duty, in his place and in his name, of welcoming you here, has been imposed upon me, a duty which I discharge with the utmost possible pleasure.

We recognize the movement of the creation of the Dominion Educational Association as part of the great scheme of making this united Canada, which was inaugurated in 1867, and I look upon this gathering for a common purpose of the noble body of men and women discharging the very important duty of educating the people of this Dominion, as a matter which should receive the universal approbation of the entire community. I feel that Nova Scotia is honored, and the City of Halifax especially, in having this great body meet here. We welcome everyone who has done us the honor of attending on this occasion, with the utmost cordiality. We are pleased to see, though great distances separate us, distinguished men from all parts of Canada. We are gratified that the teachers of Nova Scotia have come forward in such large numbers to shew that Nova Scotians appreciate the privilege of having this Dominion Educational Association with us. No more brilliant or beautiful audience was ever seen in the Academy of Music, and I attribute that to the overshadowing presence of that delightful class of people,-I refer to the school marm, on this occasion, in her sweetest attire, and most delightful outward appearance.

His Honor the Lieut.-Governor has described the Council of Public Instruction in terms which I, as a member, would scarcely feel justified in using. Of course, His Honor is at the head of this bad government, but it is a pleasure to assure you that he has

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nothing to do with the Council of Public Instruction. (Laughter.) The men composing the Government have worthy motives, yet are often subjected to caustic criticism, but the same men, when meeting at the Council of Public Instruction are most excellent men, who discharge their duties in a manner defying criticism. I have always regarded the question of education as too high, sacred, and holy, to be dragged in the mire of party bickering.

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I should like, in the presence of such a gathering, to occupy considerable time in dealing with various important educational matters, but when I look at the programme and see that you are to have fourteen speakers, and when I recognize that most of the speakers are unfamiliar to Halifax audiences, I feel I should draw my remarks to a close. I assure the members of the Dominion Educational Association in the name of the Government and of the people of Nova Scotia, we welcome them with the utmost cordiality, and trust that their deliberations may be most elevating and satisfactory, and that they may go back to the various parts of the Dominion feeling that the cause they represent has been strengthened and enobled as the result of their deliberations on this important occasion.

HIS GRACE, THE ARCHBISHOP OF HALIFAX.

Your Honour, Ladies and Gentlemen,—Our very efficient Supervisor of City Schools came upon me to-day and extorted a promise that I should appear upon this platform to-night. I had scarcely given the promise when I regretted it as I knew a request to say a few words would follow: not that it is distasteful to say words of welcome to any such distinguished body as the Dominion Educational Association, yet I felt that after His Honour had in his inimitable way addressed you, and after our witty Attorney-General had given his due meed of welcome nothing would remain for me to say. On reflection, however, it occurred to me to be an inexhaustible subject.

The very fact that the leading educationalists of the Dominion deem it advisable to meet from time to time and confer with one another as to methods of education is proof that they realize that as yet the height of perfection has not been attained, and that there is still room for improvement. Since, therefore, the men who have in hand the public instruction in the various Provinces of the

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Dominion feel that as yet they have not attained perfection, it will be pardonable in others to criticise, and sometimes differ from their methods. A word of welcome may, however, be given to all, and it is the profession itself we honour here, the old and noble profession of teaching. That profession began shortly after the birth of the first child, the father and mother becoming teachers. Public instruction is an old and noble profession and we should hold it in the highest esteem, and pay all due honour and respect to those engaged in teaching the rising generation. It is a position clothed with a part of the power and privileges of parents, the teacher holding for the time being the place of the parent. We know that no public office is made for the good of the individual. It is intended for the good of the whole community, and the public instructor should not use his position to propagate his own fads. He is to look only at the public good and to consider the circumstances of the community in which he has authority as the head of the public instruction of that community, and he must bear in mind, that what is good in one district may not be good in another. There cannot be a cast iron rule of public instruction, but it must be able to adapt itself to the needs of the various portions of the community. This, I take it, is one of the reasons why the Dominion Educational Association has been established that members of the teaching community, and the heads of public instruction of the various Provinces wish to learn from one another of the different conditions of life with which they have to deal, so as to adapt their methods to the needs of the people, because, I believe that the men having charge of the public instruction throughout Canada are animated with a desire to promote the best good of the community, and understand that a system not in accordance with the feelings and wishes of a certain part of the community cannot be productive of good. We have a great and wonderful inheritance in this Canada and an intelligent people, and what we require is unity. The securing of that unity is largely in the hands of the public educationalists of Canada who should see to it that they bring up future generations to be just in their dealing with one another and to respect the prejudices if you will of their neighbors. If I desire to bring my child up in a certain way I should respect the feelings of another man in that respect. Because I believe that the Dominion Educational

Association is truly desirous to work out a system of public instruction which will be beneficial to all, and just to all, I bid them a most hearty welcome here to-night, and I feel you will join in that welcome. In general throughout the Dominion a sense of good feeling prevails and nowhere to a greater degree than in Nova Scotia. I feel that this Association will labour to the end that this profession may be elevated and made what it should be, not only in regard to the training of the intellect, but also the training of the moral faculties.

HIS WORSHIP MAYOR STEPHEN OF HALIFAX.

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen,-I feel proud at having been called upon to take part in the welcoming of this great body of teachers and educationalists, not only so far as our Province is concerned, but more especially with reference to those who come from distant parts of our great Dominion. particularly representing the citizens of Halifax upon this occasion, I extend to you all a hearty and cordial welcome to this, "The Garrison City by the Sea," as it has been so beautifully called by our Tourist Association in the booklet recently issued by them. But we are much more than a garrison city, and while that fact makes us very attractive to many, more especially to the fair sex, we have many other advantages to offer, and I am pleased to notice that the Dominion Educational Association, realizing that fact, places us third on their list of great educational centres in our Dominion, and that here you should come on your third search for knowledge to gather from our rich storehouses. I am sure you have made no mistake, and will not go away disappointed. You did well in selecting Montreal for your first place of meeting, for it is not only a great commercial centre and most beautiful city in the Dominion, but it has in it McGill College, one of the best educational institutions on the continent.

In selecting Toronto for your second place of meeting, you could not do otherwise, for is it not the "Queen City of the West," and famed for its educational institutions which are unsurpassed in the Dominion. Now you have turned your eyes towards the east, and some one in his wisdom said "Go to Halifax," and you are here. Now I trust you will not find it such a bad place after all, and that it is quite a different place from the place indicated by

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this jocular reference to our good city. However, I trust that none of you will ever be curious enough to go to the other place for the purpose of testing the difference. But joking aside, what about Halifax as an educational centre? Well, we have Dalhousie College, an institution we can well be proud of. I could say much in its favor, but I notice its honored president, Rev. Dr. Forrest, is to follow me with an address. I am sure he will tell you all about it; but there is one thing he won't tell you, for he is a very modest man, and that is that the principal of Dalhousie College is a gentleman highly esteemed in our city as an educationalist of the highest order, and one who can hold his own with the best on the continent. We have our County Academy, equal, we think, to any in the Dominion, besides numerous public Schools well equipped. We have Mt. St. Vincent, the Ladies' College, and the Convent of the Sacred Heart, all institutions of a high order. We have an Art School, Conservatory of Music, School for the Blind, and the Deaf and Dumb Institution, as well as a number of institutions of a charitable and humane nature. We have our Provincial Museum, with its geological, zoological and botanical collections, our legislative library, rich in historical literature; our Provincial Building, with its valuable paintings in the legislative halls; our fortifications, prominent among which is the citadel, built by the father of our beloved Queen, our battleships, our parks, the public gardens, and I might go on for an hour telling you of the many things we have to offer as educators in a way; but I must stop. From what I have told you, then, of Halifax as an educational centre you make take your guarantee of the hearty welcome which, as the Chief Magistrate of the City, I extend to you. Our loyal city appreciates the efforts of those who are exercising such a widespread influence for good on the next generation of Canadians, and it is my earnest hope that the present convention may strengthen you all for your glorious work.

PRESIDENT FORREST.

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen,—I am sure that all of us in Halifax join in the cordial words of welcome we have heard to-night, for we are glad to see our friends the Dominion Educational Association. I have attended many meetings, religious and otherwise, but none of more import than the one being held to-

night. When I look at the vast audience, representing the ability of all the Provinces, I feel it is really the most important gathering

in the history of our Dominion.

I thank His Worship for the undeserved terms in which he has introduced me, terms of which I am unworthy; but I yield to no one in my cordial welcome to the city, of the Dominion Educational I am a teacher, and always have been one. I taught in every department of the public schools, from the kindergarten. There really was no kindergarten, but we had to teach the A B C in a different way, and I began at the bottom. We belong to one profession, whether working in the lower or higher departments, and we all have one aim. I remember the first educational gathering I was at. It was held in Windsor. The first meeting was a failure in some respects, but I feel that no meeting ever assembled for a good purpose can be entirely a failure. While it was small as regarded the audience, and weak as to the number of papers read, it was the beginning of a great work in our own Province. When we look over our Province we see the great strides we have made in the past thirty years. I remember when Sir William Dawson made his first tour through this Province as Superintendent of Education, and on that occasion he examined me in one of our country schools. I remember when his successor, Doctor Forrester, came around. When I look back to the work they had to do, and the imperfect character of the educational appliances, and see the progress made at the present day, I feel proud of the advance made in this Province. In the country town I allude to, is one of the finest educational institutions, a large academy, well equipped, with ten or twelve departments. We feel proud of the shipping, agricultural and mining industries of our Dominion, but when we look at the schools scattered over the Provinces, we feel that there, indeed, is the hope of the future of our Dominion,

I would like to speak at greater length, but I feel the force of the words of the Honorable Attorney General, and I hope to meet you all in the various departments in the meetings to be held during the next few days. As President of Dalhousie College, I welcome you to our own building back of the city. The only thing I fear, is that it is not large enough to hold you. If it were as big as our hearts, it would hold all of you. Fellow-teachers, in common with the gentlemen who have spoken before me, I welcome you to the City of Halifax.

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PROFESSOR RUSSELL, M. P.

Your Grace, Your Honor, Ladies and Gentlemen, -I am absolutely certain that my appearance is superfluous after the excellent addresses we have had, the felicitous opening remarks of His Excellency, the very witty and eloquent remarks of the Honorable Attorney General, whose face is always gladly welcomed in any assembly, after the weighty and pungent remarks of His Grace, and after the historic allusions of His Worship, it would be improper that I should occupy time with an address upon education: I would amply discharge my duty by echoing the hearty and sincere words of welcome uttered by all who have spoken, and notably by my reverend Head, the Principal of Dalhousie College. I could only have been asked to address you by reason of the fact that the worthy Secretary of the Dominion Educational Association and myself live on the other side of the water, and I think he desired that I should welcome you to the felicities that can be presented to you by the Town of Dartmouth. We are celebrating on Thursday our natal day. We have some festivities of an interesting character, and it will be in accord with the principles of a gathering like this, somewhat of a summer outing, that you should spare an hour or so to visit us and take in the celebration.

The Town of Dartmouth takes a prominent part in the affairs of the educational system of this country. We are the pioneers in the matter of education, as we had the first public kindergarten in the Province of Nova Scotia. Perhaps we have the only one, but, having learned in recent years to measure my words, I will not make an absolute statement. (Laughter.)

I know that matters of a trying, and somewhat tedious and technical character are to be considered. You have most accomplished specialists to deal with them, the spiritual sphere being occupied by the Honorable Attorney-General, who has made that a special study. I think, with such a full and ample programme, I will be excused, not only excused, but glorified, if I say little.

I claim to be a teacher, and have been such more or less all my life, in the family circle, in the public schools, and I am a teacher in the University. I may therefore be pardoned if I magnify my vocation. We have had other professions magnified and idealized. We have had the medical and legal professions extolled, and that

highest of professions, that of the statesman, for whom hardly anybody ever has a good word. But what about the teaching profession? Let me say that of all the professions, it alone is entitled to claim the practice of self-abnegation. I have in mind the instance of a revered preceptor who has trained up two generations of men who have distinguished themselves in all the walks of life, though he himself remains in comparative self-effacement. He might well say, as Simon DeMontfort said of Edward, "He learned it from me." How many a teacher all over this Province, is there, who has seen men distinguish themselves solely by virtue of what they have learned from him. I could mention a Professor in this city who has trained professional men, and who, looking on any of them at a time of success in some undertaking, might say, "He had before him the lectures I gave him at Dalhousie." When I mention the name of Doctor Weldon, you will appreciate what I say. In all the walks of life you have the blessedness of seeing the works of your hands. I am reminded of the words of Horace "I shall play the part of the flint, which makes the razor sharp, though it cannot itself cut." That would not be apposite, but we have seen the phenomenon of a person going forth from school bearing a sharp intellect, throwing lustre on his teacher and reaping all the honor, and all the laurels, while the teacher has remained in comparative obscurity, with perhaps little reward beyond the knowledge of having performed his duty to the community conscientiously. This is the only reflection I will indulge in to-night, however enticing the opportunity may be of expatiating upon subjects which present themselves to my mind. It will be an injustice to those who follow, if I occupy at greater length the kind attention you have given me.

MR. FAULKNER.

Your Honor, Your Grace, Ladies and Gentlemen,—As the Chairman of the Halifax School Board, I desire to extend a hearty welcome to the members of the Dominion Educational Association on their visit to our city, and in doing so Trust the Chairman will not suspect me of indulging in levity, when I say the presence here to-night of so many of the teaching profession, has conjured up before me certain harrowing experiences of my early days. (Laughter.)

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As far as our educational system is concerned, while not professing to know very accurately the details, but merely the main features of the educational systems of other Provinces, we have some excuse for satisfaction with our own. It is gratifying to know that we have had almost complete immunity from the difficulties and anxieties which beset this subject in other places.

An American friend, on one of his visits, said of the city, that he thought a good deal of the works of God, but of the works of men the least said the better. Perhaps you will think he made discriminating remarks, but as one of the Tourist Association, I trust your visit will be a pleasant one, and that the deliberations of the Association will be profitable to all.

DR. MACKAY.

Your Honor, Ladies and Gentlemen, As a citizen of Halifax, I join in according a most hearty welcome to the Dominion Educational Association, to the men who have come here from all parts of the Dominion. As a member of the Association, I thank the citizens of Halifax for the hearty reception given this evening, more especially for the splendid audience, a great portion of which must belong to Halifax. You are all invited to come back to-morrow night, when the proceedings will be, perhaps, more interesting than those of to-night.

I am sorry I have to apologize for the absence of certain persons who could not, at the last moment, be with us. Although we have to make an apology for them, you must not think our Association is not in every way a success. We started in Montreal in 1892. With all the prestige of that historic city, situate between the English and French Provinces, and with all its eclat, only four Provinces thought so much of the idea of the Dominion Educational Association as to come forward to pay the expense of publishing the report. When it was proposed to hold a meeting in the far eastern portion of the Dominion, some people thought it would be still more partially a Dominion Association. I must say, however, that for the first time, nearly every Province in the Dominion has contributed to our expenses, and the very first Province to send a cheque was British Columbia. I am sorry that the Superintendent of Education of that Province, on account of

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the Provincial Elections, is not able to be present with us. However, there are some representatives on the road, and we shall hear some to-night. From the centre of the prairie, Superintendent Goggin has come to us, and Regina has sent a cheque of \$100.00. Such a spirit augurs well for the future development of a united Canada. There is another point we should think of. We are apt to look sometimes to the luxuriant country to the south, sheltered from the Arctic blast. But that self-same Arctic breath is giving to our people a firmness of body and spirit to bear discomfort, and is bright with hope for the future energetic development of our great country.

I have here a letter from His Grace Archbishop Bruchesi, of Montreal, expressing his sincere thanks for the invitation to attend the meeting of the Association, and his regret at not being able to be present, as the date coincides with his reception of the Pallium. He trusts that our deliberations may be crowned with the success they deserve. I am sure we wish His Grace a very happy inauguration on the eighth.

One other apology I have to make, for the father of the Dominion Educational Association, Hon. Dr. Ross, Minister of Education of Ontario. He expected to be with us to the last, but more serious business, the opening of a new parliament, has detained him. In a letter expressing much regret at not being able to attend this convention, he says:—

"One of the questions which I intended to bring before the Association, was the selection of some day during the school year, to be specially devoted to the cultivation of feelings of loyalty and attachment to our country, and to the institutions under which we live.

In the month of May I corresponded with the Superintendents of the different Provinces, asking for suggestions in regard to the title of such a day, and the time which would best suit the convenience of the schools. I am glad to be able to say that my enquiries evinced the most cordial approval of the proposal, and all that remains now is for the Association to fix the time for observing such a day, and select a title.

Among the titles suggested were the following:—"Flag Day,"
"Britannia Day," "Patriotic Day," and "Empire Day." None
of these titles, except the last, seemed to me to be acceptable. I

h us. Howneed not discuss them in detail. In regard to the first, I might say, however, that it is the title of a patriotic day in the United we shall hear perintendent States, and although not on that ground objectionable, it is wanting in aptitude to our mode of thought and those notions of e of \$100.00. of a united patriotism and loyalty which I think we should cultivate. Passing We are apt over the others without comment, I desire to indicate my strong preference for "Empire Day" as the title by which a patriotic day th, sheltered for the schools of Canada should be known. ath is giving

- 1. 'Empire Day' suggests that larger British sentiment which I think now prevails throughout the Empire, and to which Canada has for many years contributed not a little. The proudest sentiment which the old Roman could express was, 'Civis Romanus sum.' The greatest sentiment as well as the most stirring, which we can put into the minds and hearts of our children, in my opinion, is 'Civis Britannicus sum;' and to give that sentiment its fullest force, we should broaden it so as to include the whole British Empire.
- 2. Whatever may be the destiny of Canada, and that is for posterity to say, rather than for us just now, I am convinced that, viewing the situation in the light of to-day, Canada's prosperity can with greater certainty be assured as a part of the British Empire, than in any other way. If circumstances require this opinion to be reversed as generations come and go (and no one can tell what the future has in store for any nation), then let our successors govern themselves accordingly. Let us be governed by the conditions with which we are confronted.

As to the time most convenient for the celebration of such a day, from suggestions received and from a careful consideration of the whole question, I would respectfully advise that the school day immediately preceding the 24th of May, be the day selected. This form of designating the day would overcome any difficulty that might arise when the 24th of May fell on Sunday or Monday. The 24th of May is a statutory holiday, and the schools are consequently closed. It is a day which all British subjects celebrate in a spirit of the deepest respect for Her Gracious Majesty, for her pre-eminence as 'mother, wife and Queen,' and of profoundest loyalty to their country, because of the privileges which as citizens they enjoy. If the school day immediately preceding the 24th of May is set apart as 'Empire Day,' the exercises which may be

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designed for the afternoon of that day, will have (at least during Her Majesty's reign) a depth of feeling which perhaps they might not have at any other season of the year, and even should the day be continued (and I think it properly might be), after Her Majesty's demise, for this and the next generation or two, the recollection of her illustrious reign will by reflection, still quicken the pulse of the many hundreds of thousands of school children, as they remember the greatness of the empire over which she reigned so long. The day preceding the 24th of May has other advantages. As a rule, the season of the year is particularly favorable, either for indoor or outdoor exercises. The ratepayers are less occupied in their varied pursuits than at any other season of the year; larger gatherings could be obtained at the various school houses than at any other season in the year; besides, our annual examinations are a month or six weeks later, and the attention devoted to the exercises peculiar to this day would disturb the work of the school less than at any other season of the year.1

I need not urge upon the Dominion Teachers' Association the desirability of taking action in this matter. The Association speaks for the whole Dominion. I think the voice of the people is in favor of a higher, a purer, and a less selfish patriotism than perhaps we possess now, and nowhere can better motives be planted for an ideal national life, than in the school room. There can be no future for Canada worthy of the traditions of the lands from which she has been stocked, or worthy of the opportunities for nationhood which now seem to be thrust upon her, unless we gird up our loins and with a resolute and studied purpose, endeavor to develop a national spirit. We are a young community, our educational advantages should make our patriotism broad and sympathetic. It is therefore in no narrow spirit, nor with a desire to exalt ourselves above our neighbors, nor to intrude upon the public in a blustering, arrogant manner, our love of country, that we should approach this subject or celebrate such a day, should that be agreed upon. Canadian patriotism should be comprehensive, respectful, intelligent, and at the same time intense. Our history, our institutions, and our future possibilities, warrant us in taking this ground, and the teachers of Canada have the culture and the mental and moral qualifications by which the brightest type of the purest and most unselfish patriotism can be cultivat wo

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This question I have fully discussed with the Minister o Education for Ontario, so that I am able to utter and support his sentiments as my own; and to expedite business I here propose to have it referred to the committee on resolutions. At our Montreal convention our Association led the provinces to the adoption of a common view of Canadian History. The Halifax convention, I trust, may among other things, lead the provinces into common action in developing in our schools more intelligent patriotism embracing the Empire—the whole Empire—in its scope.

We have seated on this platform, the Honorable Superintendent of Education of Quebec, who will speak to us in our own English tongue, although but few, if any, of us can reciprocate in his elegant French. We have also with us a representative of the State of Maine, and I can assure you that when you hear him to-night, you will feel that in the neighboring Republic there are men who can be classed with the noblest and best-loved Britons. A great change has taken place lately, and we have been hearing more about the Anglo-Saxon races and Anglo-Saxon union, while perhaps the English race is composed of not more than one-fourth Anglo-Saxon, the remainder being of Celtic and other origin. I would like to change the term to Brit-American, for that would include all the English-speaking races. When you hear Mr. Stetson you will be ready to acknowledge him as one of the best Brit-Americans, and a worthy representative of the Republic whose people have so many of the best characteristics of the races from which they have sprung. I now introduce to you the Hon. Boucher De LaBruère, of Quebec, a name long distinguished in the history of Canada.

Hon. Dr. Boucher De Labrubre, Superintendent of Public Instruction for Quebec, spoke in English briefly, but fluently and eloquently. He referred to the close bond of union existing between Quebec and the rest of the Dominion, and to the friendly feeling and harmony which had sprung up between the various Provinces. Quebec had done her share in supplying public men of ability who were loyal and devoted to their common country. He believed that a happy future was in store for the Dominion.

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He thanked the citizens of Halifax for their enthusiastic welcome, and regretted that the teachers of Quebec, owing to the shortness of their purses and the length of the railroads, could not be present to enjoy the warm reception proffered to their fellow-teachers in the Maritime Provinces.

D. J. GOGGIN, M. A., SUPT. OF EDUC., N. W. T.

Your Honor, Your Grace, Ladies and Gentlemen,—On behalf of the great West, I accept the expressions of cordial good-will with which you have greeted us. We have looked forward with a great deal of interest to this occasion. We felt that we should be broadened by meeting with the men of the East, and that our zeal would be increased by the addresses we should hear.

I know something of your lengthened struggle in this country or responsible government and a free school system. The names of Howe, McNab, and Uniacke, are very well known in my town, -their failures and successes. We have been encouraged and fortified by them. We have a system which affords free education for every child, without regard to creed or nationality. We have provision made for religious instruction. We have an educational grant equal to seventy per cent. of the teacher's salary: I am sent to learn the latest and best things, and see that they are put into our schools, for the best you have is none too good for the child out there. We in the West believe in our great future, and we pin our faith to our sons rather than to our acres, to the intelligence of our citizens rather than to our broad and fruitful lands. and when the teachers of the Dominion meet together, we feel it our duty to be here with you in order to profit by the interchange I believe that, as the political union of the Provinces brought about unity of aim, so this meeting together of the educationists of the Dominion, will bring about a broader conception of the work of the school.

In our programme we deal with all features of our work, but I begin to fear that we shall not accomplish all we came here for. Some of us have had kindness showered upon us that has made us doubtful, and when Dartmouth sends to us an invitation, and when the Chairman of the School Board suggests some of the good things he has in store, I begin to fear for the weakness of the tempted. We came to do work, and we are willing to have enjoy-

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here for. has made ation, and me of the ness of the ment if we can make the two things coalesce. You come to our meetings, and we shall join you in the other way. One of our delegates was quoting to himself "I have been there, and still would go: 'tis like a little heaven below."

DR. MACCABE, PRINCIPAL OTTAWA NORMAL SCHOOL.

Your Honor, Your Grace, Ladies and Gentlemen,—I wish to express my sincere regret, which I know is shared by this vast audience, at the absence of Hon. George W. Ross. The pleasant duty, in his absence, devolves upon me, on behalf of the Province of Ontario and its teachers, of thanking the citizens of Halifax for the very cordial welcome given us this evening.

When we look at the vast audience, it is especially pleasing to see so many citizens present, which is a compliment to the Dominion Association, and shows the great interest taken in its work. A United Canada can only be obtained by educating the people, and I assure you that the Association will do its best to see that its teachers will make an educated Canada and a united Canada.

DR. INCH, CHIEF SUPERINTENDENT OF EDUCATION, ONTARIO.

Your Honor, Your Grace, Ladies and Gentlemen, -As a representative of the Province of New Brunswick at this meeting, I find myself in doubt as to which of two roles I may most fitly assume —that of the visitor accepting joyfully the cordial welcome of the host and his family, or that of a member of the family extending a hearty greeting to the cherished friends who come to visit us from abroad. These three Provinces facing the Atlantic Ocean are one in a sense which cannot apply to any other group of Provinces of the Dominion. Geographically, historically, traditionally, in sentiment we are very intimately connected, and though we have our little rivalries, and taunt each other occasionally as to the relative merits of our respective towns—of the amount of fog or ice in the Bay of Fundy or in Chebucto's famous harbor -yet after all, these are only little family jars, which show our kinship to the race and help to intensify the family attachment. Many of us think that a political union of the Atlantic Provinces would be of advantage, not only to ourselves, but to the Dominion at large, and have some regrets that the historic meeting of statesmen held at Charlottetown in 1864 had not completed their

purpose of effecting a maritime union, before the memorable capture of the convention by the steamer Victoria and its distinguished crew of Upper Province fathers of confederation. But who could withstand the persuasive eloquence of such men as Brown, Macdonald, and Cartier, Galt, McDougall and McGec. And what imagination could fail to be kindled into enthusiasm by the brilliant dream of a united Canada from Atlantic to Pacific-a dream more than realized at this day. For this auspicious gathering of educators assembled from every part of the continent, tells the story of the glorious success of that bold attempt to blend into one great nationality not only the scattered peoples who then inhabited the land, but to make provision for the incorporation of provinces and peoples yet to be. And now this evening we of the Maritime Provinces rejoice in the opportunity of welcoming to the shores of the Atlantic our educational co-workers from the heights of Ouebec, the banks of the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes. from the prairies and the mountains, from the boundless territories of the North-west, and the golden shores of the Pacific, We welcome you, not only as representatives of the several Provinces and Territories, but as brother Canadians engaged in the common effort of making Canada and the Canadian people worthy to take a front rank among the nations of the earth. In our welcome to our brethren from the Provinces west of our own, we might rudely paraphrase Tennyson's welcome to the Princess Alexandra, by saying, "Nova Scotians, New Brunswickers, Prince Edward Islanders, English or Acadian or whatever we be, we are each. all, Canadian, in our welcome of you."

I am sure, also, that whether from the east or from the west, we are delighted to have our neighbors from the south fraternizing with us at this convention. Those of us who have attended sessions of the National Educational Association of the United States, have brought away with us the most pleasant memories of the cordiality with which we were admitted to the sympathy and friendship of that mighty brotherhood of teachers, and we now esteem ourselves happy to have the opportunity of reciprocating the courtesies then extended to us. I have long cherished the belief that Canada would prove to be a link, binding together, in perpetual friendship, the two great English-speaking peoples in America and Great Britain—thus assuring the peace of the world and the pro-

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gress of humanity. Such a consummation is worthy of the effort of every intelligent, God-fearing citizen of both countries, and the teachers must necessarily be leaders in an organized effort to promote such an end. I pray God that the deliberations of the coming Quebec conference may remove every ground of friction between Canada and the United States, and that the growing sympathy and affection between the old land and the new (now so happily manifest) may speedily remove every root of bitterness which the mistakes and misunderstandings of the past have planted in the heart of either nation. He is not a patriot, but a pestilent enemy to his own country, who cherishes and cultivates these malignant seeds of discord.

It may be expected that I shall occupy a few minutes in referring to our work in New Brunswick. Following the example of the other Provinces, we are trying to adopt every improved method of instruction, and to extend the blessing of at least a common school education to every child in the Province. There is now scarcely a settlement of half a dozen families in the most remote and secluded parts of the Province, that is without its public school and its licensed teacher. The schools are in operation for a much greater number of days in the year than formerly, and the regularity of attendance is improving. Of recent years there have been great improvements made in school buildings and equipments, especially in the cities, towns, and larger rural districts. But the greatest efforts are being directed to providing teachers of higher qualifications than formerly. The extension of the work in New Brunswick, as elsewhere, has proportionately increased the expenditure. From a revenue of about \$750,000, the Province contributes directly for educational purposes, nearly \$200,000-more than onequarter of the whole revenue, and about one-third of the total cost. We have about 1,800 teachers employed, and about 65,000 children at school,-about one-fifth of the whole population. But while there are good grounds for satisfaction with the progress that has been made, in comparison with the condition of things ten or twenty years ago, we are yet cognizant of many defects to be supplied, and some evils to be remedied. Our people are somewhat conservative in regard to what has been designated as "the new education," and are slow to make new departures. We have as yet no compulsory attendance laws upon our statute book; we

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have no technical or manual training departments, or schools for cooking, in connection with our public system. A more serious lack than any of these is the fact that no public provision has been made for the establishing of kindergartens, or the training of our teachers in kindergarten methods. I have no doubt that when the experience of others has proved to a demonstration the usefulness and effectiveness of any or all of these measures, we shall be found adopting them; but we hesitate to make experiments outside the line of established usage.

I look forward with pleasing anticipations to the papers and discussions of this Association, especially to those which will deal with the topics to which I have referred. The interchange of views on subjects in regard to which educational authorities may differ, or in regard to which some may have had practical experience which others may not have had, such experience cannot fail to give an impetus to our educational movements in every Province represented here. The spirit of the occasion is a spirit of enquiry. We approach the subjects with an open mind. We enter upon discussions, not so much to establish the views we may have hitherto held, as to reach correct conclusions. We are seeking for the best in every department, the best in method, the best in practice, and the best for our country and our people. Whoever of all associated at this convention can best guide us into the best, will find cheerful followers.

Let me say further, Mr. Chairman, that we are happy in the place chosen for our Convention. As I am not a resident of this city, I may say what my friend the Superintendent of Nova Scotia might hesitate to say, that no more desirable place could have been chosen. I am not unmindful of the greatness, the wealth, the magnificent buildings, and the scenic beauty of the cities of Montreal and Toronto, where the former sessions of this Association were held. Neither do I forget the delightful social attentions extended to the members of the Association; but after all there is something unique about this historic old town, with its world-renowned citadel and military fortifications, -its commanding position overlooking the sounding sea-its beautiful gardens and its stirring memories of a century and a half since the ships of Cornwallis first divided the sparkling waters of Chebucto Bay. And then the invigorating atmosphere, charged with ozone, makes

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respiration a delight to those who have been oppressed with the high temperature of the inland towns.

D. J. McLeod, Eso., Chief Supt. of Education, P. E. Island.

Your Honor, Your Grace, Ladies and Gentlemen, -- I regret that owing to the lateness of my arrival, I did not have the pleasure of hearing the addresses of His Honor and His Grace. I listened with pleasure to that of His Worship the Mayor, and speaking as representative of the Garden of America, I thank these speakers for the very warm greeting we have received. I consider it a great honor to be present here to-night and to meet His Honor the Lieutenant-Governor of Nova Scotia and His Grace the Archbishop, who, I am very happy to say, is a native of my own Province. I believe that His Grace and myself were born in the very same township. I have reason to be proud that when his church sought a man to fill the position he holds, she went to Prince Edward Island. You will pardon me for this selfish reference to my Province. At this late hour it would be unfair to make any extended remarks with regard to the great subject of education. I will merely say that many in this audience know well what our Island boys can do when they are placed in competition with the boys of other Provinces. I wish to thank you again for your cordial greeting and welcome.

Hon. W. W. Stetson, Chief Superintendent of Education for the State of Maine.

Your Honor, Your Grace, Ladies and Gentlemen,— I am reminded of an old minister in Maine, who, a great many years ago, used to preach two hours in the forenoon and supplement it with three hours in the evening. On one occasion, some one asked him if he was not tired. "No," he said, "but it would have done your soul good to have seen the audience." (Laughter.) My friend, the Chairman of the School Committee of Halifax, spoke of his friend, an "American." I want to enquire what his own nationality is if he is not an American. I was a little bit surprised to find that the noses of the people here were of a natural hue. (Laughter.) I may say that I am enough of an Englishman and Canadian to sing God Save the Queen, and I call upon you to rise and sing it with a will. (Applause—audience rose and sang God Save the Queen.)

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I feel somewhat like the young man with a peculiar cast of countenance who used to sell tickets at one of our way stations, and furnish all information desired. One day a lady accompanied by a little boy, called at the window and enquired when the next train would leave for home. The obliging clerk told her. After a little while she came back and asked the same question; then for a third time she came back and received the same information. "Now,-madam," said the clerk, "I have told you three times when your train goes, and I hope you will remember it." "Oh," she said, "I know when the train goes, but my little boy likes to see your mouth go." (Laughter.) I suppose that is why I am here, perhaps it was imagined that somebody would like to see my mouth go.

I want to say that this meeting carries out one of my old theories. When you stand upon this platform and see so many faces of a certain kind, you cannot resist forming the conclusion that somehow the coming man is to be a woman. It is not going to come while the present men are upon the earth, because they are not going to yield their positions.

I imagine that a large proportion of those in the hall represent the city. We should not, however, forget the villages, the country lanes, the old red schoolhouse, that home on the hillside from which has come our best blood, our strongest brain. Let me say that these are the great reservoirs which are to keep strong, and clean, and pure, the cities of the future. It is true that the pioneers of the past were strong, hardy, rugged, noble people, but I want to say, and you want to study the question, that you never find strong people among the luxurious people of an old country. In the early days men cut down trees, built homes and sent hardy boys and girls into the world, but we are an old country, we have lived at such a tremendous pace during the last fifty years that we have distanced by a thousand years all the rest of the world. If you wish to counteract this you can no longer afford to be indifferent to the rural sections. Why, start through this audience, and wherever you find a strong man, wherever you find a robust woman, in nine cases out of ten you find a man and woman born, bred, trained and schooled in the country.

We have spread ourselves over too large an area in the common schools. We are trying to do too many things. We have

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to go back to the days of our fathers. We have to know some things and know them thoroughly. We see our children struggling with Philosophy and kindred subjects. These things are all right, but there are some things which the child needs to know. He needs to know a printed page so that he can draw the juice out of it. He needs to know something of the splendor of the English language. He needs to be able to write in such a way that it would not be more difficult to decipher his handwriting than that of Horace Greeley, and he needs to add a column of figures in such a way that he can get within a mile of what the result ought to be. We need less units in our course of study. We need to master the elements. No great reform is to come into our education until the men having charge of affairs in this country have an intelligent sympathy with public schools. What do you know about them? How many times has the teacher of your children in the school sat at your board? I could not help thinking while the Hon. Attorney-General was saying pretty things to the school marms, how many had graced his board. I would not care to have him testify, because he might spoil my illustration. (Laughter.)

I do not have to go home until 3.15 to-morrow, but I am not going to talk until then. I am glad to have come to Halifax. I have enjoyed going through its streets, visiting its great University. I have enjoyed most of all coming here to-night, looking upon this audience, seeing their interesting and intelligent faces. I have faith to believe that the future holds something better than the past. I believe we are going to awaken to a sense of the responsibility that rests upon our shoulders, that we are going to understand that we have something to do and do it.

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SECOND GENERAL MEETING.

AUGUST 3rd, 8 P. M.

THE CATHOLIC SCHOOLS OF THE PROVINCE OF QUEBEC, THEIR HISTORY AND ORGANIZATION.

BY THE HON. P. BOUCHER DE LABRUÈRE, D. C. L.

[Superintendent of Public Instruction, Quebec.]

There are few more interesting subjects than the history of the labors of those intrepid navigators who first settled on the banks of the St. Lawrence.

Though discovered in 1534, by Jacques Cartier, no successful attempts at colonizing New France was made previous to the opening of the seventeenth century.

As soon as the foundations of a permanent settlement were laid, the authorities at Quebec with the approval of the French government, endeavored by every possible means to promote the civilization of the Indians and the cultivation of the soil, and the intellectual development of the inhabitants.

The Educational History of the Province may be divided into two principal periods; the French regime, from the foundation of Quebec to the Treaty of Paris, 1763; the English regime, from the Treaty of Paris to the present time.

From an educational point of view the French regime in Canada affords to the studious much interesting material for thought, for in those days now long gone by, when civilization was in conflict with barbarism, the efforts which were made towards the founding of the first houses of education in Montreal and Quebec were such as to excite our keenest admiration. It may flatter our pride as Canadians to recollect that the first Classical College founded in America was founded in 1636, one year before the legislature of Massachusetts had decided upon the establishment of Harvard.

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However instructive might be the history of public instruction in the Province of Quebec from the time of Champlain to our own day, it is my intention, nevertheless, to confine these remarks to our own present Catholic school system and to make them as concise as possible. Thus, I trust, shall I better fulfil the practical aims of this convention. I ask in advance your indulgence while I use a language that is not my mother tongue.

The distinguishing characteristic of our school law is the absolute liberty enjoyed by each of the two religious denominations of controlling its own schools, in keeping with the wishes of the parents of the pupils in such a manner that Catholics, in municipalities where they form the majority, cannot interfere with the rights of Protestants, and vice versa. In this respect, of all the school laws in the Dominion, ours may be considered as the most perfect and best adapted to maintain religious harmony.

It must not be forgotten that there is but one school law for the Province, that all schools, Protestant as well as Catholic, are organized under this law. I do not make this remark for you, gentlemen, but for the information of those persons who, not having specially studied the organization of our schools, are under the strange impression that the school law is not the same for all in the Province of Quebec.

At the head of our Educational System is the Council, composed of the Catholic Bishops and of an equal number of Catholic laymen, and an equal number of Protestants.

The Council is divided into two committees, the one consisting of the Catholic and the other of the Protestant members. This Council was first formed in 1859, and was composed of eleven Catholics and four Protestants. It existed until 1875, when the DeBoucherville administration modified its constitution by dividing it into two separate and independent committees, one Catholic, the other Protestant. This change was made in order to remove any possible cause of friction between the two religious denominations, by giving to the Protestants, who form the minority, the most complete control over their own schools. In presenting this law, M. de Boucherville proved himself a statesman of liberal and enlightened views; under its provisions, as well as previous to its passage, the Protestant minority have been treated, not only with

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justice, but with generosity, and no government has ever considered, much less proposed, a method to curtail in any manner the privileges guaranteed them by the constitution. This law is a monument of religious toleration, of which the Province of Quebec is justly proud.

Each committee, Catholic and Protestant, has its meetings separate, and it may fix the period and number thereof. It establishes its quorum, and appoints a chairman and a secretary.

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Everything within the scope of the functions of the Council of Public Instruction, which specially concerns the schools of Catholics, is within the exclusive jurisdiction of the Catholic Committee. In the same manner, everything which specially concerns the public instruction of Protestants, is within the exclusive jurisdiction of the Protestant Committee.

The two Committees have made regulations which are almost identical.

These regulations concern public schools, courses of study, Normal School, the examination of candidates for the position of inspector, the examination of candidates for teachers' certificates, instruction, school houses, school furniture, the choice of text books, etc.

THE SUPERINTENDENT.

There is a Superintendent of Public Instruction, named by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council. He is chairman of the Council. He is also a member of each of the Committees, but he has a right to vote only in the Committee of the religious faith to which he belong.

The Superintendent has charge of the Department of Public Instruction, and in the exercise of his functions is bound to comply with he directions of the Council of Public Instruction, or with those of the Catholic or Protestant Committee, as the case may be.

The Superintendent draws up annually a detailed statement of the sums required for public instruction, and submits it to the Government; he lays before the Legislature a report containing a statement of what has been done with the amounts voted for education; an account of the actual state of education in the Province; statistics and information respecting educational institutions, and in general respecting all subjects connected with literary and intellectual progress.

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THE SCHOOLS.

The public schools are divided into elementary schools, model schools, and academies. Some of the public schools are said to be "under control," the others are said to be "subsidized." "Schools under control" are those in which the teachers are engaged and paid by the school commissioners or trustees. "Subsidized schools" are those not under control, which receive a grant from the Government or from school commissioners or trustees.

In order to interest the people more deeply in the schools, and to give more unity and strength to the system, the legislature has grafted it on to the parish organization, thus incorporating such parish three times, (a) for church affairs, (b) for municipal affairs, (c) for school affairs. Generally speaking, therefore, each parish is incorporated as a school municipality and has one or more schools controlled by school commissioners, or by trustees in municipalities where dissentient schools are established. School municipalities are erected at the request of the interested parties, by an order of the Lieutenant-Governor in Council.

The school commissioners and trustees in each municipality form separate corporations, but any powers conferred, or any duties imposed on school commissioners, apply also to school trustees.

Boards of school commissioners are composed of five members, and boards of trustees for dissentient schools of three. They are elected for three years by the proprietors of real estate paying taxes or monthly fees. The formalities required for the election of commissioners and trustees are somewhat similar to those required for the election of municipal councillors.

All voters resident in the school municipality and the clergymen of all religious denominations ministering in it, are eligible as commissioners or trustees.

Any election of school commissioner or trustee may be contested on the ground of violence, corruption or fraud.

For the municipalities in which no election of school commissioners or trustees has taken place within the time prescribed, the Lieutenant-Governor may, upon the recommendation of the Superintendent, appoint commissioners or trustees. The duties of school commissioners and trustees are numerous and important; they engage and dismiss teachers; see that the courses of study approved by the Committees of the Council are followed; make regulations for the government of their schools; fix the time of the annual public examinations; oblige the Secretary-Treasurer to keep his accounts and register according to instructions received from the Superintendent; hear and decide disputes between the parents, or children and teachers; require that no other books be used in their schools than those authorized by the Council of Public Instruction or either of the Committees. However, the Cure or priest administering a Catholic Church has the exclusive right of selecting the books having reference to religion and morals for the use of pupils of his religious faith, the Protestant Committee having similar powers respecting Protestant pupils.

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Furthermore, the school commissioners do whatever may be expedient with regard to the buildings; repairing, renewing, or renting, if needs be, of school houses; have the responsibility of seeing that the school furniture is kept in repair or renewed; cause to be levied the taxes deemed necessary for the support of the schools under their control; may divide the municipality into school districts, may change the limit of these districts; may establish girls' schools distinct from boys'; shall cause an annual census of the children in the school municipality to be made, giving the age of the children and the number of children actually attending school; shall in each year make two reports of their proceedings to the Superintendent.

All decisions of school commissioners are entered in the minute book of the board, and in certain specified cases ratepayers who are interested, may appeal to the Superintendent from such decisions.

The Superintendent may summon all parties to appear before him, or he may delegate his powers to a school inspector or to any other person whom he may choose, who then acts in his name and reports to him. The decision of the Superintendent is final, but he may from time to time repeal or modify it according to circumstances.

The principal cases in which an appeal to the Superintendent is allowed, are: concerning school sites; the limits of school districts; the construction and repairing of school houses.

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SCHOOL INSPECTORS.

The Inspectors of Catholic Schools are appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council, on the recommendation of the Catholic Committee of the Council of Public Instruction.

The duties of these School Inspectors are to visit the different schools of their districts of inspection, to examine the pupils, to inspect the accounts of the Secretary-Treasurer of each municipality, and to ascertain whether the provisions of the laws and regulations respecting public instruction are carried out.

No person is eligible for the position of School Inspector unless he has attained the age of twenty-five years, has obtained a diploma authorizing him to teach, has successfully taught school during at least five years, has passed successfully an examination upon his fitness and ability to fulfil the duties of the office.

The Inspectors are obliged to make full and exact reports to the Superintendent on the state of the schools visited. In the autumn, each School Inspector visits the different school municipalities of his district, and in the most central part of each municipality he delivers during two days, a series of lectures on the art of teaching. In the spring, he pays his annual visit of inspection to each school of his district of inspection, examines the pupils in the different subjects of the course of study, and forms an opinion of the value of the methods of teaching followed by the teacher.

BOARDS OF EXAMINERS.

There is a central Board of Examiners for the examination of candidates for teachers' diplomas. The diplomas granted by this Board are of three grades: Elementary, Model School, and Academic. It is composed of ten members, appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council, upon the recommendation of the Catholic Committee.

The examination is held in July of each year, at the places prescribed by the Central Board.

It is the duty of the Central Board to prepare the examination questions in the different subjects prescribed; to appoint deputy-examiners under whose charge the examination at the local centres will take place; and to send the examination questions to the different deputy-examiners.

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erintendent school disAt the close of the examination, the candidates' answers are forwarded to the Central Board; they are read and valued by the members, and diplomas granted to those who obtain the number of marks prescribed by the regulations.

This Central Board, and the Catholic Normal Schools, alone have power to grant diplomas valid for Catholic Schools.

DISSENTIENT SCHOOLS.

The laws on Public Instruction for the Province of Quebec provide ample protection for the minority, and appear to be the surest guarantee of the maintenance of harmony between citizens holding different religious views. The clauses concerning dissentient schools are a convincing proof of this fact. In the school law a wise principle is embodied by which persons who cannot agree while living together, may separate and live apart.

This principle is the basis of the following article of the law:

If in any municipality, the regulations and arrangements made by the School Commissioners for the management of any school are not agreeable to any number whatever of the proprietors, occupants, tenants, or ratepayers, professing a religious faith different from that of the majority of the inhabitants of such municipality, they may signify such dissent in writing, to the chairman of the Commissioners."

They then organize themselves into a separate corporation and elect a Board of School Trustees.

Thus, if in a school municipality the Catholics are the majority, the Protestants, by simply giving notice of dissent, may organize into a separate corporation; on the other hand, if the Protestants be the majority, the Catholics may dissent in the same manner; therefore, whether the minority be composed of Catholics or of Protestants, they may, if they so desire, have separate schools.

The notice of dissent is made and signed in triplicate, and is addressed to whom it concerns before the first of May. The election of trustees is held during the month of July following.

If in any municipality the ratepayers belonging to the religious denomination of the dissentients become the majority, they can give written notice of their intention to organize themselves under School Commissioners. In this case, the former majority become the minority, and they may in turn give notice of dissent and elect school trustees.

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Dissentients are not liable for any school rates which may be imposed by the School Commissioners, except for the payment of debts incurred previous to the date of dissent. School rates paid by Catholic ratepayers are expended on Catholic schools; those paid by Protestants are expended on Protestant schools.

Any person belonging to the religious minority may at any time become a dissentient, and any dissentient may, in like manner, declare his intention of ceasing to be a dissentient.

The minority in a school municipality may unite in supporting a dissentient school, situated at any point in the municipality.

If there is no dissentient school in a municipality, and anyone belonging to the religious minority, having children of school age, may dissent, and support a school in an adjoining municipality.

Normal Schools.

The most important subject of study at the Catholic Normal Schools, is Pedagogy. The course of study also comprises the following subjects: religious instruction, reading, elocution, grammar (French and English), composition, elements of mental and moral philosophy, universal history, geography, arithmetic, bookkeeping, algebra, elements of geometry, mensuration, physics, chemistry, natural history, agriculture, drawing, music, military drill etc.

The diplomas are of three grades: Elementary, Model School, and Academic.

There is a bursary fund for teachers-in-training.

There are two Practice Schools in connection with each Normal School, one for boys, the other for girls, in which the teachers-in-training learn the art of teaching under the immediate surveillance of teachers in the boys' department, and of nuns in the girls' department, and under the direction of the Principal in both departments.

Courses of Study.

Two courses of study have been authorized by the Catholic Committee: one specific, the subjects in which candidates for teachers' diplomas must pass; the other enumerates the various subjects taught in the different grades of public schools.

These courses of study have been carefully prepared, and all based on the programme of studies followed in France and in some other countries.

Religious instruction holds the first place in the course, and it is given in all the schools.

We give below the subjects in which it is necessary to pass, to obtain each grade of diploma:

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For the Elementary Diploma:—Reading, grammar, dictation, writing, composition, sacred history, history of Canada, geography, arithmetic, mental arithmetic, bookkeeping, pedagogy, agriculture, school law, hygiene, manners, and drawing.

For the Model Diploma:—In addition to the foregoing: Literature, history of France, history of England, algebra, geometry.

For the Academy Diploma:—In addition to the foregoing: Latin (optional), history of the United States, general history, cosmography, trigonometry, physics, chemistry, natural history, and philosophy.

A candidate who presents himself for a diploma authorizing him to teach in both languages, must pass in French and in English in the following subjects:—Grammar, dictation, literature, composition; he must, moreover, pass in translating French into English, and vice versa.

The Course of Studies for public schools is spread over eight years. The first four years form the Elementary course, the fifth and sixth years form the Model School Course, and the last two years the Academic Course.

The subjects taught in the Elementary Course are:—Religious instruction, French and English, writing, arithmetic, geography, history, drawing, and useful knowledge.

The subjects taught in the Model School Course are the same as in the elementary course, and in addition, expressive reading, recitation, bookkeeping, commercial correspondence, map drawing, and object lessons.

The Academic Course contains, in addition to the foregoing: The large catechism, the history of the Catholic Church, literature, elocution, history of France, history of England, history of the United States, political economy, (in boys' schools), and domestic economy, (in girls' schools), as well as knitting, sewing and embroidery.

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CONCLUSION.

We have briefly given the outlines of the Catholic School System of the Province of Quebec. The first development of this system dates from 1848. After the Act of the Union of the two Canadas, Dr. Meilleur was named Súperintendent of Education. In the exercise of his difficult functions he displayed that energy and patriotism for which he was remarkable. At the very beginning of his career he had to surmount obstacle after obstacle, but he received the support of the clergy, and of the majority of the educated classes.

School municipalities were organized; schools were opened in many localities, and the seed soon bore good fruit. When, in 1854, after thirteen years of unremitting labor, Dr. Meilleur resigned, considerable progress had been made. The number of educational establishments of all kinds was 2,705, and the number of pupils attending them, 119,737. The second Superintendent was the Honorable P. J. O. Chauveau. A man of brilliant talents, his nomination produced a marked effect on the people.

Following the suggestions which had been made in 1853 by a committee of the Legislative Assembly, presided over by the Honorable L. V. Sicotte, he introduced many reforms into our school system. Among these, we may mention the foundation of our present Provincial Normal Schools; the increase of school inspectors' salaries; school inspectors to be chosen from among teachers; the publishing of the *Journal of Education*, and of *Journal de l' Instruction Publique*, etc.

In 1867, the Honorable Mr. Chauveau became Premier of the Province of Quebec, but he did not immediately abandon the control of the Department of Public Instruction.

In 1875, the Honorable G. Ouimet, who had succeeded the Honrable P. Chauveau as Premier, became in his turn Superintendent of Public Instruction, a position which he occupied with honor to himself and advantage to the Province, for twenty years. During these twenty years, education made good progress.

In 1895, the Honorable G. Ouimet resigned, and the author of the present sketch was appointed Superintendent.

The progress of public instruction and the increase in the number of schools during the past fifty years, have been eminently satisfactory.

The clergy have contributed in a great measure to achieve this result.

The Province can boast of seventeen colleges founded and maintained by the clergy. The standard in institutions of secondary and superior education is high; many of the Professors have studied in European Universities, and the courses given in our institutions, we are convinced, are not inferior to any other courses given in the Dominion.

The teaching orders of women having model schools and academies under their control have multiplied, and they impart to their pupils an education both solid and brilliant.

These devoted women not only teach their pupils the different subjects of the course of studies, but they refine their manners, and

inspire them with noble thoughts.

In these convents manual training is not neglected. The statistics of 1896, show that in the model schools and academies directed by Orders of Teaching, out of a total attendance of 37,337 children, 13,107 studied domestic economy, 16,772 learned knitting, and 12,704 learned sewing and embroidery.

The education of girls is certainly one of the serious questions of the day, and parents in confiding their daughters to the Religious Orders of Teaching Women, will know that while their intelligence will not suffer in the hands of these devoted and skilful teachers, their characters will be formed by the practice of every Christian virtue.

There are also Religious Orders of Men Teachers, whose establishments are increasing in number and importance from year to year.

Since some years they have founded several Commercial Colleges, which are favorably known to the business world. These Colleges are placed under the head of Academies in the Superintendent's report.

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At Confederation the total number of children attending school was 212,839. In 1897, the number had risen to 307,280.

The total number of Catholic Schools, including under this head Colleges and Universities, is 5848.

The average attendance of pupils enrolled in the Elementary Schools is seventy per cent., and of pupils enrolled in Model Schools and Academies, is eighty-three per cent.

Parents ardently desire to have their children educated, and we are convinced that the school population has entered on an era of intellectual progress which will keep pace with the material development of the Province.

THE SPIRITUAL ELEMENT IN EDUCATION.

By the Hon. Dr. Longley,

[Attorney-General of Nova Scotia.]

It is with extreme diffidence that I venture, in the presence of a gathering of professional educationists, to say anything upon any phase, and most of all upon that branch which is considered least, and forms such a comparatively small element in the general consideration of the subject at educational conventions, and in the actual routine of educational work.

A remark was once made by the Archbishop of Halifax, in addressing a teachers' convention some years ago—that if he were called upon to characterize the present age in brief, he would pronounce it a self-satisfied age. We have made certainly great progress in educational matters in certain directions, and, as the system develops, we are prone to look upon it as a wonderful thing, and to believe that we stand ahead of previous ages. But we may all safely accept the judgment that the period has not yet been reached when earnest examination of our educational system and methods shall not be made, and an honest effort put forth to discover our faults, deficiencies and weaknesses.

It may seem paradoxical, but if I should venture to offer a criticism in regard to our present educational system as a nation, I should say first, it is not sufficiently practical, and second that it is too essentially practical and worldly.

The first phase of the question has already been dealt with at this convention, and it is one that is bound to be dealt with because the age in which we live is essentially a material age, and at this particular period enlightened Christendom is bending all its energies to achieve wealth, develop machinery, advance science and minister to the personal comfort of mankind. When therefore it is urged as a criticism that our common school system sends its product forth entirely unfitted for earning a livelihood, we may regard that flaw as one likely soon to be cured. Technical instruction and manual training will soon enough rectify whatever there may be lacking in the practical side of our educational system.

But the other defect is more radical in its character, is less fully recognized and has fewer persons to plead in its interests and to struggle for its reform.

Have we not in all our systems of modern education been prone to fall into ruts and routine? The producing of proficiency in the curriculum of study itself has been the supreme object aimed at, and, therefore, that school has been regarded as successful whose pupils have made high averages in geography, grammar, history, arithmetic, algebra, geometry and natural sciences. From the beginning to the end the supreme object of most teachers under our system is to get pupils who can pass successful, and, if need be, splendid examinations upon the various subjects which constitute the curriculum of the common school course, to send forth into the world pupils who have done well in their studies, or to send into the academies and universities men who are prepared to shine in the higher institutions and to graduate therefrom with the highest honors. It seems to me that no fair minded man can reasonably object to this frank statement of the existing conditions under which our system of public education is carried forward.

May I venture to submit, with deference, that this is not education in its full sense and scope. Everything that a common school does in the way of evoking an interest in general study would be consistent with the entire absence of moral character and consistent, unfortunately, with the absence of a gleam of spiritual life. High moral character and spiritual life are absolute and primal necessities for the development of national character; national greatness, national stability.

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this is not at a common eneral study haracter and n of spiritual bsolute and character; Fortunately, indeed, most pupils are afforded other methods of acquiring a general idea of ethics. The tone of the community and the moral atmosphere surrounding all or most portions of this great Dominion are such that every one without special teaching in the schools gets a pretty clear idea into his head that it won't do to murder or to steal, that lying leads to hopeless difficulty, and that dishonesty is an inexorable bar to worldly success. It is quite possible that we have secured an ethical standard which implants in the mind of the coming generation an almost universal recognition of the fact that honesty is the best policy.

But this is not sufficient for either a well rounded manhood, or an heroic character. If, indeed, this life ends all and there is no hereafter, if man is merely a mortal being who runs his little round of days and finally ends all in a few feet of earth, then the spiritual element has indeed but a small place in human destiny; but if, as we believe, or at least profess to believe, man is an immortal being then that which pertains to his soul is of a thousand times more consequence than everything which pertains to his body, his worldly fortunes or his mortal career, and the system of education which develops his physical powers and capacities, which trains his mental endowments to the highest pitch of perfection, and which leaves his vast spiritual possibilities undeveloped and unregarded, is a system unworthy of a Christian country and unworthy of the boasted enlightenment which pertains to our age and country.

The subject here suggested is one of the most delicate and far reaching in connection with our whole educational system. The first view which presents itself is teaching religion in the schools. If, indeed, it were merely a question of teaching religion in the schools the problem never would have been a troublesome one, but it has been the fate of human development that our religious teaching has almost invariably run into the line of dogma, and, as a consequence, when it is suggested that religion be taught in the public schools a vision at once appears of forms of doctrine represented by organized bodies, and well established creeds endeavoring to impose particular tenets of belief upon the plastic minds of youth. These creeds and doctrines resting upon the same authority have in the course of time taken on many forms

and shades of coloring, until now in the clearest and sharpest manner they clash. To teach religion in the schools means to teach a creed, to teach denominatiolism, and this cannot be done without serious difficulty and grave danger to the system of public education itself.

Consequently, the alternative has been to give up teaching religion in the schools altogether. The Roman Catholic is not willing that his children should be taught the Westminster Confession, neither is the Presbyterian or Methodist willing that the doctrine of the Immaculate Conception be instilled into his children: the Baptist will protest against infant baptism, and the Episcopalian will object to Church Democracy. In Nova Scotia we have settled the problems by making our schools non-sectarian, secular, godless. In other Provinces in the Dominion the problem has been settled by permitting one body of Christians to have their children set off by themselves and taught according to the beliefs of that religious body, and the rest of the children taught a composite form of religion, which will, as far as possible eliminate everything offensive to any one of co-ordinate religious bodies.

It has always seemed to me, vast and overpowering as the difficulties are, that with a properly developed teaching body, religion in its full, broad and beautiful sense could be taught in all schools and under conditions that would be not only not offensive to any, but eminently satisfactory and uplifting to all.

The purpose of the public school, I must repeat, is not to make scholars, grammarians, historians, mathematicians or scientists; the supreme purpose of the public school is to make men and women and to make men and women of the highest possible type and character, and the highest type of men and women you cannot produce until you have developed and unfolded that part which is immortal, that part indeed which represents all that is highest and best in human character.

The teacher who would fulfil the ideal of his profession will not be content to send forth from his institution, whatever it may be, a body of pupils who in test examinations in purely mental subjects can secure the highest marks or the highest proficiency, but he will regard it as the greatest function of his work to lead hour by hour, day by day, and year by year the young beings entrusted to his care into the higher regions of spiritual life. That

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profession will natever it may purely mental at proficiency, work to lead young beings al life. That is education that will produce the highest form of citizenship, that will secure a nation of men animated by higher aims and motives than sordid and selfish grasping after worldly rewards. It will produce a nation of heroes, of lovers of poets, of fully developed men.

I have before me a lad of tender years, his education is entrusted to my keeping: I begin to teach him his letters, and finally to read, then to write, then the power of numbers, then to express himself with accuracy: then I take him over the surface of the earth and show him the countries and waters and configurations of the world. I lead him into the mysteries of the earth's formation, into the problems of vegetable life, into the wonders of the animal kingdom from the lowest to the highest forms. All the subjects which are upon the most perfect curriculum of common school study of the country I have enabled him to master until he can pass with facility the most enacting examination which educational boards can prescribe, and most persons would say that I had been a faithful and successful tutor.

Is it so? Have I done justice to this sacred charge which is imposed upon my care? Is there any true ideal which will permit me to regard him as a mental automaton to master all these things as the end and purpose of existence? Am I not bound from the first moment we come together to recognize him as possessing an immortal existence, and with having a destiny which stretches beyond this mortal life? Am I not constrained to regard the development of the higher impulses as the first supreme consideration? Must he not be taught truth, honor, justice, kindness, self-sacrifice, love, devotion, and in the moments when I am drawing out and expanding these great spiritual qualities, am I not achieving a greater and more far reaching work than when I am simply enabling him to secure pass marks at an examination?

And indeed may not all this be done, may I not lead him up to a full and perfect conception of his relations to God; and his fellow man, without naming a single dogma of all the churches and religious bodies that now exist or ever have existed in this poor world?

Is it too much to say that this is not the course which the average teacher, or any considerable number of our teaching

fraternity, now adopt in connection with the work that is imposed upon them in the public schools.

What is the result? The next statement will be called in question, as all statements have a right to be called in question, and unfortunately I have no power to compel its universal acceptance, but I am constrained to make the statement that the result of thirty or forty years of our present educational system in this Dominion of Canada is to be found in the fact that materialism is more complete and universal than it was fifty years ago, and that an appreciation of purely spiritual things is in less regard than it was a generation ago. Look over Christendom and tell me if the almost supreme attention of Christian people is not centred in houses, wealth, railways, steamboats, telephones, commerce, cookery, and everything which ministers to the comfort of the body and the glorification of the individual. Exceptions to this we have: some men are devoting themselves entirely toward awakening mankind to the overshadowing importance of spiritual things. We have men and women who are sacrificing themselves and worldly aims for the purpose of advancing the interests of others and the higher interests of mankind. But I am speaking of the living moving world as we see it. Our newspapers team with nothing but accounts of worldly aims; tidings from the seat of war engross more attention than all the sermons preached from a million pulpits. It is an age in which men are seeking for riches, for the conquest of the earth: when nations are striving for more territory and more power; when the things which pertain solely and entirely to this mortal life are the things which are absorbing the attention of an overwhelming preponderance of the population.

This cannot last. Spiritual things are more important, vastly more important to mankind than temporal things. Poetry, sentiment, religion, are essential to the development of the highest character. A nation which ignores either sentiment, poetry or religion is a nation that sooner or later must fall by the corroding influence of its own sordid aims. This revival of religion in the state will be brought about, not by the beating of drums, the rending of garments or the putting on of sackcloth, not by noisy declamations from pulpit or platform, this revival of religion will be brought about soonest and most surely by the agency of a

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body of devoted teachers, who when they enter the school room, enter not to teach reading, writing, arithmetic and grammar, but enter that school room to develop with patient devotion the great immortal qualities of those beings which are entrusted to their care.

We hear much of the necessity of teaching patriotism and national pride. Love of country is natural and right: it springs from sentiment and is inconsistent with pure sordidness and selfish aim. The being who does not turn with affection to the land of his birth and is not willing to sacrifice himself in order that his country should live and be free, has not reached the true idea of manhood. Nevertheless we must discriminate carefully between the sentiment which leads to patriotism and heroism, and that which, for merely aggressive purposes, leads to national pride.

A great Englishman was recently laid in Westminster Abbey, who for nearly his entire life-time was reviled and abused, because he placed the interests of humanity above the interests of the British Empire. But now that men have come to consider the character of the man, they place him higher than all others, because he made his conception of human duty as broad as humanity itself.

Our first duty and our first regard, is to make this young nation of ours worthy and great in the moral tone and fibre of its people. We also glory in the Empire to which we belong, with whose fortunes we are inextricably linked, yet we must ever keep in mind that no power is destined to last, except the power which rests upon the immutable basis of moral worth. I cannot better illustrate this mighty truth than by quoting the splendid words of our latest, and perhaps greatest national poet. The Queen's Diamond Jubilee had been celebrated amid pomp and pageantry, and the symbols of pride and power. When it was all over, Rudyard Kipling, in a little poem that seems as if inspired, in reverent tones which we will do well to hear, and which sets forth the paramount importance of the spiritual element, thus speaks to the British nation. (The Hon. gentleman concluded by reciting the "Recessional.")

A NATIONAL OR CENTRAL BUREAU OF EDUCA-TION FOR CANADA.

By J. M. HARPER, LL. D.,

[Govt. Inspector of High Schools, Quebec.]

The organization of a National or Central Bureau of Education for Canada has, I believe, become at last a practical question, and in accepting it as the topic allotted to me at this auspicious gathering of Canadian teachers, I have the feeling that were it not for the meinaptitude of the speaker, it cannot be other than an interesting And there comes an echo from the past of this same old city in which we have been privileged to hold our Convention, as there comes an echoing of the present from every nook and corner of this Canada of ours, which assures me that if the organization of such a Bureau can be shown to be pregnant with the true interests of Canada as a community growing nationwards, there is spirit enough to be found among our public men and their constituencies, to demand that trial be made of it as a realizing practical force at the earliest moment possible, For what is there nearer to the heart of our amour de la patrie of the present, than the hope that this country of ours may become more and more of a Canada to us,-what is there more likely to be eagerly examined by us as a consolidating people, than some possibly neglected ethical force that, perchance, when rehabilitated, will assure and perfect the consolidation? In these latter days, so much is being said and written about Canada as a budding potentiality among the nations of the earth, that the less poetic of us are somewhat diffident in approaching the theme. The great stretches of Canada's territory, the magnificence of her mountain scenery, the picturesque grandeur of her spacious waterways and woodlands, the romantic charms of her hills and dales, and the sweet comeliness of her farmland homes, have all come to receive attention from our poets and littérateurs; and the story of greatness in esse, has become so far the foundation of the story of her greatness in posse, that for me to expand on it here would be somewhat out of place, in view of the special message I have been called to utter in your presence. And yet you will have to forgive me if I awaken, for the emphasis

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of my theme, that echo from the past which I have referred to as coming from this same old city of Halifax, -an echo that, as a prophecy being fulfilled, must, I am assured, be all the more pleasant to your ears. With the thirty years' experience we have had of Confederation, it is perhaps easy enough for us to prophesy after the event, but long before the Confederation agitation, there came to the various Provinces a message uttered in words of fire, by the greatest of Nova Scotian orators,—a message that has lost none of its charm as the veritable voice of fate itself that would not be stayed, though the prophet who uttered it fought for a time against its fulfillment. From the vantage ground of his marvellous influence, old Joseph Howe was believed then, as he is credited now, when he said :-- 'You feel at every step that Canada must become a great nation, and at every step you pray most devoutly for the descent upon the country of that wisdom, and foresight, and energy which shall make it the great treasury of British institutions upon this continent, and an honor to the British name. All the lakes of Scotland thrown together would not make one of these great inland seas, which form, as it were, a chain of Mediterraneans; all the rivers of England, old Father Thames included, would scarcely fill the channel of the St. Lawrence. grandeur in the mountain ranges, and a voice in the noble cataracts, which elevate the spirit above the ignorance and passions of the past and the perplexities of the present, and make us feel that the great Creator of the Universe never meant, such a country to be the scene of discord, but will yet inspire the people with the union, the virtue and the true patriotism, by which alone its political and social condition shall be made to take, more nearly than it does now, the impress of its natural features. Canada is a country to be proud of; to inspire high thoughts; to cherish a love for the sublime and the beautiful; and to take its stand among the nation's of the earth in spite of all circumstances which oppose the growth and progress of a young country."

And, as a further emphasis to this fulfilling prophecy, is there one of us that cannot stand at his own doorstep and feel the amen of it, soothing as a patriotic song? Under my own verandah, in old Quebec yonder, right on the ground where the destiny of Canada was pledged in the death of James Wolfe (for I live on the Plains of Abraham), the amen of such a song sounds as frequently



as elsewhere from Halifax to Vancouver. There, of a summer's day, "Nature hums its olden song and plays with history's fingers to assure the tune," in presence of the "velvet charms" of St. Charles' Plain, shut in by the old Laurentides, in presence of the holm-enclosing windings of Cartier's St. Croix in front, with an unwritten song in its every ripple, and in the hearing of the hum of the crowding streets of old Stadacona to the right, with a tale to tell in each of its landmarks. There, in the presence of the best that Canada has to give of scenery and history, there are few that would not be fain to join in the anthem:—

Hail, beauteous shrine of nature, gay festooned
With woodland grandeur, where the fervent soul
May drink a draught from summer's rippling sheen
That's shed like sweet ambrosial odour mortalized!

Or seeking a homelier utterance, and perhaps all the sweeter, there are few who would not be willing to join in the lusty chorus:—

"Though other skies may be as bright And other lands as fair; Though charms of other climes invite Our wandering footsteps there; Yet there is one, the peer of all, Beneath bright heaven's dome, Of thee I sing, O happy land, My own Canadian Home."

When the Fathers of Confederation were maturing and co-ordinating their opinions on the great question before them, they had more than the opinions of the higher statesmanship to co-ordinate. There were constituencies in those days who fed themselves on the prejudices of self-interest, just as there are constituencies of that nature in all great movements, just as there may possibly be in the undertaking I have to advocate this evening. There were publicists in those days who prophesied ruin to the weaker Provinces and tyrrany by the stronger, just as there were those who lit up the prospect with the exaggerating light of their imagination, which may have deceived, and certainly bewildered, thousands of voters. There were those who, in actively opposing the scheme, uttered the most lamentable wails of loss of liberty, loss of trade, increased taxation and other calamities; while there were those who, in promoting the change, joyfully proclaimed it to be the panacea of

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all political and commercial ills.- And as the Fathers of Confederation sought to secure these deliberations against the overwhelming tendencies of these outer prejudices that beset them, eliminations and addenda had to be made in the Constitution they had been called together to frame, -at least so the wisdom that met in the old Parliament House at Quebec, in 1866, deliberated and decided. The Constitution as it lest their hands was, perhaps, not what it ought to have been, but it was the best the times could be brought to countenance. And we of to-day, while loyally cognizant of the consolidation of interests it has produced, through the growth of the Canadian notion in our literature and statesmanship, are often compelled to ask why the Provincial notion has not by this time found its oblivion altogether in the Canadian notion. That there has been a drawing together of our interests as a consolidating people, a unifying of Provincial sympathies in a broader communal, no one can for a moment doubt. But when we turn to find, after the inductive method, the Provincial who is a Canadian first and a Provincial after, the Nova Scotian or New Brunswick trader who is more of a Canadian than a Nova Scotian, the Ontario man who does not even yet rejoice over Provincial aggrandizement and absorption, the Prince Edward Islander who does not feel inclined at times to look upon the Manitoban or North-Western man as a kind of foreigner, we retreat from before our investigations, and within the shelter of our own thoughts marvel at the phenomena of patriotism we have collected. And when I look at this assembly of teachers, drawn, in theory at least, from all parts of our wide Dominion, and ask, as I have done repeatedly, why a teacher of the maritime provinces, east or west, has as weak a professional claim in the communities of the interior of Canada, and vice versa, as a French teacher would have in Prussia, or an English teacher in France, I readily find the text from which I have to preach this evening a practical, and let me hope an orthodox, discourse, -a discourse which, at this point, is fittingly illustrated by the doubts which a certain beadle had about the orthodoxy of his fellow-parishioners.

There is temerity perhaps, though no lack of loyalty, in my hinting at imperfections in the British North America Act. Constitutions would be amended much more frequently, were it not for the awe that hangs around them; and yet when I say that

the British North America Act is not a complete embodiment of all the unifying forces that tend to make a nation, there is no disloyalty in my statement towards the union or its constitution, not even a desire on my part to advocate any change in its clauses, or any longing on your part, I hope, should you join with me, for anything in the shape of a revolution. The organization of a National or Central Bureau of Education for Canada, let me here say as emphatically as words can emphasize, may be accomplished without any change in the constitution of the country or infringement of the rights of any province; and if it come to be recognized as a substitution for a constitutional element, eliminated or suppressed in 1867, whereby the common school was relegated to the provinces and can never now become a national institution, then surely there are two very strong reasons for the support of my thesis, especially on the part of the members of an association that has been organized on a national or interprovincial basis as ours has been.

And here I may say that just as I was in the act of writing the last sentence the mail unexpectedly brought to my hand,-a strange coincidence, you will say, -the last volume of the report of the Commissioner of Education for the United States, and when you learn that it was the report of the National Bureau of Education at Washington you will at once understand how much of a satisfaction it was to me to receive it. It comprises a volume of over eleven hundred pages, and I have only to tell you that the Bureau, over which Dr. Harris so worthily presides, has no more of a constitutional oversight of the State school systems than the Department of Agriculture at Ottawa has over the functions and activities of the Departments of Agriculture in the various provinces, and then proceed to place a copy of the report in question in each of your hands, in order to convince you that a National or Central Bureau of Education at Ottawa is of a truth a consummation devoutly to be wished. And here, on the principle of providing a model for the moment, it may be as well to look at the constitution of the Washington Bureau and the influences that led to its organization.

The relationship between the Washington Government and the States' Governments is not altogether identical, as you know, with the relationship between the Ottawa Government and the sche mill tion in t deve chart that enter of F

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various Provincial Governments. In the matter of education there are many differences, for the Federal Government has more than once come to the direct assistance of the schools of the various States in more ways than one. For instance in 1876, the Government at Washington distributed forty-two millions of dollars among schools of the various States then existing, while no less than ten millions of acres of land have been apportioned in behalf of education, and large sums spent on the schools for the colored population in the South, for the Indian schools, and towards the educational development of Alaska. Our own Federal Government has not been altogether behind-hand in making provisions of a kindred character, and on this account, we have the very strongest hopes that it will go further and take a leaf out of the book of educational enterprise at Washington in the organization of a Canadian Bureau of Education.

In 1867, the year of our own confederation, the Bureau of Education of the United States was organized under the Commissionership of Dr. Henry Barnard, as a sub-department of the Department of the Interior; and when one considers the interblending of educational influences that has taken place since its organization and how it has brought about the nearest possible approach to "one country, one educational prestige" the United States is ever likely to see; and when one considers, with all due loyalty, how far we in Canada here are still from a truly national consolidation, even after thirty years of Confederation, and how effectually the common school brought under co-ordinating influences and wider national sympathies can be made a nursery for the true patriotism, it is our duty as teachers, it is our duty as Canadians, to plead for the organization of a like institution in our own country.

And, open though I may be to a charge of repeating myself, I may further say, that to advocate a national system of schools for Canada now is to shut your eyes to the constitution of our common country and the provincial rights and interests it protects. The establishing of a national system of education for Canada means revolution, and as my friend Dr. Parkin may tell us, we are hardly prepared for a revolution; that is if it should eventuate in our going it alone. In the organization of a Bureau of Education for Canada there is not, as I have already said, the least tendency towards revolution, its proposed functions being for the most part mission-

ary and its administration ex-officio. All that would be required would be a vote for its support as a sub-department under any of the great departments at Ottawa, with liberty to work out its own destiny of usefulness, as has the Bureau at Washington,—a great co-ordinating force in the educational affairs of the Dominion. As such a force it would neither be over nor under any provincial authority, perhaps not even advisory in an official sense, yet bringing about by judicious and justifiable means an assimilation of provincial educational necessities and pedagogic affinities that would eventually bring all the teachers of Canada, and, through them, the rising generation, to see the provincial shading away into the federal, into the national.

And if after what I have said, and what may be said in the after discussions on the subject, you as a Dominion Association care to appoint a committee to take charge of the matter and press it upon the federal authorities as a practical question, your memorial would not differ materially from the memorial presented to Congress by the educationists of the United States urging the organization of the Washington Bureau, and which I venture to give here as a concrete setting forth of what our Bureau at Ottawa might be expected to accomplish. It is as follows:

- "It was the unanimous opinion of the Association that the interests of education would be greatly promoted by the organization of such a Bureau at the present time; that it would render needed assistance in the establishment, of school systems where they do not now exist, and that it would prove a potent means for improving and vitalizing existing systems. This it could accomplish:
- "1. By securing greater uniformity and accuracy in school statistics, and so interpreting them that they may be more widely available and reliable as educational tests and measures;
- "2. By bringing together the results of school systems in different communities, states and countries, and determining their comparative value;
- "3. By collecting the results of all important experiments in new and special methods of school instruction and management, and making them the common property of school officers and teachers throughout the country;

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"5. By aiding committees and States in the organization of school systems in which mischievous errors shall be avoided, and vital agencies and well-tried improvements be included;

"6. By the general diffusion of correct ideas respecting the value of education as a quickener of intellectual activities, as a moral renovator, as a multiplier of industry, and a consequent producer of wealth, and, finally, as a strength and shield of civil liberty."

And with this memorial as a foreshadowing of what the counsels of this Association may accomplish—an Association that had its birth, let us hope, in the desire for a broader federal communing one with the other over school interests and educational advancement,-I may be permitted to indicate in a final practical word what we teachers may expect from our own Educational Bureau. Its primary object of course would be the collecting of statistics and facts for the purpose of showing in a concise comparative form the progress of education in the several provinces. We want to know more of one another and our ways of doing things, since the civilization and patriotic pride we boast of as ours, demands that we should provide ourselves and our children with the best of everything that is going. Why should the Nova Scotian system of schools be accredited, for long, with excellencies which ours of Quebec are said not to possess; or why should there be any deficiencies real or theoretic in the school systems of Prince Edward Island and British Columbia when brought into comparison with those of Ontario and Manitoba? Should educational progress among us know any provincial line? Are the essentials of a good school system not the same for New Brunswick as for the North-

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Western Territories? Is the science of education founded on the eternities or on the conventional? Are the principles of pedagogy qualified by climatic differences? Is there anything in the physical or intellectual build of the Nova Scotian teacher that unfits him to take charge of a school in Ontario? Let us endeavor to answer these queries, and through the answers discern the neglected nationalizing force which the organization of an Educational Bureau for Canada may revive amongst us, when once the genius of our common school education is turned in a large measure away from the narrowing influences and a provincial bias into the hands of the broad-minded Canadian teacher and educationist.

And yet there is a higher function for the Bureau of Education, as Dr. Harris's last report shows from its table of contents and scholarly articles. In that report there are to be found articles on Education in Great Britain and Ireland, in France, Norway, Denmark and Central Europe; Commercial Education in other countries; the teaching of Civics in Switzerland, France and England; Education in Greece; Sunday Schools; the Curriculum of the Land-Grant Colleges; the Legal Rights of Children; the Study of Imitation; Horace Mann and the Great Revival of the American Common School; Henry Barnard; Report of the Committee of Twelve; Entrance Requirements for Engineering Colleges; Early History of the Kindergarten; some recent Contributions of Biology, Sociology and Metallurgy of Colleges for the Benefit of Agriculture and the Mechanical Arts. And when you read that report for yourselves, or any of the previous reports, I venture to say that it will be pleasant for you to note that in these articles and the investigations on which they have been founded, the faddist has been permitted to have no part. The object of such a collaboration is to give a knowledge of other systems, so that teachers and educationists comparing their own experiences and deficiencies and fallacies with the experiences and investigations of others, may arrive at that highest of all knowledge which gives them the power to suggest and direct. Under the able direction of Dr. Harris, the pedagogic necessities are ever held paramount by the Washing-With it the true function of the school is ever kept And we can hardly think otherwise than that our Canadian Bureau, when organized under like wise and benign counsels, will not only lead to the elimination of the deficient in our school

systems, and the implanting of the efficient, but will tend to make of our teachers and our schools what they ought to become more and more every day, agencies in developing that community of thought and feeling which has the minimum of a provincial penchant about it. In the longing which some have for a Republic on the St. Lawrence, there is no political significance in our times. Our children's children may not live to have it, if some of my friends on the platform here should have their way. But what is there to prevent us all from longing to hear of the organization of a Canadian institution which, while disturbing no provincial rights, nor even turning the hair of a provincial prejudice, will undoubtedly bring us as teachers nearer and nearer to a true recognition of the educational eternities that make for the development of the higher intellectualities and moralities, and of the brotherhood in which the true patriotism lives and breathes and has its being. And when the experiences of the ethical force thus to be inaugurated comes to be written of in the history of our coming national aggrandizement, not one, but thousands of our poets will be able to sing with no inflation in words:

My birthright land a debt of song I pay,
A debt of love that lieth on my soul,
When memory draws the veil of bygone day,
And olden music greets the lifting scroll;
A tribute to thy freedom's faith I bring,
The piety that scents thy glebe I sing,
Thy purple hills whose silver mists unroll
The wavering gold of dawn, thy lowing plains
And maple banks and braes where hamlet meekness reigns.



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THE EMOTIONS AS A FACTOR IN EDUCATION.

By Hon, W. W. STETSON.

[State Superintendent of Education, Maine, U. S.]

After the audience had sung "My Old Canadian Home," at Mr. Stetson's request, he proceeded as follows:

Ladies and Gentlemen,-I take your hearty greeting as a compliment to the State I represent, the Nation of which I am glad to be a citizen, and I accept it in that sense, and am very glad to once more have an opportunity of meeting the good people of the Province and to know that the line which separates us is growing narrower every year, and the cords binding our hearts together are growing stronger as the years go on. I have a few words I would like to say before I begin. I hope no one will understand from what I said last night that I am not in favour of a broad curriculum. What I meant to state was that wise men must devise some way by which we can have less studies at any given time. we take up arithmetic we must master four simple rules, and let all the rest of that stuff which publishers find so profitable go to the corner. I want the boys of Maine to know something about the grand old language which is their heritage. I want them to know these few simple things, so that when they go to college they shall not be deficient in the rudimentary studies. Bodies like this have to solve these problems. It is astounding how much we have learned, yet still more astounding how little we know. The first school was the Garden of Eden, the first pupils Adam and Eve, the first teacher God himself. For six thousand years we have been trying to give strength and skill to the body, and for the same length of time we have been training the mind, yet it is a curious thing that during all these years no one has thought it necessary to nurture the heart. The time is upon us when it has become part of our duty to see that our boys and girls have the benefit of this kind of culture. When the sun came up this morning in the East it rose upon the best world it ever shone upon. When it goes down it will go down upon a better world than that upon which it rose. The time has come when the boys and girls in our schools have a right to demand that they shall be introduced

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to those things which shall satisfy their souls, those great sentiments which have made the progress of the world possible. We have historians who give us the record of the past, but the poets give us the record of the future. The poet is the man who feels most the things he loves most. We can exist without honors, but we cannot live without love. It is love which makes it possible for us to live in unwholesome environments and not be distracted by our surroundings. We should try to surround our boys and girls with all that is beautiful and all that will appeal to their hearts, and the good time is coming when we are going to have school lawns instead of yards. Yards are places where they "yard" cattle, not boys and girls.

We must introduce into our schools something of the heroic and patriotic, and the pupils must have a chance to read works which appeal to these sentiments. I remember when as a boy I heard read "Lochiel, Lochiel—beware of the day, &c., how my heart used to burst and something swell within me. When children understand the thought expressed in such works, we shall not have any trouble about a patriotic citizenship.

I think there are some other things we need besides heroism and patriotism. We are going at too great a speed in this age. We are hurried on from one thing to another. Each man is occupied with his own peculiar work. No one has time to take interest in general things. We need a broad training in our schools, so that boys and girls can get into sympathy with the largeness of things. We need a little more of reverence, a little more respect for position, age and sacred things. I am afraid our boys and girls are too much given to saying light and frivolous things of what they should speak of with uncovered heads. I am glad to speak of that grand picture, Millais' "Angelus." I remember when it first dawned on me that there has never been written so fine a history of the Catholic Church as that marvelous picture of the Angelus. How simple in outline. The church and lowly cottages in the distance. Two agricultural laborers are engaged in the field. The bell rings out at the hour of the Angelus. Suddenly they assume a position that few can assume at the present time. Why? Because they have centuries of training behind them moulding into their bodies the feeling and posture of reverence and devotion. We can study the "Angelus, read its lessons, understand its story and get something of its inspiration, and rise from that meditation better, because we have a better idea of what reverence and devotion is.

We need to think more of the home, believe more in the home, stay more in the home, be found less upon the street, have less «desire for striking and attractive apparel. We want the children to realize what the word "home" means. Let them study the picture "Breaking Home Ties." You remember that scene. The youth starting from home full of energy and hope for the future. The mother stands at the door with a look of resignation on her face, the lips seeming to move with prayer to Heaven for the protection and guidance of her loved one. The little girl, his sister, reluctant to part with him. They stand there looking into each other's eyes, he to depart, she to remain behind. No child can stand in the presence of a picture like that, know something of its story, appreciate some of the features, without a more tender feeling for home, a little more loving respect for the mother, a little more determination to do these things and feel these things which shall reflect credit of the household. Some way and somehow the child must get behind the words, and see these people, look into their eyes, stand before them as living things. We all know "Maud Muller," by Whittier. It is a story that children get up and read in such a wooden way that we are ashamed of the man who wrote it. We have to give our children a chance to see the beauties of such things and come in touch with them, and it is nonsense for a teacher to attempt to do this unless it goes deeper than the back teeth. You cannot deceive children. They are absolutely merciless critics. They know us better than we know ourselves. If you don't see beauty in the picture and feel the thought in the poem, don't dare talk about things that you don't know anything about. You must feel the thing yourself or your words will fail to make any impression whatever upon the child. We must give our boys and girls a chance to have their eyes opened, and their hearts attuned, and their lives in sympathy with the best that art has given us.

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" UNIFORM STANDARD OF TEACHERS' LICENSES."

By J. A MACCABE, LL. D., F. R. S. C.

[Principal, Normal School, Ottawa.]

The wording of the title of this paper I have copied from the official programme. Were I to interpret the title literally, I would, in discussing the subject, have a comparatively easy task, because there can be little or no objection to a uniform Standard of License, provided that Standard is of such a height as is demanded by the intellectual condition of the present day.

But I take for granted that a wider view is intended, that, with the uniform Standard of License, a reciprocity in the engagement of teachers would be expected, each province of the Dominion being ready to accept for its schools the best teachers, no matter from what province they come. This is the view I shall keep before me on what I have to say on the subject.

While I have undertaken the introduction of this question, I cannot say that, on it, my own mind has reached any conviction. Indeed, I feel more inclined to ask for the opinions of others than to deliver judgment myself. All I can hope to do is to state briefly what I consider are the arguments which may be urged for and against, and allow opinion and consequent action to mature later.

It is a well known law of rhetoric that a change is suggested as desirable in any existing state of airs, the "burden of proof" lies with those who suggest the change, and not with those who accept the present state of affairs, or are responsible for its existence.

We find that each province of the Dominion, in receiving at Confederation control over education within its own limits, has established for itself a system of licensing its teachers, and will not accept, without re-examination, a teacher licensed by another province. This is the existing state of affairs; and, as I have said, the "burden of proof" lies with those who advocate a change.

But, although the "burden of proof" lies with me in discussing this question, I may be allowed to point out that the present condition of things in the licensing of teachers in the

different provinces, has not always prevailed. There was at one time, and not very long ago, among the provinces a reciprocity in the engagement of teachers. Note in the "Regulations" of the Education Dept. of the province of Ontario, 1887, the following, respecting the qualifications for Head Mastership of a High School or Collegiate Institute:—"A degree in Arts obtained, after a regular course of study, from any chartered university in the British Dominions."

Again, I have personal knowledge that, not very long ago, in Manitoba, the North West Territories, and British Columbia, Ontario licenses were recognized, teachers holding them being accepted without re-examination. A large number of my own normal students took advantage of this.

As, however, the purpose of this paper is to state facts rather than deliver judgment, I may say, frankly, that in the provinces I have mentioned this reciprocity no longer exists. Each of them, like the other provinces, now employs only those who obtain a local license by a local examination; and teachers from other provinces must begin at the foot of the ladder and climb up by steps fixed for the beginner.

I do not shut my eyes to the fact that this is a strong argument against reciprocity of license and employment. Now, when four important divisions of our Dominion come back to a "protective" policy in the engagement of teachers, we must believe they made the change only after due deliberation and strong argument in support of the new order. I shall deal with this later.

Having shown that the present order of affairs in the Dominion, in the licensing and employment of teachers did not always prevail, I may complete the illustrations by adding some from our neighbors of the United States.

The Public School Law of the State of New Jersey has the following with regard to the "appointment and qualifications of teachers":—"The State Board of Examiners may endorse the diploma of a Normal School or Training College, or the permanent certificate issued by a State Superintendent or Board of Examiners of another State." The School Law of Montana has the following clause:—"State or life diplomas may be granted to graduates of other educational institutions, within or without the

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State, upon conditions established by the State Board of Education." Washington Territory requires its teachers to "file with the Board a certified copy of a diploma from some State Normal School, or a State or Territorial certificate from any State or Territory, the requirements to obtain which shall not have been less than those required above." The State of California orders thus: -The Board of Examiners may, without examination, grant county certificates of either the grammar or the primary, grade to holders of life diplomas of other States; to the holders of Nevada, Oregon, and Washington State educational diplomas, of San Francisco Normal class diplomas when recommended by the Superintendent of public schools of said city, of California State University diplomas when recommended by the faculty of the University, of State Normal School diplomas of other States, of grammar grade certificates of any county, city, or city and county of California, and county certificates of the high school grade, and to graduates of any other institution in the United States which the the State board of education of this State shall have recommended as being of the same rank as the State University of California when the diploma of graduation from said institution shall be accompanied by a recommendation from the faculty thereof, showing that the holder of the diploma has had academic and professional training equivalent to that required by the State University." It may be urged that Montana and Washington Territory being new States, the scarcity of native teachers obliges them to adopt a plan of reciprocity. But New Jersey and California are old States and one must take for granted that a long experience has confirmed them in their present practice. The State Superintendent of Public Instruction for-New Jersey, in writing to me on this topic says:-"The demand for trained teachers is constantly increasing and our own Normal School was not able to graduate enough teachers to supply the demand. The consequence was, that in our large towns the school authorities were compelled to seek graduates from Normal Schools of other States, or to employ teachers who had not received professional training, which resulted in the engaging of a large number of Normal graduates of New York and Pennsylvania. A few of our own graduates were engaged by school boards in other States, and the rule in question was adopted for the purpose

of relieving teachers coming to us from Normal Schools in other States, of the necessity of passing an examination. One reason for this was that the teachers whom we were most anxious to secure, were often times unwilling to pass an examination in subjects covered by their diplomas, and who could present evidence of success in their profession. We do not endorse diplomas issued in Normal Schools whose standard is lower than that of our own Normal School. Neither do we endorse diplomas from States which refuse to recognize New Jersey diplomas. This last is done, of course, as a protection to our own Normal graduates. The rule has worked very satisfactorily, and under it we have secured many superior teachers."

I would ask you to note specially two sentences in this letter:—
"One reason for this was that teachers whom we were most anxious to secure, were, oftentimes unwilling to pass an examination in subjects covered by their diplomas, and who could present evidence of success in their profession." And again:—
"The rule has worked very satisfactorily; and under it we have secured many superior teachers." Some of the best teachers in the State were secured by this plan.

The State Superintendent of Public Instruction for California, in writing to me says:—This state has always recognized the principle of honoring proper diplomas and credentials as bases upon which to grant certificates, without any discussion whatever."

Still further illustration may be had from the movement now on foot in the medical and legal professions towards reciprocity among the provinces. At a late meeting of the Ontario Medical Association, and if I am correctly informed, at a late meeting of the N. S. Medical Association, the question was discussed. While no immediate action was taken, there was a large number in favor of the change. It does seems somewhat anomalous to find that, in order to practice law in B. Columbia, Sir Charles Hibbert Tupper is obliged to undergo an examination in that province; and that the Holmes medallist of the Medical School of McGill University, even though he be an Ontario man, is obliged to undergo an examination under the College of Physicians and Surgeons of that province, before he is allowed to practice there. And, just think of it, were Dr. MacKay, our President, crowned as he is with well earned titles and honors, for years of

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for a p seems examin successful educational labor, to give up his position here, and come to Ontario, he would be obliged to pass an examination and attend the Normal School or Normal College before obtaining a permanent engagement as teacher.

Now for some arguments which seem to be strongly in favor of a change from the present order of things.

In the first place, a uniform Standard of Teacher's License implies a high Standard—a Standard at least as high as the highest found in any province of the Dominion. Certainly, the province having a comparatively high Standard will not lower it. province with a lower Standard will not ask to have the high Standard brought down. Such a request would be a confession of professional weakness on the part of the province making it-a confession which, I am sure, no province will think of making. We see, then, that a uniform Standard implies high academic, and high professional qualifications—the latter obtained through a thorough course of Normal School training. This, alone, even without reciprocity of employment, would be a good thing for the profession. It would secure a high grade class of teachers throughout the Dominion. I may say here, in passing, that, after this year, the proxince of Ontario will have only two grades of teachers-first and second grades. The so-called third class certificates will be abolished. And, as you know, attendance at the Normal School for second class teachers, and at the Normal College for first class teachers, is obligatory in Ontario.

Another argument in favor of a uniform Standard of License and reciprocity of employment is the fact, that they will give each province a larger field from which to draw its teachers—will give the whole Dominion instead of a single province. In every province there is a growing number of teachers who are known and recognized throughout the Dominion for their scholarship, their skill in teaching, their high character. Many of them are in attendance at this meeting. Suppose Nova Scotia wishes to avail herself of the tried educational ability of one of these men or women, why should this man or woman be subjected to the humiliation of an examination, forsooth to test his or her fitness for a position in the schools of this province? Such a demand seems unprofessional and absurd. It seems to imply that the examinations which have been passed, the diplomas already

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Charles in that School man, is ysicians practice esident, years of received, the experience already gained, have not brought these teachers beyond the apprentice stage—a proposition which is, I think, wholly indefensible.

Besides giving a high Standard of certificate, uniform Standard of License and reciprocity of engagement would raise the standard of practical work in the school. Every teacher of every province would feel called on to do his very best. Knowing the increased competition he would strain all his energy to place his school in such a condition as would remove from him all fear of competition from teachers of his own or other provinces. The holder of a certain position must make himself as good as, if not better than, any and every outsider. Dominion competition would certainly raise the standard of practical work higher than provincial competition places it. All who "keep school" rather than train their pupils would be shut out of the profession.

The infusion of "new blood" into the teaching staffs of the various provinces, consequent on a uniform License for teachers and reciprocity of employment, would be a great advantage. Narrowing the field from which to draw teachers, and the necessity of infusing "new blood" into the teaching staff is thus referred to by one of the United States State Superintendents of Public Instruction. He says:—"In a large interior city, of the names of over one thousand teachers borne upon the roll, nearly eight hundred were born, bred, and educated within that school district. The schools of that city are fair, even good. But who shall say how much better the results had an interchange of graduates from other city Normal Schools occurred."

Inspectors, also, would be benefited by the change. Inspectors, under the existing order of things, know their teachers so well, and are so well informed as to what is being done in their various districts, that they are naturally inclined to make the inspection a mere perfunctory ceremony. With the new order of things, minute inspection and constant supervision would be necessary.

And now for a consideration of what may be urged on the other side of the question. The strongest argument in favor of the existing order of things will shape itself something like the following. I shall take this province as a practical illustration. The teachers of Nova Scotia may say:—"We, our fathers, grand-

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fathers, and other relatives and friends have, at considerable expense, built and equipped our public schools; we, the teachers, have paid for our education in Nova Scotia; we have been trained in our own public, academic, and Normal schools. Having spent so much time, money and energy in preparing ourselves for the teaching profession, why should we have to compete with outsiders, strangers, who know nothing of our province, of the wants of our people or of our children? Why should they be put on the same fooring as we? If we Nova Scotian teachers have, by hard work, raised our schools to their present standard, why not leave them with us? Why bring in others to reap the reward of our work? Education in Nova Scotia is the heritage of Nova Scotians, why call in the stranger to enjoy it?" This is, certainly, a strong argument against disturbing the present order of things. But to it, one may reply (1) uniformity of license, and reciprocity of employment does not oblige any province to go outside its own borders for a teacher; and (2) if the holder of a position in any province is as good as can be obtained for that position, he should have nothing to fear; if he is not so good as can be obtained from another province, then he should not press too strongly his holding a place which may be filled by a better man. Are the teachers of province A tully up to the standard of those of province B? If this is answered in the affirmative, then the teachers of province A have nothing to fear from foreign competition. If the question is answered in the negative, then something must be done, because I am sure, no province of the Dominion will long rest content if it feel that the standard of efficiency in its teachers is lower than that of any other province.

The Dominion Educational Association if it do not bring about uniformity of Teachers' License, and reciprocity in provincial employment of teachers, will do the next best thing, or something better, as you look at the matter from different points of view. The Dom. Ed. Assoc. is calling together from all parts of our country its foremost educators—using this term in its widest sense, will make its teachers better acquainted with one another will make familiar to each province the standard of ability in teachers, and the standard of teaching in the other provinces, leaving each to aim at and reach the best, no matter what province has it. This is an immense gain, and while after this meeting,

the teachers of each province will leave for their respective spheres of work, not expecting, at least for the present, professional competition from the other provinces, they will leave with a wholesome fear, lest their schools may not be up to the standard which, as they have learned, prevails elsewhere; they will have received, new impulse, inspiration and help to reach, all the provinces, a stage of educational advancement which will be a credit to this great Dominion; and one in which every lover of his country may feel proud.

Orpheus Hall, Thursday Evening, Aug. 4th.

"TEACHERS" PENSIONS."

By G. W. PARMELEE, B. A. [Department of Education, Quebec.]

Mr. Chairman,-I will not attempt to give you a history of the movement in favor of providing pensions for that class of people whose claims upon the public are wont to be recognized more on the platform than in the pay office. In 1819 Russia provided pensions for teachers and one after another the other European countries followed. You will find in the Contemporary Educational Review a very interesting article which goes thoroughly into the history of the moment in favor of pensions. I will not discuss the socialistic view that the State has no right to tell me how much money I must put to one side. When the legislature is prepared to say it is going to do this in the public interest we say nothing but make the best of it. In 1856 a Pension Act was passed which provided that each teacher, no matter of what grade, should pay four dollars per year into the fund, and after he had lived a certain number of years he would have a right to a retiring allowance not to exceed \$4.00 for each year which he had been in active service. You would suppose that everyone would jump at the chance of such an investment as that, but it was not taken advantage of to any extent and that fund has died a natural death. In 1880 an Act was passed in Quebec which came into active operation in 1886. Each teacher, inspector or professor of a normal school is compelled to pay into the fund two per cent of his salary. This fund forms one of the sources of revenue.

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There is also the State contribution, which is two per cent of all the funds voted for education each year. This is deducted from the various school sections and placed to the credit of the fund. Some persons who had taught for many years were allowed to pay up back dues. Last year the State gave \$11,000 which, with the tax on salaries, brought the fund up to \$35,000 in round numbers. This was distributed among four hundred and fifty deserving persons. Each teacher is allowed on retiring as much each year as he has paid in during the whole of his lifetime. If a teacher becomes disabled after ten years of service he has a right to retire upon the same terms. Some/fifteen per cent retire each year. The highest possible pension is \$1050.00, while some receive as low as thirty or forty dollars.) It is a serious injustice to those who do not receive in proportion to the amount paid in. A person struggling in a small school house on a small salary deserves more of the State than one receiving a large salary. There is one very important thing to be be considered in connection with a pension fund and that is, that many teachers remain but a few years in the profession and other people get the benefit of their contributions. Unless you have permanency of teachers you will always have strong opposition from the teachers themselves. I would say-dont hurry into it. Count the cost carefully and do not mind if two, three or five years elapse before you reach your wishes. -[Stenographic Report.]

Note.—Some idea of the scope, if not of the great value Prof. Andrews' and Prof. Brittain's papers, which were lost, may be gained from the following newspaper reports of them:—

"Means and Methods in the Common Schools," by John Brittain, professor natural science, Normal school, Fredericton, followed.

The first condition of success in teaching is experience and skill on the part of the instructor. The chief condition of success on the pupil's part is anxiety to investigate and obtain knowledge. These two conditions satisfied, the remainder is easy. Mr. Brittain, in an exceedingly interesting paper, followed out his method of teaching reading to young children. His success in this direction has been so great that any information which he gives as to the method pursued by him is of the greatest value.

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Mr. Brittain does not think the readers in use suitable for In this he agrees with Prof. Dyde. The grammar should only be used as a reference book. Nature studies are important as developing the thinking facilities. The value of a system of education does not depend upon the amount of knowledge obtained but on the amount of desire for further information developed and the degree of determination and progress. - Chronicle.

Prof. W. W. Andrews followed. He spoke on "The Advantages and Feasibility of Combining Technical and Public Instruction." All things were possible to the theorist. What must be The existence of our public school system is an comes to be. True education makes the increase of manual example of this. and technical instruction a necessity. The object of education is to develop a manhood. We develop man on two lines: We develop a vital conscious machine and train the man to skill, giving him the means of livelihood, and we develop a living soul, training it to culture and increasing the means of life. The great instrument of culture is the soul life of the teacher making itself felt on the young life in the school room. The curricula of manual training schools was described and the slight difference emphasized, showing that it was possible to approximate to these in our pabic schools. It was urged that kindergarten methods should be developed and projected into advanced school work, drawing, freehand and mechanical, graphical mathematics, the use of scissors and jack knife-the universal tool, building of relief maps in geography, nature studies at technical applications of the principles chemistry and physics, the invention of new designs and ornaments from botanical and mineral forms, and for classes in the fourth and fifth book, shop work with tools, combined with English composition and drawing, may be introduced into our public schools without detriment and with advantage to the schools. Trade schools should be adjuncts of the public schools and the higher technical courses should begin as options in the junior years in the college courses. - Herald.

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MINUTES OF THE SECTION OF TRAINING AND INSPECTION.

The Inspection and Training Department of the Dominion Educational Association organized on August 3rd, by electing Dr. J. M. Harper, President, Dr. J. B. Hall, Vice-President, and Inspector C. W. Roscoe, Secretary.

Inspector H. V. Bridges read a paper on The Duties and Powers of School Inspectors, and Inspector W. S. Carter read one on The Necessary Qualifications of a School Inspector. These papers were carefully prepared and contributed many valuable thoughts and suggestions for school officials in their work. The papers were discussed by Inspector Brown, of Ontario, Inspector Munro, of N. S., Dr. DeMerse, of Quebec, and others. The following resolution was an outgrowth of these papers and the discussion. Moved by Prof. J. G. Hume, seconded by Supervisor A. McKay, and passed:—

"Resolved,—That the Dominion Educational Association deprecates the methods of securing teachers by advertising for a statement of the qualifications and lowest salary, thus tending to determine the selection, not on grounds of fitness, but on that of cheapness; it therefore recommends strongly that the trustees decide in advance the salary they intend to give, and then choose the best teacher who applies."

AUGUST 4TH, A. M.

Dr. J. G. Hume read a paper on Pedagogics as a University Subject, He dealt in a very clear and able manner with his subject and recommended that it should take rank among other subjects on college curricula. This paper was discussed by Dr. Hall and others, and he, Prof. Murray, and Supervisor McKay were appointed a committee to report to the Association recommending that steps be taken to establish chairs of Pedagogics in the Universities of Canada.

Prof. Rouleau's paper on Professional Training, which was in French, was presented by Prof. Ahern.

Inspector Brown introduced the subject of Changes in some of the Letters of the English Alphabet. This was spoken to by Drs. MacKay, Ahern and the President.

P. M

In the absence of the chairman, Dr. McCabe was requested to take the chair. On account of small attendance it was resolved to accept Principal Soloan's paper on The Advantages of Consolidating Rural Schools, as read, and require the secretary to hand it over to the Association for publication.

The President now took the chair and after some desultory yet interesting discussion on questions of educational value, the meeting adjourned.

AUGUST 5TH, A. M.

The officers for the ensuing term were elected as follows

President..... Inspector H. V. BRIDGES.

Vice-President Inspector Brown.

Secretary..... S. B. SINCLAIR, Esq., M.A.

COLIN W. ROSCOE, Secretary.

THE DUTIES AND POWERS OF SCHOOL INSPECTORS.

By H. V. B. BRIDGES, M. A., FREDERICTON, N. B.

[Inspector of Schools, Inspectoral District No. 5, N.B.]

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen:

When in reply to the Secretary of this Association, I wrote consenting to occupy this position, the day of performance seemed distant enough to lend to the duty something of a pleasing aspect, but as I began to drag the chain of unfulfilled obligations that weigh heavily upon one at the close of the school year, I regarded the day with apprehension, and have prepared what I have to say upon this subject with that hesitancy and reluctance natural to one who doubts whether some experience and deep sympathy in this work, necessarily qualify him to speak to those who are its masters and experts.

I was ignorant of the fact too, that my old friend and colleague was to address us this morning upon a kindred subject.

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New Brunswick is well represented in his person, and it would seem more fitting that some one engaged in the work of inspection in another province should be associated with him on this occasion, and that I should occupy the happier position of a listener.

The duties and powers of School Inspectors; I have not had the time, and I may have lacked the inclination to examine thoroughly the duties and powers of such officers as laid down by regulation throughout the different Provinces. I am not, therefore, in a position to make comparisons which, in some instances, might seem invidious, or to express approval of certain features in each. The scope of the subject given me I have considered above the merely technical, and have chosen to discuss some of those broader lines of duties, and a few of the powers connected therewith, which are common to all engaged in the work of supervision from the Atlantic to the Pacific.

It does not seem to me unfitting, however, to state just here some of the principal duties of Inspectors in New Brunswick, at the risk even of being thought tedious, as one's remarks must of necessity be influenced by the line of duty necessary to follow in carrying out one's work. The Board of Education prescribes that:—Each Inspector shall make a formal visitation of each ungraded school within his district once during each term, and of each Grammar, Superior, or Graded School, once during the school year. The Inspectors shall ascertain what subjects are taught in each school, examine on subjects as they deem advisable, requiring on the part of the pupil an intelligent acquaintance therewith; shall observe the methods of the teacher, the tone and discipline of the school, and give such counsel to the teacher as they deem necessary.

To make recommendations in regard to changes in the boundaries of school districts; to visit districts having no school in operation, and to use his best endeavors to secure school privileges for all. To report, when necessary to the Board of School Trustees the results of his inspection, and to require necessary improvements to be made.

To give public addresses whenever practicable, and to hold special meetings with trustees and teachers whenever the circumstances of a District may require. To be present and assist at the

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meetings of each County Institute within his district, as well as the meetings of the Provincial Institute, and to promote the attainment of the objects of such Institutes as specified by regulation. To make to the Chief Superintendent on the first week day of each month a detailed report of the districts, schools, and departments visited during the previous month, and to make a general report at the close of each year showing the educational condition of his Inspectoral District.

There are in the Province upwards of 1700 schools, and six Inspectors, making an average of over 280 schools for each Inspector. The amount of correspondence is necessarily large, and an increasing burden. The average number of schools for each Inspector in Nova Scotia, I believe, is about 230.

It would seem then that the mere consideration of our duties should, at least, serve to reconcile more to their lot, those elsewhere situated who consider their work more difficult than ordinary. Though it is scarcely possible to complete all the work laid down, I am safe in saying that, as a result of the work, there has been greater improvement in school buildings, apparatus, and appliances for school work in the last six years, than in the previous ten. Professional training is required of all of our teachers, and as the supply of teachers is lately greater than the demand, increased scholarship is required at Normal School entrance examinations.

The system of short terms for the low class licenses has given a stimulus towards increased scholarship on the part of the student teacher.

We are fortunate too, in having so many teachers of refined tastes, and of early favorable environment, who are thus fitted to mould the characters of the children who may be placed under their care, and who have the power to influence for good the habits and tastes of those entrusted to them.

In New Brunswick educational progress is coincident with the improvement in scholarship and professional training of our teachers, and careful conscientious methods of supervision, and we hope we are at least keeping pace with the forward movement elsewhere throughout this great Dominion.

Efficient schools can be secured only by providing suitable buildings and appliances and by keeping them in proper order,

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∜ F shou on the one hand; and on the other by employing, ordering and directing the teacher, so that the instruction shall have "life and power to accomplish the great end for which schools are maintained." The Inspector's duties in this connection are not readily over-estimated. The scope of this paper is confined to county districts and villages, as the schools in these form about four-fifths of the work of the majority of those engaged in the work of inspection, and I shall briefly discuss his duty towards the school, including under that head the teacher, the pupil, and the school house and appliances; towards the district, and a word with regard to his duty to the state.

An Inspector's duty is plain in connection with the school house and its apparatus. It is not merely to secure some good buildings, but to secure good school houses wherever they are needed, and to prevent the use of all school houses that are not suitable. The school room to the child of poor parents should be pleasanter and brighter than home. Bright, airy school rooms, provided with needful apparatus are necessary to anything like efficient school work, and the Inspector's power for good is such that their non-existence is a serious reflection upon his ability and energy to perform his duties. In fact, the good or bad character of his work is so apparent here, that even the way-faring man is in the habit of passing his opinion on it. Large numbers of rate-payers will do nothing to improve the condition of their school house until the existing state of affairs is condemned by the Inspector. He should therefore act promptly.

If his recommendations are not carried out, let the case be reported and the County Fund grant stopped until the improvement has been made. The power to stop the County Fund is an excellent one, and I cheerfully express my approval of it. It may not be altogether correct in principle, but, used judiciously, it has been of great assistance to us in carrying out reforms in certain sections.

As far as possible he should have some personal oversight over the erection of new buildings, the arrangement of seats, windows and blackboard surface, on all minor matters of detail in which his opinion should have weight.

Personal interviews with trustees and prominent ratepayers should be had, towards getting a small annual vote for apparatus.

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ble ler, I see no reason, in the districts where the school tax is more of a burden, why the aid of the teacher and pupils should not be called into requisition in providing means for the purchase of something more than the bare necessities of school apparatus.

An annual school entertainment for raising money for such purposes, where the actual work of the schools is not interfered with, seems a pleasant and harmless way of enlisting the sympathy of the parents in a good cause, and stimulating the pride of the pupils in their school surroundings. Very much has been done in New Brunswick in this way during the past few years, and also in the line of providing small school libraries.

The necessary adjunct of a good school house, is a good play-ground, and its importance must not be underestimated. No gymnastics prescribed can take the place of the free, voluntary, out-of-door exercise in which the activities have full play, and in which the emotion of pleasure is a strong element. "I am a great stickler for the old-fashioned recess," says U. S. Com. Harris. "The pupil running about, shouting and pushing his fellows." It is thus that the pupil is recreated and his nervous energy restored. The providing of suitable playgrounds is therefore obligatory.

The proper observance of Arbor Day should do much to beautify and improve the playground.

We strongly recommend and insist, as far as we are able, upon the teacher's preparation for the work of the day, and we approve most heartily of the statement of Dr. Arnold: "I wish my boys to drink from a running stream and not from a stagnant pool." May we not take unto ourselves another statement of that great man: "It is clear that in whatever it is our duty to-act these matters, it is also our duty to study," and come to the conclusion that some slight preparation for the day's work is a good thing for even a School Inspector. To know the subjects taught in the schools; to know those related things which closely concern the welfare, and comfort, as well as the growth of teachers and pupils under their care, says Supt. Sabin, are first duties of those engaged in the work of inspection. To have the notes of a former visit at hand, as regards discipline, apparatus and appliances, and progress and classification of pupils is at least necessary if the results of his work are to be of any lasting value. The pupils do

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not readily shake off their fear of the Inspector's office, but they have good memories for some things; they very readily detect oft repeated questions, and the spectacle of a school officer coming before the same pupils from time to time, asking the same questions, will surely excite the mirth of young minds.

Puzzling or catch questions should be avoided, and questioning should be of such a nature as to ascertain what the child actually knows, and not what he does not know. The latter is too large a field to dwell on.

"Brains," says Machiavelli, "are of three generations, those that understand of themselves, those that understand when another shows them, and those that understand neither of themselves nor by the showing of others." And the children one meets in the schools are somewhat illustrative of this statement.

Heredity and environment do much for the children of a certain section, and one cannot judge of the progress of a school, or of the teacher's work by comparing one school with another. To judge entirely by the results then will frequently be found misleading.

To watch carefully the classification, to see that pupils are not advanced with undue rapidity, and to be assured that the subjects of the course of instruction receive proper attention, are duties which it is hardly necessary for me to emphasize.

The key of an effective public school system, however, is not the appliances for school work, classification and course of instruction, or the school property, or the pupil, who is merely the material in the hands of the artificer. Reason and experience and all authorities agree that the teacher is the school, and that nothing can provide an efficient school but a competent teacher.

"There is an art of knowing, and also an art of teaching," said Cicero; but the statement that teachers are born not made, is fast becoming a sophism. "Modern educational thought and modern practice," says 'the Report of the Committee of Fifteen," in all sections where excellent schools are found, confirm the belief that there is a profound philosophy on which educational methods are based, and that careful study of this philosophy and its application, under expert guidance, are essential to making fit even the man born to teach." Few teachers, I believe, have an

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innate aptitude for the work, and much of the good work done in teaching is done by men and women whose interest is only acquired. It is hard to be compelled to earn a livelihood in an occupation for which one has no apparent liking, but Nature often supplies an interest and even an enthusiasm for work which is afterwards done zealously, and duties which at first are distasteful, through foreboding, by faithful performance become almost attractive. No amount of scholarship or Normal School training quite prepares the inexperienced for the change from the pupil's desk, to the responsibilities, properly realized, of the teacher's position, when the fear of failure and the hope of success alternate in the mind.

The duty of the supervising officer seems clear then towards the beginner. Encouragement seems but natural. I have always found the large majority of young teachers ready and anxious for help, and desirous of doing their work in the best manner, and the fact that a teacher does not produce good work at first is not always an indication that with greater knowledge of organization, and experience, he or she may not eventually succeed.

Criticism, in such cases, should be made in as kindly a spirit as possible, with the evident purpose of helping and suggesting, and not in a fault-finding manner, and no purpose is served in doing it openly within the hearing of the class or others. If there is anything worthy of commendation, why not say so, and leave the teacher with the feeling that she has received help rather than censure.

After some years' observation in the work, I have come to the conclusion that the failure to properly realize the possibilities of the work in the primary classes is one of the chief weaknesses in ungraded schools. In part it may result from inexperience. The primary teacher in our graded schools obtains such a degree of efficiency, and the teacher of the ungraded school is satisfied with so little, that the contrast in the work of these schools is marked indeed.

Horace Mann once said that little children love knowledge as naturally as they love honey, and to the objection that some do not appear to do so, he replied that neither would they like honey it it were poured into their ears. The mind has its own laws of

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growth like a plant or animal, and these must be regarded. Hurling facts at children's heads is not teaching. The task of feeding an infant is a more delicate operation than feeding a giant, and it is important to observe that primary teaching is a more delicate art than collegiate.

It is a fact that many inexperienced teachers do badly bungle in beginning this work. Look well to the primary classes, for they are the hope of the school, is a motto for every one engaged in the work of supervision.

It was Tallyrand who once said:—"the art of putting the right men in the right places is the first science of government." The art of placing the right teachers in the right schools is a science worthy of the study of a School Inspector, as the supply of schools with competent teachers is the essential thing in school administration. One who has had some experience, and in whom reposes the confidence of the school officials of his district has duties to fulfil in this connection for he is being continually met with the question: "Where can we get a teacher for our school?" I believe his sphere of influence should extend beyond even this.

Coming into daily contact with the pupils of his district, he is meeting the teachers of the future, and why should he not consider it his duty to encourage those whom he considers of good promise to prepare for the work of teaching?

For though we must consider scholarship a first requisite, and professional training second, it is undeniable that a good presence, tact, skill, and intelligence must be considered among the necessary requisites of our teachers. Granted then, that it is the Inspector's duty to aid in the selection of competent teachers, what is his duty towards those who can neither teach nor learn to teach,—the thoroughly incompetent?

It is a proper rule for a supervising officer that he should report annually for dismissal of incompetent teachers, though it is a disagreeable business at the best. But there are many districts and a dismissal in one means probably employment in another, where the standard is low, for this class of teachers will underbid and incite a competition of low salaries in their zeal to obtain a situation.

If it is a correct principle upon which to proceed, stopping the County Fund Grant when trustees do not do their duty, it would seem also just as right a principle that the Government Grant should be withheld when the teacher is thoroughly incompetent, or grossly neglectful. Payment of monies for public works or large contracts is withheld, in part, until it passes a certain inspection, and I see no reason why the same utilitarian principle should not be employed in this case.

At one time it was considered that this could be done under the Act in New Brunswick, but at present the best we can do is to try to relegate them to those sections where they can do the least harm.

"But teaching, like water," says Russell Lowell, "can rise no higher than its source, and like water again it has a lazy aptitude for running down hill unless a constant impulse is applied in the other direction." At least one-third of our teachers in country schools are teachers of but very little experience. Many of them are young, scarcely eighteen, with minds hardly matured and of very meagre scholastic attainments indeed, and isolation for them means stagnation.

What agencies may be employed for keeping these teachers abreast of the times (who need, not only further instruction, but the influence which comes from close contact with other minds.)? To urge them to attend the County Teachers' Institute; to encourage the formation of smaller teachers' associations around village centres, by means of which some of the best educational papers may come within the reach of as many teachers as possible, are within the line of duty of a School Inspector, and his power for good just here is important. He should advise the visiting of other schools as much as possible, especially where primary classes are taught by an experienced and successful teacher, the seeing other teachers at their regular work, and the preparation of their school work upon these lines of study. In Germany, lack of preparation for the day's work on the part of the teacher is considered so serious a fault, that the Government Inspectors, who are accustomed to drop in, in as unexpected a manner as possible, have the power to dismiss a teacher found simply hearing the lesson with a book in hand. Of the benefits of Teachers' Associations it is hardly necessary to speak. U. S. Com. Harris says, "that in them the individual teacher in his uneven development, strong in some points and weak in others, finds

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complementary strength in the experience of his fellow teachers strong where he is weak, and, perhaps, weak where he is strong." He urges the necessity of discussing thoroughly practical subjects, those of importance and interest to the teachers, and views with dismay the old fashioned essays; on "The Teacher and His Work," "Causes of Success or Failure in Teaching." "The Teacher's Ideal."

The Inspector's knowledge of the teachers and the district is an important aid towards the drawing up of an Institute program. In these gatherings there is the personal contact of mind with mind. The young teacher sees those who have grown up in the service, and who have gained a reputation for their work, and he profits by their experience. He meets his equals and measures their ideals by his own.

It may nor be uninteresting here to mention that in New Brunswick during the past twelve months, in those Counties in which Institutes were held, almost two-thirds of the teachers engaged in active work attended, and at the Provincial Institute, fully 74 per cent. of the total number of teachers were present.

High appreciation of education is said to be one of the most precious traditions of our English speaking people. The interest which the people have in their own children is large, and the anxiety of the communities in education is usually great enough that public sentiment may ordinarily be relied upon to take proper measures for the administration of schools. Nothing can take the place of a public spirit in this connection, of a sincere desire for good schools, and a fair knowledge of what good schools are, and what will make them. If, in any case this is not so, there is little hope of an efficient school.

When the agitation for free schools was in progress, the cause of education had the assistance of many prominent citizens, who, when the battle was decided and the victory won, stepped aside, and left the work to be carried on by the teachers and other school officials, but the school did not cease to need their active support. The aid of the friends of education of every class is needed in the rural districts and smaller towns, particularly in the election of competent men to represent them on our district school boards. We need the active co-operation of the less educated, and should take every means of informing even the illiterate of the work that is being done for their children.

For we know that the public school has, in some instances, fallen into the hands of the veritable Philistines, and too often we find those in control of the school administration destitute of even a consciousness of the need of the district. We are familiar, too, with the good man as a school officer who feels he has a charitable mission to perform, who thinks that the position should be given to the applicant who comes first, to the girl who has a mother to support, to the graduate of the school irrespective of merit, or to a member of the same church as himself; an excellent man for all other purposes possibly, than the employing of teachers. And we also know that personal interests, indifference, and mercenary motives do in some instances degrade the school, and that a competition of low salaries, rather than merit, is often invited in filling the position of teacher.

I once heard a leading educationalist in the neighboring Republic, say, "that the greatest work which Horace Mann did for Massachusetts, greatest because most lasting, was in going before the teachers and parents at their educational gatherings and talking to them in plain, unmistakeable language concerning the privileges of parents, the duties of teachers, and the welfare of the schools. There was no display of oratory, but his illustrations were strong and homely, and reached the hearts and consciences of the common people, and left impressions as enduring as life itself."

As the Inspector is the only school official other than the teacher that the people of many sections know anything about, he can not easily shake off the duty of the hour in this regard, and must consider himself a means towards the end of promoting a healthful educational sentiment. To excite a healthy public spirit, and to obtain the active support of the class that are neither educated or seriously interested in education, are duties worthy of the serious thought of all engaged in this work. It is necessary for him to study the district and its needs, and if he is to have weight and influence it will not do for him to rush madly through his territory from school to school. He must know, to some extent, the people. We would not say that it is necessary to address large gatherings. All have not the ability, and there are many officers doing thorough conscientious work, who shrink from the public platform. But it is a necessity for him to confer

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with Boards or Trustees, to suggest improvement when he desires, to advise as to the operation of the law, to look after affairs from a business standpoint, to urge the employment of none but competent teachers, and these are duties towards the district, the fulfilment of which are within his powers.

My experience, however, does not lead me to believe that the small district system is an entire success. None of us, I presume, are so in love with any system as to term it perfect, and without a flaw.

It is certain that much of an Inspector's valuable time is occupied in settling trivial disputes, but waged so fiercely, however (resulting perhaps from local jealousies), that the real educational welfare of the district is entirely lost sight of. I think it a reasonable statement to kay that the system of small school districts adds to the difficulties of a School Inspector in the discharge of his duties. It is easy stating other objections. responsible also for a very uneven distribution of the burden of school taxation. Two districts may be situated bordering on each other and the valuations may be \$10,000 and \$60,000, yet frequently the poorer district, at a considerable sacrifice, maintains as efficient a school as the rich one. It is often impossible to secure school officers that are in any way qualified for their work, and the mere ability to write with painful effort, a scrawling letter of complaint to the Inspector is about all the qualification that some trustees possess, Again, in thinly settled districts members of the same family have been known to form the majority of the School Board, with perhaps the daughter of the house in the position of teacher.

The Annual School Meeting is in many instances a weight on educational progress. It is sometimes the storm centre around which family feuds and neighbors' jealousies converge, and there is more trouble and discord in the maintenance of a school in a small district of \$10,000 valuation, than there is in the whole administration of the educational affairs of a city of 20,000 population.

It has been said that the school district was a little republic, and that its members learned the art of government in its meetings. But it has proved nothing of the sort. It is frequently difficult to get three men together to transact the ordinary routine

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business, unless some quarrel is on the carpet, and then the school house is crowded with the adherents of the two factions political or otherwise. It has outlived its usefulness in the past, and it offers little hope of improvement in the future.

But the establishing of Parish or County School Boards, and thus centralizing the power brings us face to face with another question, the concentration of the small, and therefore expensive country schools into graded schools with uniform taxation, and greater facilities for supervision, and I am sure we will listen with much interest to the paper on this subject.

We are told that in France the Government insist through their supervising officers, that the children in the schools should be taught, to the question, "And who gave you all these good things?" to answer, "The State."

In a treatise on teaching patriotism in schools, a certain Col. Balch, of New York, has elaborated some plan for its accomplishment by the use of flags and badges among the pupils.

It is hardly necessary to state that such methods of attempting to produce or develop a true love of country, or a proper patriotic spirit, are unhealthy and unwise.

The common school, however, is as broad as the nation, and necessary to its existence. That the school then should teach patriotism, that its influence in this respect should be highly estimated, that education should aim to develop character necessary to the proper performance of the rights and duties of citizenship, are facts admitted by all. "We must begin higher up," says Emerson, "in Education." It is not too much to say that there is a duty and a power in supervision here.

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QUALIFICATIONS OF SCHOOL INSPECTORS.

By W. S. CARTER, M. A., St. JOHN, N. B.

[Inspector of Schools, Inspectoral District, No. 4, N. B.]

The subject assigned me is one that would obviously have been more appropriately dealt with by a superintendent, who is by reason of his position able as it were to take a bird's eye view of the whole matter, or by a teacher, who would be able to throw some lights and shades from the standpoint of the supervised.

The whole subject has been exhaustively treated by Mr. A. W. Edson, State Agent of the School Board of Massachusetts, in his report upon "Supervision" and by the Committee of Twelve in that admirable report upon rural schools.

While I cannot hope to add to what has been so ably set forth in these documents I may perchance be able to throw a few side lights upon the subject, embraced in an experience of ten or twelve years in both rural and urban work. The qualifications of any officer arise so necessarily from his duties that I hope I may be excused if I at times trench upon the latter in bringing into view the former.

In these days of rapid development and progress along all lines, and especially in educational work, we naturally turn to the example of the United States, where we do not often search in vain for enlightenment and inspiration.

In the matter of expert school supervision, however, we in Canada seem to occupy a position distinctly in advance of the great country to the south of us, where it cannot be said to be at all general in the rural districts, and is still absent in many of the cities and towns.

In Canada on the other hand, I think there is no province but what has made provision for supervision dating from the period that state aid was first given the schools. Skilled supervision, it is true, may not have always been insisted upon in the past, but at present there is no province in so far as my knowledge extends, that does not require from its Inspectors scholastic qualifications, at least as extensive as those possessed by those holding the highest grade of teaching certificate, together with a varying amount of experience.

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and ach aly esof ner ay One very noticeable difference in supervision between Canada and the United States, is the manner of appointment of supervisors in all departments of school work. In the former the State makes the appointments. This arises naturally from the fact that the the government allows such large grants in aid of the schools and it follows quite as naturally that such money should not be appropriated without reasonable certainty that it will be properly expended. By means of this power the State has the right to stipulate that certain qualifications shall be insisted upon on the part of its officers.

In the United States the office is an elective one in most cases and expert qualifications are secondary to party affilliation and personal popularity. By this means competent men are not always secured,—and the lack of permanence in the position deters many from seeking it. In the majority of cases too, supervision is merely subsidiary to some other occupation and does not receive the full-time and attention of the appointee. He may be a clergyman, doctor, or business man. In Canada, it is needless to say, the office is a permanent one practically. No one holding it, is permitted to engage in any other occupation, and the complaint of interference on the part of politicians, so frequently made in the United States, has not as yet entered, I am glad to say, into educational work in Canada.

As to the necessity of school supervision it has not been questioned in any quarter in which intelligent attention has been brought to bear. From time to time some aspiring parish politicians seek to make capital at the expense of supervisors, chiefly with regard to what they affect to consider the very large salaries paid them in comparison with those paid the rural teacher. This taken in connection with the scant attention the importance of the work has seemed to elicit in more influential circles leads me to give the opinions of some experts as to the value and importance of school inspection.

One of our Chief Superintendents gave it as his opinion that inspection was the "right arm of the school service."

Supt. Stetson, of Maine, where recently some very progressive legislation has been passed making provision for expert supervision, regards it as the most important school enactment that pre skil

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law very ever has been passed for fifty years, and says in connection therewith:

"The distinguishing feature of all industrial enterprises of the present time, that involve large interests and are in charge of skilful and successful managers, is that the work is under the direction of trained superintendents.

Business men have learned that it is for their financial interest to have their workmen perform their labours under the direction of experts. It has been demonstrated that money devoted to this service, is the most remunerative that is invested in the business. What has thus been found true of industrial and business enterprises, is equally, if not in larger measure, true of school systems."

In the report of the Committee of Twelve on rural schools the following statement is made:

"Professional supervision is to-day regarded as an essential factor in our school system. It has been observed that the schools that are closely supervised by men who thoroughly know their business at once respond to the influence of this supervision. Expert supervision has resulted in systematic, orderly and well directed instruction. It is a matter of remark that the most competent superintendents have the best schools, and that cities noted for their excellence in school work have attained this pre-eminence through the medium of intelligent supervision. This is true also of those countries, which have come under the same influence."

"There is no other agency in our school system that has done so much for the improvement of our schools in organization, and in methods of instruction and discipline as the superintendency."

PROF. DAVID K. Goss.

[Superintendent of Public Schools, Indianapolis, Ind.]

I know of no city that has taken high rank as to all its work that does not owe its reputation directly to wise supervision. There is a popular notion that an abled bodied person who can secure a license to teach should be allowed to teach the school in his own way, without being hampered or hindered by supervision. This is a proposition, which, if alleged concerning a student of law or medicine, would only excite a smile. I believe that the very best of teachers require supervision to keep them at their best even more than does an indifferent teacher.

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sive perthat Opposition to competent supervision is one of the first reactions in all cities, and a reaction against which the schools are never safe; but they who attempt to strike it down offer nothing in its place except to turn the school over wholly to the grade teacher. If that is done the schools of the city will have not one advantage over the schools scattered all over the country without supervision. Any one can tell who has any ideal by which to judge of relative standards that within thirty minutes' walk of the best schools in the state are to be found schools and teachers who are fifty years behind the times, and one explanation is that the latter schools have no competent supervision and there is no experienced person who has a direct and intimate relation who can hold up a mirror to their difficulties and shortcomings and point out to them the positive road to immediate betterment.

DR. J. M. RICE, NEW YORK CITY.

Nothing that has done so much toward the advancement of the schools as the employment of an ample number of assistant superintendents specially qualified to act as critic teachers. I am firmly convinced, that there is no single step so well calculated to raise the standard of the schools, as the appointment of thoroughly competent critic teachers.

While it is frequently supposed that the principal of a building is the proper person to act in that capacity, experience has proved that the results are not the same. The office of assistant superintendent is one that cannot be replaced even by the employment of school principals, who devote their entire time to the supervision of the teachers in their charge.

SUPT. W. A. HESTER, EVANSVILLE, IND.

I feel that no stroke would be so disastrous where a high standard of public education has been attained in schools, as the striking down of supervision with nothing to take its place. Complaint against supervision is one of the commonest things in any school where supervision exists. The reason for this is very apparent. If the teacher, who is indifferently educated, or unskilful, or lazy, could but rid himself of supervision he would then have peace; peace at the expense of lives of children of whom he has control. Then there is the general notion that if the

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salary of the supervisor could be saved, the taxpayer would be so much better off. But no man who has great personal interest will listen to such argument. The man who has a manufacturing establishment employing 500 men does not dismiss his foreman unless to appoint another.

There are some men always in enterprises of industry, in commerce, or education who see farther and have clearer insight, who are wiser and more skilful than their fellows, and these are in all reason the people to direct the enterprise. In this there is no exception. And that town or city is fortunate that agrees to trust the one who has the greatest measure of success."

In my own province the qualifications required of all candidates for the office of Inspector are that he shall have taught for a period of three years and shall have obtained a license of the grammar or highest class. These requirements, I may add, are strictly adhered to and of the six Inspectors employed at present, each one holds in addition a degree in Arts from some university.

The qualifications required of an Inspector may be designated as business or administrative and professional.

Under the former head come those outside of school work and embraced in the school district, school houses, grounds, premises and outbuildings, and in connection therewith he should know something of heating, lighting and ventilation in reference to improved plans for school houses. He should also have a knowledge of the most approved apparatus and be able to advise in its selection and purchase,

In addition to all this there are endless school difficulties to adjust in relation to school bounds, the interpretation of school law in all its bearings, disputes among ratepayers, school officers and teachers. All of these require qualities of tact and business ability, which if properly employed, often save districts in a single year no small part of his salary.

His professional duties and qualifications relate to trustees, teachers, pup and the public.

In my own district I make it a point, when possible to meet the school board, or some members of it, at each visit to a district. I am then able to keep in touch with the district and to make suggestions and give advice, which if not always carried out to

the letter, nevertheless, I hope do much good. Brunswick an Inspector's recommendations are not carried out, the county fund of the district may upon his recommendation be withheld until they are, and if a school trustee does not perform the duties required of him by law, the Inspector may upon certain conditions remove him from office. Both these penalties are not unfrequently put in force; but once in the same parish usually suffices for a length of time. An Inspector can be most useful to a school board in assisting it in the selection and retention of good teachers and in determining those who are unworthy of further Speaking for my own district, nearly all the school boards of the most intelligent and progressive districts consult me as to the selection of their teachers. This should not only be an advantage to the district, but it acts upon the teachers as a stimulus, inciting the ambitious to greater efforts to deserve promotion and relegating the indifferent to more remote and less particular school sections, where one cannot be always as regretful as he should considering the business methods adopted to secure teachers and the scale of salaries paid so that they sometimes or often secure service even lower than the remuneration given.

If an Inspector is energetic and evinces interest in all departments of his work he may mould his school districts in many beneficial directions. He may influence the architecture of the school buildings and induce good plans for ventilation, lighting and heating; and here I must step aside to say that the time has come when much more attention should be given to these matters than in the past. It costs little more or takes no more material to build a house convenient and in good taste than in the rough, but who can measure the effect upon the children and community of externals?

These matters should not be left alone to the Inspectors but should be more carefully attended to by the state. We have plans for school houses supplied by the department of education but they need modernizing. The matters of heating, ventilation and lighting, which are receiving so much attention and are the subject of legislation abroad, receive little attention in Canada, with one result at least, that more pupils are compelled each year to wear spectacles. It is said that "the work of an Inspector may be judged by his school houses." Whether this be true or not I

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think he should insist that every house in his district should be kept neatly painted, that the grounds should be made as ornal mental as the nature of the soil and surroundings permit, that cleanliness, which is not the least important part of a child's education, should be insisted upon, and that Arbor day should mean more than a mere cleaning up, but have a useful observation that will influence not only the pupils but the community. It is not wise either to ignore sentiment. In the United States they lay much stress upon patriotism in the work of the schools and it stands them in good stead in a crisis like the present. In some States it is the law that the American flag shall float from each school house every day. We might imitate them with advantage in regard to flags, and something in that direction has already been attempted. In one of my counties, Charlotte, I estimate that onehalf the school houses are provided with flags and in that part of it which is on the border of the United States there is not a school that I recall, that is unprovided with a flag. In that county, moreover, there is a plan for regulating the flying of the flag, approved by the County Institute.

The Inspector may often influence public is timent in the election of trustees who have a real interest in school matters, and who will not be guided in the selection of teachers by relationship, for some benefit to be derived from self-interest, either business or professional. He may do something to counteract the pernicious theory that it is to the interest of the ratepayer and almost a right possessed by him that "home talent" shall be employed irrespective of merit or the rights of other taxpayers.

While I am convinced that the majority of school boards is well disposed to act for the best interest of the schools, there is much work for the Inspector among the minority and I sometimes regret, that, as in the towns, the Board of Education had not reserved the power to appoint one or more of the school trustees of the country districts. Do the best you can, strive to enlighten them all you may, and there still will remain those who require guardians. If it were not for school inspection there would be many districts that would make little or no provision for schools; there would be no course of instruction followed, little or no apparatus and no outbuildings. Such things are very discouraging after a quarter of a century of free schools, but knowing that these

difficulties are to be reckoned with, should only incite us to greater effort. I only wish sometimes that some of our legislators could ride around in the carriage with me for a month or two.

His relation to Teachers.—It has been said, "as is the teacher so is the school," and it may with equal truth be asserted as is the supervisor so are the teachers. Dr. J. A. McLellan, an Ontario Inspector, says: "Good teachers are indispensable; equally so are good Inspectors. The teacher makes the school it is said; in our experience, if the Inspector does not make the school, he has a mighty influence in moulding the teacher."

Mr. L. H. Jones, Supt. of Cleveland, Ohio, says:

"He who can inspire his teachers to place themselves under this influence of the highest and best, and hold themselves there of choice, has solved the problem of securing good teaching. There is no need to grow discouraged if ideals are not always reached in daily practice; they tend to realize themselves, and each day's earnest effort but brings the good time nearer."

An Inspector, above everything, must possess individuality coupled with judgment, such as will enable him to discern the same quality in others. He will recognize the strong teacher and encourage her particular bent. As he must be the equal of his best teachers in professional qualifications, so he must not be surpassed by them in progressiveness. The policy of drift may end anywhere. He should be a leader not a follower, he had much better gain the reputation of being too advanced than too conservative.

If he is qualified for his work, he must be a student of educational work, past and present. He should know something of psychology with special relation to child study. He must have had a successful experience in teaching, especially in elementary grades. The Committee of Twelve, says: "No supervisor is so good as he who has climbed from the lowest rounds and knows all the steps."

He has, through reading and otherwise, a close acquaintance with the best schools of the day. He not only attends educational institutes but he is a leader among them, at least in his own district.

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Mr. Edson in his tract on supervision, says:

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The value of skilled supervision rests largely in the ability of the superintendent to select and retain good teachers, and to assist all, both strong and weak, to the best results possible. He secures a list of desirable candidates, examines carefully into their qualifications, corresponds with persons able to speak from personal knowledge of their worth and work, visits them in the schoolroom, and in a variety of ways exercises a judicious care in their He places each teacher where she is most likely to succeed, visits her often, suggests good methods and encourages her in every way in his power. He is a strength and inspiration to the entire teaching force. Superior teachers are recognized and upheld, mediocre ones are stimulated to better preparations and greater efforts, while those who have no ability, who are hopelessly poor, are soon crowded out of the service. Many of our best teachers refuse to teach in towns having no superintendent, -they recognize the value of the help he is able to render.

In the school room the superintendent follows closely the work of each teacher, notes mistakes, omissions, and weaknesses, and gives occasional tests and teaching exercises. This constant con tact with the schools enables the superintendent to understand and appreciate the difficulties of teachers far better than can any amount of reading and theorizing. Even a brief visit enables a superintendent to observe the spirit and order of the school and the value of the teaching.

The superintendent confers frequently with his teachers at general or grade meetings. Here he unifies and strengthens effort, compares the work of teachers in the same grade and of several grades, considers with them the ends and means in all school exercises, presents model lessons, interprets the various steps in the course of study, encourages and directs professional reading and study. Teachers' meetings without a superintendent to direct are rare and of little value."

The tactful supervisor may exercise a potent influence in securing for teachers an adequate remuneration for good work, which, I regret to say, is seldom given at present. The day has long passed since people believed, as has been said, "that if a teacher possessed muscle enough to subdue the big boys and frighten the little ones, he was fit to teach the average district school, though

he might be as innocent of scholarship as his instruction was destitute of usefulness."

To-day the school service commands the abilities of some of the brightest and most talented of our youth, and it would be a great misfortune if at any time the scale of remuneration sank so low as to fail to attract such young men and women. There is a great responsibility resting on all educational workers in this matter. I am one of those who firmly believe that in order to command good salaries, we must deserve them, and I have faith that the average ratepayer will be responsive. But we must first educate public sentiment to appreciate and recognize such work. One reason, I believe, for the smaller salaries paid in Canada than in the United States is the spirit of dependence that has arisen and self-reliance destroyed by State aid, which I do not consider has been given too liberally but which has been given without exacting a proportionate effort on the part of the taxpayer; in other words, where state aid is given it should be coupled with a condition that a minimum amount should be raised by the district.

Teachers often clamour for increased government allowance, and this seems the most direct means of reaching the desired end. But what has been the result in some cases where this has been done? It has been to diminish proportionately local effort, and the teachers remain no better off than before.

Teachers themselves have had more to do with the low scale of salaries paid in many localities than any other agency. There seems to be no professional sense of etiquette among them such as is found among those in other walks in life. They underbid one another for vacant positions and I grieve to say do not always wait for a vacancy. They in many instances cause the reduction of salaries of others without being in any way benefited themselves. They seem to place no adequate value upon their services. Salaries are not difficult to lower but very difficult to raise.

The Inspector can do much not only to influence trustees to place a fair value upon the work they have to do but in discountenancing teachers who are guilty of unprofessional acts can also induce teachers to help themselves in this respect. At the last meeting of the Charlotte County Institute a committee was appointed to investigate complaints of teachers who had been the victims of interference on the part of others, with power to publish

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Another remedy, which I believe may have some effect, has already been started in my district, viz., to organize the teachers of each parish into associations to embrace school officers and ratepayers, especially the mothers. The object of these associations is not only mutual improvement, but social and intellectual as well. By this means it is hoped that teachers, trustees and parents will be educated as to the scope and nature of their work and responsibilities and will reach a better appreciation of the limitations and conditions existing.

These associations can do much to establish reading clubs and libraries, to hold public meetings in various parts of the parishes, and otherwise assume the position that teachers should aspire to in any community. By such means as these teachers can become leaders where they are at present only followers. I have usually inaugurated these associations by a public meeting, and I have already had several of these, the interest in and attendance at which have, without exception, been most gratifying. I have usually called the meeting after my work in the parish had been completed, by this means the co-operation of trustees and teachers has been secured and very general notice has been given, music and additional speakers provided for, and the objects made known. All have been most interested and in no case has the capacity of the hall been equal to the attendance. I think this a fertile field to work in and hope for the best results in the future.

This absence of cohesion on the part of teachers is the source of their greatest weakness. Even in the largest cities in New Brunswick no association of teachers exists. They do not meet to discuss difficulties, they do not even know one another socially. They have neither professional libraries nor reading clubs. No one reckons upon them as a power in the community. Their claims do not attract serious consideration. They will not appreciate the power they have until the politicians begin to take them into account. The time has come when all this should be changed and I see no one in a better position to take the lead than the Inspector.

An Inspector can also do much good in inciting teachers to take an interest in their apparatus, furniture and appliances. By

a timely suggestion he may induce them to take the initiative in providing some entertainment to improve these, and there is scarcely a district in my territory but what is indebted to teachers for improvements of various kinds. Furniture, maps, globes, charts, slate, black boards, painting and decoration, and improvement to grounds and fences as well as beginning school libraries and procuring school flags. There is a danger that districts will be educated to depend upon the teachers to do this, but I think it will correct itself. These school entertainments do good in addition to improvement alone. They bring teachers, pupils and parents to work together for a common object and thus induce an interest in school work. It is seldom an Inspector appeals in vain to an energetic teacher, to make an effort of this kind.

His relation to Pupils.—An Inspector in his rounds among the schools has a good opportunity to distinguish bright pupils and his influence and advice can often be used to induce such to remain at school, to enter college or prepare for normal school. He can interest their parents and may often influence the school boards to make better provision for the school in view of their aspirations.

He can discourage irregular attendance and persuade normal school candidates to aim high and not to seek to enter at too early an age. He can often take much responsibility off the teachers shoulders in the matter of preparation and fitness of students for examinations and assume responsibility in cases of non-promotion and differences of various kinds.

His relations to the Public.—Permit me again to quote from Mr. Edson:

The Superintendent often renders the schools invaluable service by interesting the people, the fathers and mothers, tax-payers, and voters in their present condition and needed improvements. He gains their attention and support by frequent teachers' meetings, where all interested can learn of what is being attempted, and of modern education,—its purpose, means, and methods; by evening meetings for general discussion of the work of the schools and the relations of the people to them; by school exhibitions, where some of the more tangible results of school work can be displayed: by arranging special visiting days where the regular dàily work of the schools can be observed; and by interesting the

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daily and weekly press in reporting school news and abstracts of addresses at teachers' meetings, institutes, and conventions. When people hear much of the schools, visit them often and appreciate their needs, they appropriate liberally for their support,

The Committee on Rural Schools, says:

"The Supervisor can exert a wonderful influence in bringing the fireside to the support of the teacher. To do this he must be able to educate the people concerning their relation to the school, as to sending the children regularly, as to providing necessary material, such as books, &c., as to allowing every teacher to pursue those methods of instruction which his skill and experience suggest as best suited to the wants of the school.

At agricultural meetings, at town rallies, at educational "barbecues," at commencements, at spring festivals, at farmer's institutes he should embrace every opportunity of saying a word for the schools in order to arouse the people and interest them in the whole system of education. The columns of the country paper afford the Supervisor a very ready means of reading to the people. The press gives a larger audience though it enforces a shorter address. A little every week will eventually build up a healthy sentiment in the country and educate parents as well as children."

We often complain of the lack of interest on the part of parents. But what are we doing to enlighten them? Nothing at all in most places. In my own province there is no means of direct communication between the department and the trustees even. The annual report does not reach all school boards, and a semi-annual circular formerly sent to them all was some time ago discontinued on the ground of economy, it being designated as "fire works." In Nova Scotia you have an admirable semi-annual circular which is sent to every district. In Maine, Supt. Stetson, who seems to have investigated every detail of school work, issues pamphlets from time to time which cannot fail to have an influence very potent in the future of the schools.

I notice also that the local papers in that state have special columns which are devoted to child study and that many granges or farmer's meetings take this up as one of the subjects of discussion.

The work of a progressive teacher and modern methods are in vain if foisted upon an unenlightened community. We must all

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set to work and work together to educate public sentiment and to remove what at present is the strongest barrier against true progress in education.

A very necessary qualification in an Inspector is that he should be a good public speaker. No written addresses will do at a public meeting. Most of us consider that we already have quite sufficient to occupy our time without working nights in addition to days of very long hours, but our work will not be effective until we hold more public meetings as is being done in these days for the promotion of all aims and objects along kindred lines.

I shall mention one more function of expert supervision which necessarily arises from the nature of the work we should do and the qualifications we should possess. I refer to the appointment and removal of teachers. In the cities in America where the schools have reached their highest pitch of excellence, I might instance Cleveland and Minneapolis, the responsibility for the teaching staff rests entirely upon the Superintendent. He alone appoints and removes, and this should be the logical result whereever Superintendents are employed.

I quote Sarah C. Brooks, Supt. schools, St. Paul, Minn. :

One function more belongs to the Superintendent as Supervisor, I refer to the selection and discharge of teachers. Having set the standard of work, no one else can be so competent as he to find the right people to do this work. A poor teacher sometimes saves a good school by failing to be re-appointed. No one knows these opportunities better than the Superintendent who has seen her teach, and who has faithfully tried to make her capable of doing the work well. Whatever other complications may grow out of the matter, I believe it essential to good schools that the Superintendent should, either by law, or by consent of the school board, have the selection and assignment of teachers. This involves, of course, the promotion of teachers for improvement and the discharge of the incompetent. This procedure may sometimes work to the end of shortening the official life of the Superintendent; but even this would not be an unmitigated evil in some systems. At least while he did remain in office he would be able to direct the work to some purpose; and when he was gone, the ground would be clear for his successor."

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I do not think I can conclude more appropriately as to the qualifications of a school Inspector than by quoting again from Supt. Stetson:

To superintend schools intelligently one needs scholarship, professional training and experience in the work of the school-He must know the subject studied, the methods used in giving instruction, and be familiar with the history, science and art of education. He must not only be familiar with the facts taught in text-books, but he must also be a student of science, art, literature, history, economy. He must know what the world has done, what it is doing, what it is capable of doing. He must know men, things, means. He must be strong of mind, rugged of body, rich in personality. His work must be his absorbing To it he must give his entire time and devote his best thought. He must study schools; he must study teachers; he must study children. One cannot do and be all these things unless he has an aptitude for the work, has prepared for it, and gives his whole time to it."

One or two thoughts more, pertinent to this subject. Most Inspectors have too much work assigned them, to leave a strong impress upon the schools. For my own part I have about four hundred schools and districts, half of which are graded, requiring one visit per year and the balance county districts, requiring by law, two visits per year. An average of two visits per teaching day will not complete my work, I rarely make more than three. Sometimes I cover my territory in the year at others I am unable to do so. It is needless to say that this allows no time for office work, I attend to that along the way. Correspondence is attended to evenings, Saturdays and occasionally, I must confess, I have written a letter or two on Sundays.

School Inspectors are not adequately remunerated for their services.

The qualifications and training required of them are certainly equal to those of other professional men. They must maintain a social standing in accord with their position. If absent from home, as they are the larger portion of their time, they not unnaturally desire to patronize a good hotel. If engaged in country work, while I am glad to acknowledge many instances of kindness and hospitality, I make it an invariable rule to pay my

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visor, et the o find saves these her loing ut of erin-

es, of ediswork ent; ems. lirect way. We have to support our families while absent and a horse and all its belongings are the tools of our trade. We perform our duties during the time of life when our earning power is the greatest and no retiring allowance is yet in sight.

It think in view of the scant time Inspectors have for self-improvement and of studying the work of school systems outside their own districts that it would be judicious economy for each Province, to send one or more of its Supervisors by turn every year to other places in order that they may see what is being done elsewhere and to report upon it at institutes and other conventions on their return.

The Inspector's qualifications and work must be a potent factor in carrying into effect many measures of reform and progress that have already or soon will come to be features in educational work, I may mention Centralization of Schools, Parish School Boards, Free Text Books, Compulsory Attendance, Curfew Laws, Superannuation of Teachers, Higher pay for better work, &c.

In order to pave the way for these changes public sentiment must be prepared and educated and to effect this I would suggest in addition to public meetings and teacher's associations, that the co-operation of the press be enlisted, as it must prove the most powerful agency of all, if systematically utilized. To this end teachers associations should make provision for obtaining the use of space in the columns of newspapers in various localities and should from among themselves appoint those to deal with these matters regularly and in the most effective manner. Educational papers do not reach the masses and it is to be regretted that it is so. If we wish to impress the public, we must do as others are doing. We may have to provide means to do this, but it will be as "bread cast upon the waters."

And finally the time is not far distant when the Superintendent's powers will not be confined to advice, suggestion and recommendation, but he will be assigned the duties that the name implies. This must be done if we are to progress, there is no stationary state, if we do not go forward we must go back.

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PEDAGOGICS AS A UNIVERSITY SUBJECT.

By J. G. HUME, M. A., PH. D.,

[Professor of Ethics and History of Philosophy, University of Toronto].

To treat the subject of my address exhaustively would be to treat it exhaustingly—in August. I shall content myself and please you better by merely indicating briefly the main outlines, the chief problems for solution, leaving time for further discussion.

I propose to speak first of the present status of pedagogics in the University and out of it, then indicate defects and difficulties in the present arrangement, and lastly consider the advisability of a further extension of Pedagogics in University teaching.

Looking at the subject of the professional training of Teachers from the standpoint of a graduate of a University, we may note three different conditions which the University graduate finds in different localities, when he proposes to devote himself to the noble profession of teaching:

I. He may still find the old state of affairs prevailing, where a graduate of a University was supposed to be at once ready to assume the responsibilities and efficiently perform the duties of an instructor without any further preparation or training.

II. Then we reach a higher conception of the office of teacher, a truer appreciation of its importance and difficulty, and some professional training is provided for the graduate. But he has no special provision made for his special needs. The graduate is simply provided for along with those who have never studied in a University, whose range of reading and culture is more limited, who have not made the sacrifices in time, money, in effort, that the graduate has made These two classes are joined unequally together in a Normal School, or some modification of it called a Normal College.

III. Lastly we reach the higher standpoint where the special needs of the graduate are fully recognized and an effort is made to provide for his professional training as a graduate, either by (a) a system of elective courses during the later years of his University course, or (b) in connection with post-graduate courses conducted by the University.

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The objections against the first state of affairs, where no professional training is provided for the graduate, are so manifest that I need scarcely pause to mention them before this Association of experienced teachers. In most of the places where the graduate is not professionally trained, the teacher with less non-professional culture who has never attended a University is carefully trained in Model and Normal Schools. Now it is almost self-evident that non-professional studies should precede professional. It certainly appears to be a curious arrangement to find side by side a great deal of training of those who possess very little knowledge and none at all of those who possess considerable knowledge. On the one hand training without knowledge, on the the other knowledge without training.

I have nothing to say against the training given in Model and Normal Schools, except this, that in many cases it would be better for the boys and girls in those institutions if, they were compelled to pursue their regular non-professional studies a few years more, and then, with more maturity, with more material to work upon, they could with more profit to themselves, and more benefit to the teaching profession, proceed to consider methods of utilizing and applying the knowledge they have acquired in the guidance of younger seekers after knowledge.

Need I say anything about the mistake of supposing that because a man has successfully passed the several examinations of a University course, he is thereby fitted at once to successfully attempt to educate others? Certainly, like the rich young man in Scripture, he may not be far from his goal, but one thing he lacks, and wise counsel would advise him to supply this deficiency. It is indeed true that acquaintance with the subject to be taught and recollection of the methods employed by his own instructors and a determination to experiment for himself will do much for him. But he might be better provided for, and his pupils would be more justly dealt with if he were first professionally trained. It is true that in some of the Universities, where no special professional training is required of graduates, courses are provided that are very helpful for professional training. Standing midway. as it were, between the usual theoretical course and the usual practical one we have such studies as the psychological and philosophical disciplines, and if these were carefully followed by

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the undergraduate who intends to teach, his lack of professional training would not be so glaring. But I find that, as a rule, where no professional training is required of the graduate, no provision is made for making compulsory these semi-professional disciplines, and highly trained specialists in languages, in science, in mathematics, receive their diplomas as teachers without any professional training and without any acquaintance with the psychological and philosophical courses of study, that lead the student to turn his attention from the topic to be studied to the subject -the pupil-the person who is to be taught. In some cases those psychological and philosophical disciplines are an essential part of the course for all undergraduates; but as colleges grow, as specialization advances, the plan of making some general course compulsory is gradually replaced by some system of electives, and it would seem to be wise to have these courses elective for the general student, but compulsory to the intending teacher. As a matter of fact they are of very great service to those who intend to enter the ministry or the legal profession, in both of which professions an insight into human nature is a prerequisite of success.

This has been very generally recognized by the theologians, who are often supposed to be less enterprising and progressive than the self-satisfied scientists. The student of theology is generally found preparing himself for the knots and tangles of theology and the practical difficulties of pastoral supervision, by a preliminary study of Logic, Metaphysics, Ethics, and Psychology. In some cases the lawyer does likewise, but when it comes to the teacher, it is too often the case that he ignores these disciplines and supposes that he is ready to teach when he has made himself proficient in his chosen specialty—Classics, Modern Languages, Mathematics, or Natural Science.

When we come to those who recognize the need of professional training for the graduate, we must acknowledge this as a step forward. But where the professional training for the graduate is given along with those who have never matriculated into a University, we must condemn this method of training as inadequate and ill-advised.

Two classes so heterogeneous in their non-professional standing cannot be successfully trained together. It imposes an

intolerable burden upon the instructors in such Normal Colleges to adapt their teaching to these two widely separated classes.

Besides this, it is unfair to the graduate who has sacrificed time, money and mental worry, extending over years, to class him with those who have made none of these sacrifices. To ask the graduate to wait for these weaker brethren to "catch up" is a flagrant injustice.

Furthermore, it is resented by the graduate. He has valued his University Education so highly that he has been willing to spend very much to obtain it. The majority of students in Universities all over the world are working their own way through college, and it is a matter of great self-sacrifice. The graduate naturally resents a treatment of his University course which seems to regard it as of no account. Perhaps this, though seldom expressed, has had more to do than anything else with the continued prevalence of the former plan of asking from the graduate no further sacrifice in attendance at a training institute. I am satisfied that at the present time the method of sending the graduate back to be trained with those who are not even matriculants, seeming to the graduate like ante-matriculation study instead of post-graduate study, leads many of the cleverest graduates to refuse to enter the training institute. They migrate to other colleges if they desire to proceed further along the line of teaching, they undertake post-graduate studies in the specialties they have learnt to love, graduate as Ph. D.'s, and enter the sphere of University teaching, without any professional training in teaching.

I value highly this movement towards post-graduate study. But why should not the professional training of a teacher take rank with such post-graduate study, during the period through which it extends, and only less in dignity and importance to the extent that it is shorter in time?

Perhaps too, the fact that so many of the Instructors in Universities have never had any professional training, helps to explain the indifference of the Universities to this matter in those cases where such indifference is found.

Graduates who are taught Psychology, etc., along with tyros are led to despise these subjects. On the other hand the self-satisfied teacher with some experience in teaching, when he sees

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in E dese prob the flounderings of the young and inexperienced graduate despises University training.

We now come to those Universities who provide some professional training for their graduates who intend to teach. In some cases as elective studies during the undergraduate course, in others as part of a system of post-graduate studies, in others with both undergraduate and post-graduate work in Pedagogics.

In the short time allotted to me I shall confine myself to a statement of what is being done by some of the Universities of Great. Britain, Canada and the United States. When we examine the courses of instruction in the Universities of England, Wales, Ireland and Scotland, we shall find that the two greatest Universities, Oxford and Cambridge, provide no special Pedagogical training. Of course the work in those subjects which are so essential for Pedagogics, viz:—the Psychological, Logical and Philosophical disciplines, is of a very high degree of excellence in these great centres of learning.

The University of London provides examinations in the Art, Theory and History of Education, since 1883; but I find no provision in the teaching institution, University College, London, for instruction in Pedagogics.

Owen's College, Manchester, provides some special courses in Pedagogics, chiefly consisting, however, of a slight modification of the regular course in Logic and Psychology.

The University College of South Wales provides a special course in Pedagogics. Two lecturers are employed. Theory of Education is dealt with in close connection with Psychology and Ethics. Also a course in History of Education is given. The whole work in Pedagogics is closely affiliated with the regular philosophical course.

When we go north to Scotland, we find Pedagogics as an integral part of each University in Scotland. In this matter Scotland takes first rank and I think we should accord the greatest praise to Edinburgh University and to Professor Laurie.

The provision for Pedagogics in every phase is very complete in Edinburgh, and I am inclined to suspect that Professor Laurie deserves credit as a pioneer. His division of subjects, etc., has probably served as a model for a number of other Universities in

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THEORY, HISTORY AND PRACTICE OF EDUCATION.

- I. Theory or Science of Education.
 - (a) The end and materials of Education.
 - (b) Science of Education; i. e., Applied Psychology and Ethics.

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- II. Art of Education or Application of Principles and Rules.
 - (a) Intellectual—Method in intellectual instruction, training and discipline.
 - (b) Ethical—Method in moral training and discipline.
 - (c) Organization of Schools—Salient features of primary, secondary and University education. Technical instruction, etc.
 - (d) History of Education and of Theories—A course extending over ancient and modern times; study of representative writers. Written examinations are held. Essays required.

Practice in teaching is provided in connection with the regular training college for teachers. Other schools are visited systematically.

I have mentioned Edinburgh with more detail, as it may conveniently serve as a standard of reference in speaking of the work in other institutions. Glasgow, St. Andrew's, 1876, and Aberdeen provide courses in Pedagogics similar to that in Edinburgh.

The influence of Old Scotland may be found in New Scotland. In Dalhousie College, Nova Scotia, one of Professor Laurie's pupils, Professor Murray, takes charge of Pedagogics along with Philosophy. Going westward we find a well-known Nova Scotian educationist, Dr. T. Rand, of McMaster University, Toronto, giving Pedagogics a place in that University. McGill of Quebec; Queens, Toronto, and Trinity of Ontario, and Manitoba College have no provision for the teaching of Pedagogics to undergrauates or graduates.

It is true that in each of these institutions the philosophical disciplines that lie at the basis of Pedagogics, are taught with considerable thoroughness. McGill undertakes some work in

Physiological Psychology, and Toronto has a well-equipped Psychological Laboratory, and also provides an examination for graduates for the B. Pæd. and D. Pæd. degrees, yet we must acknowledge that we are far behind the record of Scotland, though comparing not unfavorably with England.

In the United States there has been a very rapid extension of Pedagogics in Universities during the last few years. As far as I dan learn this has been largely due to a close alliance between Experimental Psychology and Pedagogics in the United States. Perhaps no one man deserves more credit for this alliance and for the rapid extension of both departments in University teaching, than President G. Stanley Hall, of Clark University. The Commissioner of Education for the United States, Dr. W. T. Harris, has wielded a powerful influence for the extension of Logical, Psychological, Philosophical and Pedagogical disciplines. Like President Hall, he too believes that all true advance and deep insight into Pedagogics rests upon a preliminary acquaintance with and continued interest in, and study of the Logical, Psychological and Philosophical disciplines. When we look over the Universities of the United States we shall find that all these studies in close alliance have made very rapid strides during the last ten years, in providing training for both undergraduate and post-graduate students along these lines.

Two of the great pioneers in the work of creating an interest in Experimental Psychology, Dr. G. Stanley Hall and Prof. Cattell, have been succeeded by a host of other efficient and enthusiastic workers. The post-graduate course in Johns Hopkins University in Psychology-used by Dr. Hall as a term to include the Logical, Ethical, Anthropological enquiries as well as those more narrowly entitled Psychological-and Pedagogics served to stir up the great Universities of Harvard, Yale and Columbia to undertake post-graduate work of a similar character. Some of the Universities failed to include Pedagogics in the forward movement, yet the list of those including Pedagogics comprises nearly all the Universities of first rakn in the United States, and also a number of smaller, though ambitious colleges. Worthy of special mention are the courses in Clark, Harvard, Columbia, Chicago, Cornell, Michigan, Wisconsin, Brown, Yale, Northwestern, Ohio, Pennsylvania,

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hical with k in Colorado, California, Leland Stanford. The above is not given as a complete list, but is merely illustrative of the growth of Pedagogies.

All the divisions of the work as indicated in the Edinburgh Calendar, are provided for. The usual plan is to make these courses elective as part of the undergraduate course for the ordinary B. A. degree, during the final years of the course.

In some cases (e. g. in Colorado and California), provision is made for admitting to these courses, experienced teachers who desire to attend, though not University men. In all of these Universities, the course in Pedagogics is closely allied with the Philosophical departments. In some cases (e. g., Chicago and Columbia), the head of the Philosophical department is also director of the Pedagogical section. In the larger institutions, where provision has been made for post-graduate studies, and the granting of the degree of Ph. D., post-graduate enquiries are conducted in Pedagogics. As is well known, all the work in Clark is post-graduate. Harvard, Columbia, Yale, Chicago, Cornell, have post-graduate courses in Pedagogics.

The relation in which Pedagogics is regarded as standing to other enquiries, is excellently stated by Professor Dewey, of Chicago, as follows:—

"It is believed that any profitable study of educational theory and method presupposes a thorough grounding in Psychological principles; that a scientific treatment of educational problems demands as a prerequisite, a familiarity with the methods and results of the modern study of the development of intelligence; that an appreciation of the ultimate ends of education requires that discipline in the estimate of values and ideals which is afforded by Ethics, and that a broad outlook is best gained by an acquaintance with the history of human thought. It is further believed that the Science of Education, like Logic, has often suffered from failure to keep in touch with the actual research of advancing Science."

The place of Pedagogics in a University Course is well stated in the Calendar of the University of Colorado:—

"I. Primarily to afford College students additional means of liberal culture through the History and Philosophy of Education.

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into the time II. It aims moreover at the professional training of teachers for secondary schools, and the improvement of teachers already at work in the High Schools of the State."

The attention given to Pedagogics by these Universities, and especially the post-graduate researches, must soon produce excellent results in broadening and deepening conceptions of educational principles and methods. The spirit of independence and the principle of careful experiment will replace that of servile imitation and routine methods, or haphazard capriciousness.

An account of a most interesting attempt which is being made by the Pedagogical section of the University of Chicago, under Professor Dewey, to experiment with the problem of primary education to discover the basis and principles of true kindergarten and manual training methods, in conjunction with the regular school course, along the lines of free activity and interest through construction and self-expression, is reported in the proceedings of the Ontario Educational Association, by Dr. Eby.

This differs from the Felix Adler School, of New York, in that it is not intended to be a separate institution to carry out a preconceived ideal of educational methods in its own way, but is rather intended as an experiment with the view of obtaining results that may be at once utilized in remodelling and improving the ordinary and primary school methods and course of instruction. You will all agree that these are now altogether too stereotyped and will not suffer from being considerably modified and modernized.

The election of President Andrews of Brown University as head of the public school system of Chicago and the effort made to secure President Gilman of Johns Hopkins University to direct the public schools of New York City deserve special notice as the beginning of a commendable tendency. The consideration shewn by the Universities to the professional training of teachers has doubtless had its influence in bringing about this appreciation of University men.

What difficulties prevent Pedagogics from being incorporated into the curriculum of every University and College? Waiving the consideration of the lack of funds, for even Universities are at times unable to do what they desire by reason of poverty, we may

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We may profitably consider the history of some other modern and comparatively recent additions to the University curriculum and see what light this throws on our problem.

There was a time in the history of Universities when Natural Science had to struggle for recognition. Afterwards Modern Languages came forward with its claims, and Political Science is still struggling for recognition.

Francis Bacon, the famous spokesman for Science, pointed out the inadequacy of the purely professional tendency and eloquently advocated the disinterested pursuit of truth.

Is not the tendency towards narrow professionalism more prevalent outside of the University than in it? In the case of Pedagogics the argument for disinterested scientific study is one that could be properly urged in presenting the advantage to be gained from making it a University subject.

Applied Science in still more recent times had to meet an entirely different set of objections. So successful was the advocacy of disinterested scientific study in Universities that any enquiries whose results were to be speedily utilized in a professional, useful or profitable manner were looked upon with suspicion as leading to a sordid mercenary view of culture. But in spite of this, Applied Science has made rapid progress and recently the example of Germany of utilizing the best results of University training and University methods in the experiments made for a purely commercial result has led the British public to see that their mercantile supremacy is endangered if they do not go and do likewise. The immense commercial value of Pasteur's researches in France did not cast any discredit upon scientific studies with a practical outcome.

So we are beginning to learn that studies that are leading to immediate professional advantages may still be pursued in a thorough and satisfactory manner and in a proper spirit. Hence the fact that Pedagogics leads to immediate practical results should not debar it from University recognition.

Modern Languages pursued at first almost entirely with the view of immediate usefulness, forming a part of the polite accomor de of ac

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plishments of young ladies along with music and painting, soon asserted the claim of culture value against the exclusive devotion to the Classics. At first, almost despised when making such claims, it steadily advanced until it is now quite aggressive and leads a vigorous attack upon the classic stronghold.

The war of tongues which started at Babel still goes merrily on, and the lesson we may learn from it is this, that studies despised because of their tendency to present advantage and lack of credentials for culture purposes may turn out upon closer acquaintance to possess more value for training and culture than was at first suspected.

So too pedagogics altho' of very immediate value and therefore likely to be suspected of lack of disciplinary importance may turn out to be a line of study peculiarly adapted to train the intellect. Allied with and based upon the old standard philosophical disciplines and pursued in a scientific spirit by University teachers, surrounded on all sides with studies carried on in this way, Pedagogics may be eminently satisfactory as a means of liberal education.

Political Science has only received full and satisfactory recognition from the more advanced and stronger Universities. Yet the value of these studies for the comprehension of our complex commercial and political relations, the importance of a knowledge of these in democratic countries must lead to an ever widening extension into University recognition. Now if the national importance of a study of Politital Science is a valid ground upon which to advocate its pursuit in a University, much more emphatic are the claims of Pedagogics.

For if a knowledge of Pedagogics lies at the basis of successful teaching, and successful teaching is the very foundation of the perpetuation and extension of every phase of civilization, every valuable product of culture, every national treasure of imperishable worth, then the national importance of Pedagogics is such as to place it in the front rank before all other competitors.

The chief objections against Pedagogics as a University subject are, first, that of narrow professionalism unworthy the aims and methods of University teaching and, second, the practical difficulty of providing suitable practice in the art of teaching, and instruction in the special methods in special lines of study.

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The tendency towards narrow professionalism is one ground for advocating Pedagogics as a University subject. The whole spirit and method of University teaching is so opposed to this that we might be tolerably certain that the result would not be deterioration or lowering of University ideals and systems but rather the uplifting and ennobling of the study of Pedagogics by the adoption of the same lofty scientific standpoint that prevails everywhere in University methods.

The difficulty of obtaining practice in teaching is one that faces the present method of Normal School and College. They usually utilize a model school, and observe the systems and methods of the regular schools in the locality. All these are available in the same way at any University, and in addition to this we have the pre-eminent advantage of instruction in special methods by those who are closest to the advancing march of recent research. This is a matter to which Professor Dewey refers, as quoted earlier in the paper and it is one worth emphasizing.

At first there might be some difficulty in securing the co-operation of the Professors in the various departments to assist the Pedagogical course by special lectures on methods in their several specialties. Yet the desire of specialists to advance the interests of their chosen line of enquiry, the recognition that next to the conquests and discoveries of the leading specialists themselves, the greatest factor in advancing any line of study is to secure competent teachers of that specialty, will lead the heads of the various departments in the University to see the importance of their assistance in the work of Pedagogical training.

Let us briefly notice some of the advantages to be gained from making Pedagogics a University subject. To the subject of Pedagogics, to the students of Pedagogics, to the teaching Profession.

I. It would tend to prevent any tendency towards narrow professionalism in the study of Pedagogics. The danger of routine methods and stagnation always threatens us, nothing will do more at the outset to avert this than the treatment of Pedagogics as a University subject. The spirit of free enquiry, scientific thoroughness and independence of treatment is more likely to be secured in the University. The director of Pedagogics is also more likely to be kept from the excessive overwork that always prevails in Normal

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Schools, with their attempts to rush through the whole course in a year, often TWICE in a year, with summer sessions thrown in for recreation. No teacher can long survive such hurry and overwork and retain spontaneity and creative activity of intellect. In very self-defence of his life he is compelled to repeat himself and run into ruts and grooves.

The subject of Pedagogics in a University would receive a dignity and importance that is only its due. Conducted outside of the University it is apt to be looked upon as something for those who have not had the advantages of a liberal University Education.

Forming part of the University curriculum it will be regarded as one of the elements in a liberal University Education.

In the University, Pedagogics is more likely to be in alliance with and built upon those psychological-philosophical disciplines that constitute the true basis of Pedagogics and ensure breadth of view and thoroughness.

In a University, Pedagogics will be in a position to undertake proper post-graduate researches and thus take its rank with nonprofessional post-graduate special study leading to the Ph. D. degree.

II. The undergraduate of the University would have an additional means of liberal culture.

The study of the History and Theory of Education would give a practical turn to and thus make more interesting and profitable the regular courses in History, History of Philosophy, Ethics, and Psychology.

To learn how to teach is to learn how to study. Many of the students at a University would receive very great profit and advantage from the courses in History and Theory of Education. Loose methods of study, unsystematic habits of thought, aimless modes of reading, haphazard plans of use of library and slavish attempts to use the notes on lectures in preparation for examination would in many cases be reformed and replaced by systematic and intelligent methods of study for educational purposes—not for "passing examinations."

To the intending teacher it would be a great boon. It would enable him to have TIME to gain some mastery of the principles of education while he was gaining his own education. And

everyone knows that it requires *time* to assimilate and discover the principles underlying education, to form an adequate conception of the ideal and end of true rounded education, to gain some insight into the most successful methods to employ in attaining this desirable consummation in one's own case, and the still more difficult problem to discover how to assist others to attain to this goal in such a way that assistance may not be weakening and hindering but helpful, strengthening and inspiring.

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The influence upon the profession of teaching would undoubtedly be beneficial. To raise the status of Pedagogies is to elevate the teaching profession. It would doubtless soon lead to the recognition of the importance of still more extended and thorough professional training than has ever yet been advocated or attempted. Why is it that in Law, Medicine and Theology, we seldom see one who has completed his course turning aside to other lines of work? Why is it that in Law Medicine and Theology the more experienced hold the positions of honor and emolument while the beginners must struggle to prove themselves worthy of confidence? Why is it that in the Teaching profession it is quite otherwise? Nothing is more common than to see the teacher turning aside to other professions. Nothing is more common than to see experienced teachers thrust aside for beginners who intend in a couple or three years to devote themselves to other professions. May it not be the case that the ease with which the graduate may step into the teaching profession has something to do with it?

The training after he has received his degree before he can begin to earn his livelihood in Law, Medicine or Theology "gives the student pause." He carefully considers whether he really wants to be Lawyer, Doctor or Preacher sufficiently to make him spend so much to attain this position. He makes his decision. The time and money spent in equipping him, is like burning his ships behind him. He is determined to make his way in his chosen profession. He will not leave it for a few discouragements, he will wait and work for final success.

Do we not need to place the Teaching profession on exactly the same footing as Medicine, Law and Theology?

The minister in the country parish is trained like the city pastor before he assumes the responsibilities of his office. The teacher who should wield a wider and more potent influence in the same district is, in too many cases, some young boy or girl who is just teaching to get money to pay for his preparation for some other profession.

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or er I do not think this is as it should be. I believe that we would very soon have, if we have not already got them, graduates of Universities, male and female, who would prefer to teach, if the teaching profession were properly elevated and sufficiently remunerated, sufficient in number to fill every position now occupied by those who have never entered a University.

The status of the Teaching profession, although primarily of interest to the teachers themselves, is one of national importance. The well-being of the state is so bound up with its schools that very properly we find an ever-increasing socialization of the schools. Having socialized the school system a state must assume peculiar responsibilities in regard to the status of its teachers. The prevalence of ignorance or incompetence among teachers would be a national disaster and a national peril. The present method allowed to flourish unchecked of peddling the teachers by dutch auction—" please state qualifications and salary "—instead of stating salary and getting the best qualifications that the salary would attract, this almost universal mode of securing a teacher's services is little short of a national disgrace. It tends towards the survival or rather arrival of the unfittest.

The Teaching profession requires to be advanced in efficiency. Without this national advancement and prosperity is retarded. To obtain efficiency there must be thorough training of the teachers. To induce the most talented to spend time and money in this training, the dignity of the profession must be guarded and proper remuneration and permanency provided. As tending to assist in this direction I have ventured to advocate making Pedagogics a University subject.

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[Principal, de l' Ecole Normale Laval, Quebec.]

Messieurs,

Le sujet que j'ai à développer devant vous n'en est pas un qu'on puisse traiter à la légère.. C'est une de ces questions qui intéressent au plus haut point la société toute entière. L'école primaire forme le peuple et le peuple c'est la masse de la nation. Bien plus, sous un régime constitutionnel, le peuple gouverne par son vote la société. De là l'importance spéciale de l'instruction primaire en notre pays. Son but n'est pas de former des spécialistes; mais bien de donner une éducation générale qui rend apte à entrer dans les carrières auxquelles chaque individu est attiré par des aptitudes personnelles, et cette éducation particulière qui prépare aux différentes carrières que les circonstances de milieux, de races, de tendances ouvrent, comme naturellement, à la masse des enfants qui suivent le cours primaire.

L'Education est le développment normal de tout l'homme qui croît et se perfectionne d'après des lois que Dieu a établies, et que les causes secondes ne peuvent enfreindre, sans entraver du coup l'œuvre de l'Eternel et mettre en péril la fin dernière fixée à la créature intelligente. Il ne faut pas perdre de vue que l'incondite elle-même provient, dans un grand nombre de cas, d'un défaut de formation morale, intellectuelle ou physique. liberté reste sauve, mais, l'équilibre étant rompue, les tendances mauvaises ne sont pas facilement combattues. De là aussi l'union étroite de la religion et de l'éducation, car c'est dans la doctrine religieuse que l'on trouve les motifs les plus efficaces d'une vie pure, d'une vie parfaitement morale. comment connaître un fleuve sans en connaître la source et la direction du cours? Il en est de même de l'homme. Et le développement moral de l'homme n'est en définitive que la connaissance acquise de ce que nous sommes, de ce que nous devons faire, et du but que nous avons à atteindre. Toute la vie converge autour de ces trois points.

Ces principes posés, voyons quel est le rôle du Maitre d'école, de l'éducateur de l'enfance? Une comparaison fera mieux comprendre ma pensée.

Le jardinier n'est pas assez insensé pour revendiquer le rôle de créateur dans la culture raisonnée de ces mille et un parterres qui charment nos regards. Il n'est pas le substitut complaisant de la nature, il en est le protecteur expérimenté. La vie qui circule dans ces plantes et qui se manifeste par les feuilles verdoyantes et les fleurs parfumées, il ne l'inocule pas directement, il ne l'infuse pas ; il la protège, il la dirige et l'active en prenant soin d'écarter les obstacles et de disposer le sol de telle manière que les organes de l'arbuste trouvent facilement et avec abondance, les sucs nécessaires à leur alimentation. Aussi veille-t-il avec une tendresse maternelle à ce que chaque plante ait un terrain convenable à son organisation, à ses propriétes et à sa fin. Bien plus, il ne lui viendra jamais à l'esprit d'acclimater dans un pays froid-sans recourir à des moyens artificiels qui donnent un degré de chaleur suffisante-la végétation des pays chauds. voudra encore moins faire produire à un arbre des fruits et des fleurs pour la production desquels le créateur ne l'apas organisé.

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Ainsi le véritable éducateur. Il n'a pas à créer la science, à produire l'intelligence et le cœur. Ce n'est pas à fixer le milieu où l'homme—qui est en germe dans l'enfant—doit se développer. Tout cela, c'est l'œuvre de Dieu et, le rôle de l'éducateur—assez noble pour satisfaire les plus fières ambitions—est de bien connaître ce milieu et de ne pas en sortir Il doit surveiller, promouvoir, diriger le développement de l'enfant qui, par ses facultés diverses, profitant de la surveillance, de l'action et de la direction de son maître, grandira à tous égards, suivant l'abondance des dons, des talents que le bon Dieu lui aura départis.

Mais, pour qu'il n'y ait pas de retards inutiles ni de choes dangereux, il faut que le développement se fasse graduellement. La nature a horreur des sauts brusques. Un milieu, même convenable d'ailleurs, pourrait être préjudiciable, s'il était trop différent de celui que l'enfant vient de quitter. Les variations subites de la température produisent les orages. Le foyer de la famille est la première école. Quittant cet asile béni pour fréquenter une maison d'éducation, l'enfant doit trouver une famille aggrandie, un peu plus froide peut-être, mais bonne, compatissante et reproduisant, quoique avec des nuances, ce qui lui fait chérir la maison paternelle. C'est pour lui que l'école est ouverte; c'est lui qui se développe, grandit, acquiert des

connaissances, se forme. Il ne doit pas perdre son identité. Cette identité doit même s'accentuer, se caractériser sous l'impulsion des connaissances acquises, de la direction donnée. Aussi est-ce une utopie désastreuse que de vouloir forcer le même degré et la même qualité de dévelopement chez tous les enfants et dans tous les centres.

Il y a un fonds qui est le même chez tous les hommes, comme toute végétation suppose une organiesation semblable. C'est pour cette raison que les principes généraux d'éducation servent de base à l'enseignement de tous. Mais chaque enfant a son caractère propre, ses aptitudes particulières, son tempérament, et ce n'est qu'en tenant compte de ces différences individuelles que le maître pourra faire un bien réel et personnel à l'individu. L'application des principes doit varier suivant ces diverses nuances. La nourriture que le médecin prescrit aux personnes bilieuses diffère de celle qu'il ordonne aux gens nerveux. Un aliment requis par un estomac vigoureux pourra conduire à la mort un estomac maladif. Ainsi de l'instruction des enfants.

Il serait peut-être difficile de proportionner l'enseignement à l'intelligence et au cœur de chaque enfant, lorsque la classe est nombreuse, quoi qu'il ne s'agisse pas ici d'une exactitude mathématique. Mais l'instruction donnée doit absolument convenir au milieu dans lequel vit et doit vivre la masse des enfants. Le cours primaire des paroisses rurales doit différer essentiellement du cours primaire des villes. On n'enseigne pas aux enfants des centres industriels ce que l'on inculque aux populations agricoles. C'est évident, car nous développons les enfants dans les conditions dans lesquelles nous les trouvons. Agir autrement ce serait leur donner des aspirations qu'ils ne pourraient satisfaire et qui les rendraient malheureux. Aussi est-il souverainement regrettable que les brevets de capacité confiés aux instituteurs des campagnes et des villes de toute une province, soient la sanction d'examens subis sur les mêmes matières, et que les programmes scolaires soient les mêmes pour toute une province. C'est la cause principale de l'encombrement des professions libérales, du commerce et de l'industrie. Il serait étonnant qu'on obtînt d'autres résultats. La couleur varie peu dans ies populations exposées au même soleil. Les jeunes gens, tous formés de la même manière, recherchent naturellement les emplois qui exigent moins d'efforts et paraissent rais l'ap and

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L enfan plus considérés. L'instruction religieuse elle-même doit être développée et dosée suivant les milieux, puisque la saine doctrine est la lumière des actions morales. Il est évident que le marchand doit être plus instruit sur les règles du juste et de l'injuste qui régissent le commerce que sur celles qui doivent guider un architecte ou un maçon. Les principes généraux doivent être inculqués à tous, mais les applications particulières de ces principes ne sont pas d'une égale utilité à chacun. Si les explications de la doctrine subissent l'influence du milieu, à plus forte raison doit-il en être ainsi des sciences et des arts profanes dont l'application manque d'universalité et qui, d'une grande importance pour la société, ne peuvent être cultivés par tous les individus.

Tous doivent savoir lire, écrire, compter, mais en dehors de ces branches communes à toutes les écoles, il y a une diversité de besoins auxquels il faut pourvoir.

Je suppose que votre cole est dans un centre agricole, la lecture, l'écriture, le calcul doivent surtout, (pour la partie profane,) tendre à inculquer aux enfants un amour véritable et une science convenable de l'agriculture, ainsi que des métiers qui concourent au bien-être de l'agriculteur. Les leçons de lecture rouleront sur la noblesse, la tranquillité, l'indépendance, la sécurité, au point de vue de la conduite morale, de l'agriculture, sur les moyens de rendre la terre féconde, sur l'économie agricole et domestique, sur les plaisirs réels et sains de la vie des champs, sur les résultats obtenus par des agronomes intelligents et consciencieux, sur la culture et l'usage des plantes qui conviennent à la région, sur l'exploitation raisonnée des produits que l'on obtient, comme le tissage, l'industrie laitière, l'élevage des bestiaux, etc., etc.

L'arithmétique s'enseignera au même point de vue. Les problèmes devront initier les enfants à ces mille et une transactions que les cultivateurs sont appelés à faire tous les jours. Les calculs se feront sur la vente et l'achat des denrées, les prêts d'argent, les caisses d'économie, etc.

La tenue des livres, au lieu de traiter des grandes opérations commerciales, s'occupera de la comptabilité agricole.

La géographie sera mise à contribution pour instruire les enfants sur les ressourcess diverses que fournissent les divers

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s. La soleil. erchent aissent pays. L'histoire elle-même fournit des faits admirables qui prouvent que la prospérité des peuples dépend généralement des progrès agricoles. La terre est la grande nouricière des nations.

Ainsi formée, la population s'attachera au sol, se vouera à la profession des parents et ne sera pas tentée d'aller s'étioler dans les grands centres qui souvent ne sont emcombrés que parce qu'on n'a pas donné aux petits centres l'éducation convenable.

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Ce que je viens de dire des régions agricoles, doit s'appliquer aux villages industriels et aux grandes villes. Armons les enfants. pour la carrière que les circonstances locales favorisent davantage. Nous serons sûrs de pourvoir à la masse de la population qui ne se déplace que pour trouver mieux ailleurs. A quoi bon enseigner l'agriculture dans les écoles des grandes villes? L'éducation familiale, le train de vie journalier, la nourriture, le manque d'air, l'attachement au foyer, l'habillement, tout contribue à rendre les habitants de nos cités impropres à supporter les travaux vigoureux et l'isolement relatif de la vie des champs. Préparons leurs enfants aux carrières qui n'exigent pas de leur part des sacrifices supérieurs à leurs forces physiques et morales. Formonsles pour le commerce. l'industrie, les différents métiers, préparonsles sérieusement à suivre un cours supérieur, si leurs talents et leur énergie morale les rendent capables d'y aspirer. Que les manuels et le maître soient préparés de manière que les enfants ne soient pas comme ces plantes étiolées qui, croissant entre des rochers, ne trouvent pas les sucs nécessaires à leur alimentation.

Nous ne changerous la nature ni des hommes ni des choses; étudions les meilleurs moyens de la perfectionner. Que nos efforts tendent l'aider, la diriger. Ne regardons pas nos élèves comme des masses inertes, incapables d'agir personnellement. N'essayons pas à refaire en entier le travail immense qui s'est fait en eux sous l'action intelligente de leurs parents. Tenons compte des nombreuses connaissances, de la puissance de vie que possède déjà l'enfant de cinq ou six ans arrivant à l'école primaire. Exploitons ce capital. Exploitons-le de manière que l'écolier ne voie dans l'école que la continuation des leçons reçues au foyer. Autrement, il subirait le sort du voyageur transporté les yeux fermés au centre d'une grande ville: Il serait désorienté. Il ne comprendrait pas l'utilité de ces connaissances

abstraites qu'on voudrait lui introduire forcément dans la tête. 11 se découragerait et rendrait nos efforts inutiles.

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Procédons des choses sensibles aux idées abstraites, aux principes purement rationnels, car, chez le petit enfant, la vie des sens joue le rôle principal. Mais sous prétexte d'intuition, ne nous bornons pas à la connaissance des phénomènes. Il faut avoir la raison de ces faits sensibles, la faire comprendre aux élèves. Autrement, nous formerions des machines et non des hommes. Il ne suffit pas de connaître toutes les pièces d'une locomotive pour la diriger. Il faut percevoir le lien qui unit les unes aux autres toutes les parties et les coordonne à la fin du tout, l'instruction ne sera vraiment pratique qu'à la condition de remonter du terre-à-terre-des faits à la région sereine des principes. Quoiqu'on fasse, l'âme doit rester la maîtresse chez l'homme et ce sont les principes qui la nourrissent et la forment. Voilà, messieurs, quelques observations soumises avec respect et singérité à votre considération judicieuse. Nous dépensons notre vie, nous consacrons la meilleure partie de nous-mêmes à la grande cause de l'enseignement. Que ces sacrifices servent à l'édification d'une société saine, intelligente, vigoureuse, j'ajoute, véritablement charitable, car l'amour de son semblable est ce que Dieu a mis de plus naturellement beau dans une âme honnête. Nous ne pouvons oublier que la petite école suivant la direction qu'on lui imprime, est un engin puissant pour le bien ou pour le mal. Je vous remercie, messieurs, de votre bienveillante attention.

RURAL SCHOOLS: SUGGESTIONS FOR THEIR BETTER ADMINISTRATION.

By DAVID SOLOAN, B. A.,

(Principal High School, New Glasgow, N. S.)

The first part of this paper deals with the statistics of secondary education in Nova Scotia, drawn from the reports of the Superintendant of Education for the province. In the second part criticism is ventured and means for improvement are suggested which, it is believed, will apply to the country schools of all of the provinces of Canada.

For the year 1897, there were enrolled in the eighteen County Academies of Nova Scotia 1,638 pupils; there were employed in purely academic instruction 37 teachers of the first class at salaries averaging \$850.00 per annum, as well as 10 licensed teachers of lower grade. In addition to the county academies, there were half a dozen high schools devoted entirely to academic work, each employing from one to three teachers of academic grade, and enrolling over 300 pupils.

Secondly, we have country schools in which the same teachers are engaged in academic instruction in conjunction with that of the common school, and enrolled in the academic classes of such institutions are 3,135 pupils—rural high school pupils.

Lastly, there are 1,749 pupils returned as taking a course partly academic. Of these, 34 are students of the county academies. The remaining 1,716 are from town and country schools.

Altogether, according to the certified reports of county academies and to the less accurate estimates returned by teachers in non-academic schools, there were 6,556 pupils enrolled as receiving instruction either in part or in all of the subjects of the high school course.

Let us review these figures and compare the amount of high school work done in the academies with that accomplished by other schools. The academies enroll 1,672 pupils. Non-academic institutions enroll 4,884. This means that non-academic high school classes register nearly three times as many students as the

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pro con Nev county academies. This, at first glance, does not seem too bad a showing for the country schools. There is some deduction, however, to be made from the returns of the latter. The number, 4,884, is, as I have intimated, only an estimate; and the Superintendent's report warns us that "we must take this "estimate with some reserve, as the classification is based not "upon the examination of a central board, but simply upon the "estimate of the teachers themselves throughout the country." In his report for 1896 (p. xliv.) the Superintendent discounts the return of full-course high school students in country schools at the rate of over forty per cent.

The number of full-course pupils enrolled in the first-year classes of non-academic high schools is 2,106 (see pp. 15 and 32 of report for 1896). Perhaps forty per cent. is not too much to strike off to make allowance for the teachers' miscalculations. This leaves in the different classes of non-academic high schools 2,293 pupils who may be regarded as full-course pupils.

Even yet, we have left in country schools one and one-third times as many pupils of high school grade as the county academies enroll; and this, in the face of the fact that the country high school receives but little special assistance from the government, seems quite remarkable, until we are reminded that, although the amount of high school work done in specially subsidized academies situated in shire-towns is considerably exceeded by that accomplished in the country schools, the country districts have a population four and one-half times as great as that of the shire-towns.

It is worth while to ascertain how these country high school pupils are distributed among the several grades. The number in grade IX. of full and partial-course students last year was 3,514; the number in grade X., the "C" class, was 1,134; in grade IX., the "B" class, 233; approximately, 15 grade "D" pupils to 5 "C's" to 1" B". In other words, three-fourths of the high school students in non-academic schools are of grade "D"; less than one-fourth are of grade "C", while only one twenty-first part of them are of grade "B", In any town school a distribution in the proportion of 15 "D" pupils to 5 "C's" to 1 "B" would be considered peculiarly strange and unfortunate. In the town of New Glasgow, where boys leave school at an early age, the

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high ed by demic high as the proportion is seldom, worse than 28 to 20 to 10. It is to be remarked also that of the 1,074 pupils ranked in grades X. and XI. only 145 hold provincial certificates.

The 4,884 high school pupils assigned to country schools do not, however, represent all of the country pupils doing high school work. This does not take account of a considerable number of advanced pupils who attend the county academies. The Superintendent's report gives this number as 684, an increase of 187 since the year 1890. Adding, then, these 684 country pupils who study at county academies to the extreme estimate, 4,884, we find the total number of country pupils engaged to any extent at all in the studies of the high school course to be 5,568, and the number of these wholly engaged in high school studies probably not more than 3,000. It is somewhat reassuring to know, however, that the number is steadily increasing, though I have no exact means of judging whether the character of the work done keeps equal pace. In 1893 the number of full and partial-course high school students in country sections was 3,316; in 1894 there was an increase of over 400; in 1895 an increase of nearly 600 more, and, in the last two years, an increase of nearly Indeed, the increase in the last five years in the number of country high school pupils studying at home is two and one-half times as great as that in the number of country pupils attending county academies, thus indicating a decided preference on the part of country sections to have their high school work done in their own schools rather than at the county academy. is, of course, only to be expected that this would be the case, for of all schools the most desirable is the HOME school.

The conclusion of the matter is that the county academy is of comparatively small benefit to the rural districts. In 1897, a year in which the attendance of country pupils at county academies was the largest known, the total number of such students was only 684. Taking the population of the province at 450,000, and substracting from it the aggregate population of the shire-towns, we find the total population of non-academic districts to be about 367,000. These 367,000 people are represented at the county academies by 684 students. That is to say, the country districts send to the county academies one pupil for every 536 of their population; not six pupils to a population of 3,000; two or three to a population

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equal to that of Kentville or Annapolis; five pupils to a population equal to that of Windsor or Pictou; nine to a population of that of Truro or Amherst; or about eighty-two to a community the size of Halifax city. Indeed, the ten counties of Annapolis, Digby, Guysboro, Hants, Inverness, Cape Breton, Queens, Shelburne, Victoria and Yarmouth taken together sent only 102 pupils to their respective county institutions. Ten counties with an aggregate population of over 205,000 sent only 102 country pupils to their academies. Let us work out the proportion: One hundred and two is to two hundred and five thousand as one is to two hundred. That is equivalent to saying that the academies just mentioned gave instruction to one country pupil out of every two hundred of population.

The total provincial grant given to the county academies of Nova Scotia in consideration of their affording high school facilities to rural pupils was last year \$15,860.00. Six hundred and eighty-four pupils received instruction, at an average cost to the academic fund alone of \$23.00; this in addition to the cost to the country and to the shire-town, which would bring the cost per country april use about \$50.00. In the ten counties named above, the umber oscountry pupils trained at the expense of the academic fund was 102, and the cost to this fund was \$6,000, an average of over \$58.00 per pupil. In the academy situated in the wealthy town of Windsor the attendance from rural districts has averaged during the last three years one pupil to 2,200 of population, and the cost to the provincial fund alone has averaged \$46.87 per pupil. In the counties of Annapolis, Yarmouth and Cape Breton the proportion has been even smaller, and the charges to the provincial academic fund \$62.50, \$71.42, and \$88.23, respectively. In the county of Inverness the cost is \$83.33 per pupil, and in Shelburne it is \$100.00.

On the other hand, there are well-equipped high schools in the province not situated in shire-towns which enroll large numbers of country pupils, but receive a mere pittance from the provincial fund in recognition of the service rendered to the rural districts. Among these I may mention New Glasgow, North Sydney, Parrsborough, Bridgewater, Springhill, Stellarton and Oxford. The first of these enrolls annually about 150 high school pupils, over fifty of whom are pupils admitted without fee from beyond the limits of the town incorporation.



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Two points are, I think, made clear. First, that the rural districts do not avail themselves of the free tuition offered by the county academies. To poor children in remote sections the county academy might as well be twenty-five miles distant as five miles; they are debarred in either case. It is doubtful whether there are four hundred strictly rural pupils in attendance at all of the county academies of the province. Perhaps one-half of the 684 academic pupils whom we credited to country sections are really urban pupils residing within four miles of their respective county academies.

Secondly, it must be clear that the county academy which provides instruction to rural pupils in return for a special subsidy, ranging through scores up to the hundred dollars per pupil, is an expensive creation.

The most desirable of all schools is the *home* school; and unless the rural population has such schools—that is, high schools—secondary education will make no great advance in country districts. Whether it is possible to secure high school advantages to many or all rural sections remains to be seen. Something should be tried, though, for it is a patent truth that when parents who can afford to do so send their children to the county academy or to the town high school, they thus deprive the country school of the stimulus of some of its brightest scholars and expose it to a certain degradation in the eyes of those that remain. It is not incomprehensible, either, that parents who are paying for the tuition of their children in the county academy should naturally lose interest in their own school. In these respects the academic system is a source of injury to the rural school.

A farewell glance at the figures we have been working with, and we shall consider some suggestions for the betterment of the rural school. It was stated above that, according to the estimates prepared by the teachers of the province, the total number of pupils in non-academic schools studying all the subjects of their respective grades was 3,135—equivalent to saying that, in a rural population of 367,000, there is only one high school student to 117 inhabitants. Now, a considerable proportion of the 3,135—say 600—are residents of towns and villages of over 800 population, and cannot be regarded as attending a strictly rural school.

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This leaves the number of full-course high school pupils in strictly rural schools about 2,500, or about one pupil for every 132 inhabitants; that is, 22 high school pupils for a population equal to that of Pictou or Windsor; or fewer than 38 for a community the size of Amherst or Truro. Adding the possible 600 pupils from rural sections in attendance at the county academies, we find the total number of country scholars receiving high school training to be, as near as we can figure it, one in every 106 inhabitants. This, again, is following the rough estimate furnished by country teachers, which the Superintendent's report advises to discount about 40 per cent.

Finally, we learned that the high school pupils of rural schools, even when the proportion is helped out by the more fortunate classification of non-academic town schools, were distributed among grades "D", "C" and "B" in the ratio of 15:5:1; so that only two-sevenths of these pupils advance beyond the studies of grade "D". This is the same, as saying that only one pupil to every 462 of population advances yearly beyond grade "D". To make the proportion more easily comprehended, let us put it that in a country population equal to that of Truro or Windsor, there would be an aggregate of fewer than seven pupils in the "B" and "C" class.

So much, by way of survey of secondary education in our country schools. Our system provides in country districts for a steady attendance of 9.4 full-course high school students to 1,000 of population. This may be considered by some as satisfactory. It certainly is not a bad showing for rural Nova Scotia, considering all the evils under which the cause of rural education suffers; and I am not sure but that our country districts are as far advanced in educational matters that our boys and girls enjoy the advantages of as good schools as do the youth of some of the older and more populous states of the American Union. This is no vain boast. One needs only to read the report of the National Committee on Secondary Education to realize the backward condition of the average American school, and to appreciate the creditable position our own province has taken in educational affairs. Nevertheless, we should be ill-content with our achievements, and should strive to better a condition of affairs which, although it gives to town children the advantages of high school training, yet leaves poor

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children in rural sections without opportunity to acquire more than a partial acquaintance with the three R's. Nor is our rural population satisfied with its present educational status; for, in many cases, the per capita tax necessary to support a miscellaneous country school is as high as that required to maintain a well-equipped town school of half a dozen or more departments. Uniformly increased taxation would not, therefore, prove a remedy; for it could hardly be increased to an extent sufficient to provide adequately for secondary education, if levied on the present basis. Something may be done, it is true, along the line of taxation, not, however, by a general increase of the school tax, but by a readjustment of the burden of taxation.

The problem that we are confronted with is this: How to give the country student equal advantages with the town resident. In Massachusetts and some other of the older and more populous states of the republic some headway has been made in the solution of the difficulty; but in our own country, as yet, little attention has been given to the matter. Perhaps it is beyond our power to accomplish as much for the advancement of learning in rural Nova Scotia as the wealthy and populous State of Massachusetts has done for its yeomanry. It is possible, nevertheless, that some improvement may be effected, and it is not unlikely that the plans upon which some of the more successful of the American states have been working may be fruitful of suggestion to us.

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Two things we must have if we are to secure secondary education to our rural population—first, better teachers; secondly, graded schools. Both of these conditions are essential to progress. Given a corps of well-trained, skilful and zealous teachers, we might still fail to accomplish the end sought. Granted that each teacher were all that could be desired, he might still come far short of adequately providing for the intellectual wants of the scholars entrusted to his training, unless you set him to work under favorable conditions. You must not expect him to conduct a number of common school grades and one or two high school standards at the same time and with success. Put him to work under such conditions, and the best he will do is to KEEP school; he can hardly hope to TEACH satisfactorily. You must take at least half the classes from him. In other words, you must grade the school. You should have, at all cost, good teachers; but you

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ought not to expect the impossible from a school-master. He may work and he may pray; he may crucify himself daily, but nothing will redeem the cause doomed at the very outset by the conditions imposed upon it. I do not believe that high school work can be profitably undertaken in a miscellaneous school. The teacher that attempts the same does so to the injury of the lower grades. He may be partially successful in his efforts to raise the standard of his highest class, but all the while his ill-advised ambition is bearing evil fruit in the lower divisions.

It is inadvisable, however, for me to spend time in enforcing what is probably an accepted truth. I ought to content myself with believing that all of us who have ever taught a day favour the graded school. Given graded schools of two or more departments, nothing is easier than to secure a moderate amount of high school work. You granted my first demand, of course-better teachers? We shall always be calling for still better teachers, I suppose; indeed, nothing short of the best will ever satisfy us. With good teachers in every school-house, and with well-graded schools throughout the counties, the cause of secondary education will go merrily on.

But just here we are brought face to face with a difficulty. We are told that the matter of employing efficient and, therefore, wellpaid teachers, is an affair over which the educational authorities of the province have no control. The choice of teachers virtually lies with the ratepayers of the section, and the Nova Scotian rural ratepayer, like mankind in general, objects to increased taxation. The poorer sections tell us in sincerity that they cannot afford to pay their teachers more than they are now paying, and in many cases they state but a fact. The truth is, that in many school sections the population is so sparse and the assessed value of property so low that it would be unreasonable to ask the ratepayers to attempt more than they are now doing.* At first sight there appears to be no insurmountable difficulty here. Let these overburdened taxpayers join their energies with those of their neighbours and have, with them, one good school where they have now two poor ones. A natural suggestion; a capital one, too, and one that our inspectors have not been slow to urge,*

*See Superintendent's report for 1897, page xix.

[†]See Superintendent's report for 1896, pages xxxiii.-xxxv.; report for 1895, pp. ix.-xi.

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At the present time inspectors report a large number of weak sections which might profitably unite with adjacent ones. But the union of school sections and the obliteration of section boundaries is a matter on which the rural ratepayer seldom sees eye to eye with the inspector; and, as the law does not arm that official with power to enforce a union of sections contrary to the wishes of the residents therein, this monstrous stupidity of sub-divided school sections is from year to year perpetuated and extended. As a rule, the section will no more think of giving up its own school and sacrificing the rights of control appertaining, than the secretary of trustees would think of decapitating his grandmother. To announce to the whole round world that section 27 is no longer able to keep up its school, that it is compelled to sue for the aid and cooperation of section No. 32 and thereby to relinquish sole proprietorship in its wretched little school, would be an indelible blot on the scutcheon. In wealthy sections, on the other hand, false ideas of economy so prevail that often one cheaply paid teacher of low grade conducts the district school where the ratepayers could well afford to employ two well-paid, efficient teachers and to have a graded school. The inspector may remonstrate with the commissioners, the commissioners may reason with the taxpayers of the section, and this Association may tender good advice to all parties concerned, yet the section remains master of the field. So, the weak district goes on taxing itself to starvation to support its little school; for sectional pride would never permit the latter to be merged in that of a neighbouring section; and the comparatively rich and populous section keeps on its way with its ill-paid, inefficient teacher; and all the while we wonder why our country schools seem to be declining, rather than progressing with the times. In spite of us, the sections rule the roost. They have done so too long. A few honest, clear-headed men in each section have raised their voices in vain. Commissioners and inspectors have advised, remonstrated and coaxed. The Education Office has used its diplomacy. The section is still supreme, still blind to its own interests.

Let us go a little farther into this district or section system of schools that we have in Nova Scotia. I have pointed out the inequality of taxation in adjacent districts within the same county; but this is not the only evil entailed by the division of the county

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into sections. We shall see. Each section has independent power of appointment of three trustees to act as an executive within the school section. Among other duties, the following very important ones devolve upon this board of officials:—

- I. "To contract with and employ a licensed teacher."
- II. "To provide by assessment for the purchase of suitable grounds, and to select the design of building most suitable," etc.
- III. "To visit the school at least four times in each year"—
 presumably to exercise general supervision over the
 school, to observe its tone and spirit, the conduct and
 application of the pupils, the management and methods
 of the teacher, and the fitness and condition of the
 premises.

I have already questioned the ability of the average board of trustess in rural districts to deal wisely in the first of these matters, namely, the selection of an efficient teacher. I equally question its fitness to exercise wisely the other two functions here set forth, As to employing a suitable teacher, everyone who has had any experience in the selection of teachers realizes how difficult it is to decide in this very important matter. Everyone knows how slight is the dependence to be placed upon recommendations, and how unwise it is to be guided solely by certificates of scholarship. Yet our law presupposes that in each country section, no matter how meagre its population or how low its average intelligence, three men are always to be found capable of judging what sort of teacher their section needs and whether a certain applicant is likely to be that kind of teacher. Now, the fact is that in every school section there are families-perhaps the wealthiest in the section—who have no children to send to school, and as they are taxed to aid in educating the rising generation, they will contrive every means either to keep the school closed or to secure a cheap school.* This class is generally influential, and is often able to control the election of trustees, so that officials will sometimes be elected who can neither read nor write. In many cases, as the inspectors' reports go to show, the consideration which bears most weight with trustees in the choice of a

^{*}See report of Inspector McKinnon for year 1896, p. 92.

teacher is not whether a certain applicant is likely to conduct a school efficiently, but whether he will teach for a small salary. It is hardly necessary to enlarge upon the inability of the average board of trustees to act in a judicious and large-minded way when an opportunity to save a few dollars to the section presents itselfin the appointment of a teacher. How else can one account for the frequent-in most sections annual-change of teachers, except by the parsimonious expectation of trustees to secure a cheaper teacher for the ensuing term? How else can we explain the fact that for every "A" and "B" teacher there are five of the lower grades? How else can it be accounted for that over one-sixth of the teachers of this province retire annually from the profession, except by the ignorance, the indifference and often the insolence of local trustees, elected at hazard because the interests of a single school section are considered too small to be worth the trouble of a careful selection? (See reports of Inspectors Craig and McKinnon, 1895, pp. 77, 80, 86.)

Proceeding to the second duty of trustees: The providing of suitable buildings and the equipment and repair of the same—is it not a fact that there are school houses all over the province which have become worthless on account of not having been properly built or through not having been kept in repair, and this, because no competent person had been appointed to look after them? I know that this is true even of towns. The same remark may be made of the apparatus and of the general equipment of the school room. The fact is, you cannot get three men in each section who are competent to fulfil the functions you have defined for them.

Least of all ought we to expect to procure three men capable of exercising the sort of supervision over school affairs that I have described. It may be replied that supervision is provided in the inspectors, of whom there are ten for the whole province. This is a mistaken confidence. As far as one can learn, the inspection of our schools is about as thorough as ten men could make it; nevertheless, we have not an effective supervision of district schools. Consider for a moment. There are 2,346 schools in Nova Scotia. This means an average of 234 schools to an inspectoral district. Two of our inspectors report themselves as having visited each 261 schools. Can you expect more from such officials, let them be never so assiduous, than to make an annual

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or perhaps semi-annual short visit to each of so many schools? Morever, there were 449 bran new teachers in 1897; and, in addition to the tyros, 1,029 old teachers were new to their sections. Each time, you see, that the inspector makes his annual round he finds 147 out of the 234 schools each with a new teacher. What educational progress can we expect in those 140 sections under a system of annual or semi-annual inspection? Here is one of the weak spots in the fabric of our educational system; for no comprehensive system of education like ours will produce results much better, or much worse, than the character of supervision it employs.

As Henry S. Randall, State Superintendent for New York, says: "It is a point generally conceded among those familiar "with the subject of education, that the success of public "schools depends more upon supervision than upon any other "one agency; that this is, indeed, that indispensable one agency "without which all others have failed. Legislation may provide "bountifully for the education of teachers; it may prescribe "high standards of qualification; it may make stringent and wise "regulations in regard to the duties of all connected with the "administration of the system; but parsimony will evade, ignor-"ance maladminister, or apathy render inefficient the best school "laws, unless their execution is watched over and enforced by "intelligent, active and independent supervision."

And it is this very sort of supervision that a good teacher demands from his employers: what he asks as his right is a system of discrimination. Ensure to the profession that only competent teachers shall be employed, that success in the schoolroom shall be recognized and rewarded, that preference among applicants shall be given to the most worthy, and teachers will be willing to let salaries take care of themselves.

Is it not plain, from what has been said, that we can never have better teachers until we have better school officers than our local trustees prove themselves to be?

To recapitulate: -It has been shown that the worst evils in our educational system are inflicted by our plan of local trustees-by the too minute subdivision of school districts into independent sections of a few acres area. It has been demonstrated that this seemingly democratic principle of sectional rights is, in reality,

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most undemocratic and unjust, placing upon the ratepayers of weak districts a burden of taxation heavier than that imposed upon wealthier and more populous sections, and thus deciding the sort of teacher and the quality of instruction a country pupil shall receive by the value per acre of his father's farm. It has been shown that under this system it is impossible to secure to country districts the best teachers available and to provide suitable buildings and equipment; that it is difficult, if not impossible, to provide efficient supervision of rural schools; and that it is hopeless to expect a judicious readjustment of section boundaries.

Having summed up my charge against the local trustee system, I am content to rest the case here and to go on to suggest a means of rectifying the error committed by the framers of that system. The remedy is a simple one:—Abolish the sections. Take down the boundary lines within which the sections reigns supreme. Do away with separate boards of trustees for every school. Unite the sections into large districts or townships under control of boards of commissioners, and maintain equal taxation within those districts.

This is the underlying principle of the township system, the system which has been productive of much good in many of the states of the American Union, the same system that forms the basis of the Education Act lately introduced into the British Parliament. The leading features of the system are as follows:

The township system abolishes section boundaries. The school property now owned by each section becomes the property of the township or enlarged district, of course by appraisal and assessment. (There is nothing radical in this. The Superintendent (1896) suggests adoption of same principle, p. xxv.) The present annual section meeting will become merged in the annual township meeting. In place of trustees elected in each section there will be a township or district board of commissioners and other officers elected at the township meeting. To this board will be entrusted the care of all the school property within its district, the hiring of all teachers and the general charge of all the schools of the district. Whatever local tax may be voted for the support of the schools will be raised by a township tax, without regard to former section boundaries. In other words, the unit of our school system will be the newly-created township instead of the section.

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Without going into the details of the system as developed in different states, I shall undertake merely to point out some of the benefits accruing from the adoption of such a plan for the maintenance and control of our country schools.

First among the evils perpetrated by the subdivision of the county into smaller and smaller sections was noticed the inequality of taxation entailed; and I think that here the injustice is obvious to everybody. Why should one part of the county pay more per capita for the education of its children than other sections? If education is a provincial affair, then the revenue of the province should, as far as possible, provide for the education of all the children of the province; and, as all children have equal rights to the education so provided, so all children should, as far as possible, be given equal opportunities to enjoy that education. It may be objected to this that it is impossible for all children to be given equal opportunities of attending school. "No matter how good schools you may have in the country, all children cannot live equally near to them. Would you have a carriage call around every morning and convey to school those living a considerable distance away?" My objector may think that his happily chosen case reduces the principle above enunciated to an absurdity. True, he has carried it to a logical conclusion, but by no means to an absurdity or even to an impossibility. What they do at the present time in Massachusetts and New York states is just that very thing which my opponent suggests as an absurdity: they actually convey children to school. Every morning a large waggon passes over the main road through the section to the school-house. Children find their way to the main road and join the omnibus there. And this feature of the Massachusetts system is so popular that as much as \$50,000 has been expended annually on the transportation of children in country districts.

But how, it will be next asked, will a system of enlarged districts tend to equalize taxation? Simply, as has already been hinted at, by raising the money voted for school purposes equally throughout the enlarged district or township, without regard to former section lines. Incorporated towns would not come under the provisions of the law, as it would be inexpedient to tamper with existing charters. True, the enlarged district or township plan, in relieving the poorer sections of part of their unfair

burden, will impose increased taxation upon the wealthier districts. But this additional taxation levied is absolutely just, and constitutes thereby one of the strongest arguments in favor of enlarged districts.

Secondly, it was set forth as impossible to expect that in every section there can always be secured three men competent to perform intelligently and judiciously the duties of trustees. Under the proposed system, however, where we should have a greatly enlarged community to draw upon for our school officials, it ought to prove a matter of no great difficuty to find a half dozen ratepayers well fitted to exercise the functions of commissioners or trustees for the whole district or township—men of sufficient breadth of mind to eschew the parsimony of the local trustees and to act with a proper liberality and discrimination in the appointing of teachers to the different schools of their district. This small number of men, too, it has been proven by experience elsewhere, can always be found within the area of the township ready and able to administer thoroughly all the details of their office.

Thirdly, having secured the right sort of school officers, other evils connected with school administration are speedily removed. There will be far less likelihood of the erection of school buildings in unsuitable places, of neglect to keep in repair school property, to provide suitable accommodation and necessary apparatus. School houses will be located with regard to the needs of the district as a whole; one school will, in many cases, be made to serve where at present two exist; three will be reduced to two; and in this way some progress will be made towards the establishment of a large number of graded schools.

Lastly, and of the highest desirability, the needs of the country schools for thorough supervision will in large measure be supplied. The demand for careful inspection and superintendence of school work in rural schools will be fully met by the boards of township commissioners or trustees, who will parcel out among themselves the schools to come under the immediate supervision of each, or perhaps appoint at a small salary some one of their number to act as supervisor. Rigid inspection can thus be accomplished; valuable statistics and other accurate data will be furnished to the provincial inspectors and the education department, and all, without entailing any considerable expense for the performance of this

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the country be supplied. ce of school of township themselves of each, or umber to act complished; hished to the and all, withmuch neglected service. Better teachers will be employed; the industrious and capable will be better assured of reward; while the dismissal of the school-master or mistress will cease to be an annual event, for local jealousy and personal pique will no longer play a part in procuring the removal of worthy teachers.

These are some of the numerous advantages to be looked for in the adoption of the plan of enlarged school districts. Time will not permit a more extended elaboration of the arguments in favour of the proposed plan; but a careful investigation of the scheme will reveal countless merits not here presented for your approval. It would be easy, for example, to quote statistics in support of what is already self-evident to many-namely, that in carrying out the new system there would be considerable economy of expenditure and effort in the maintenance of our country schools. Reports from states that have introduced the system confirm this opinion, and cases in nearly every county of Nova Scotia itself can be cited to show thoughtless waste of public money due to imprudent subdivision of districts and unwise adjustment of section boundaries. As the law is at present, the union of two sections is almost an impossibility, no matter how desirable the same may be. The statute provides that before action can be taken, the vote of a majority of the ratepayers of each section must be obtained in favour of the union. Now, everyone knows how, in matters of this kind, local jealousies and absurd pride are almost always potent to kill any proposal of this sort. Again, the increased distance which some few pupils may be obliged to walk is quoted by the malcontent as a serious bar to union, although, in reality, his objection may be founded upon a mere triviality; so that, instead of a tendency towards union and a reduction of the number of independent sections, we find continual subdivision, weakening sections and declining schools.

of the Superintendent of Education for 1895. (See pp, ix., x.)

The poverty of sections, consequent upon imprudent subdivision is a partial cause of the frequent changing of teachers, as the same report goes on to show. (See report for 1895, p. xii.)

It is unreasonable to look for any great educational progress in rural districts under a law which creates the abuses just mentioned. High school work is out of the question. Much would be gained

if we were enabled by law to carry into effect the proposal of the Superintendent of Education to reduce the number of schools in parts of the province where subdivision has been carried too far. But opportunity would infinitely be enhanced by enlarging the districts at the same time, so as to bring a number of schools under the same control. This would render it possible in populous country sections to establish union high schools with one or more teachers to which all the pupils of the district might have a cess. Incorporated towns, also, might be encouraged to provide higher training for the children of adjacent districts by the payment from the latter of a small sum for each pupil sent from their borders. There is every reason, too, as has been set forth in the first part of this paper, why the provincial government should do something more to assist such an endeavour.

It is in order now to review the plea of the opponents of an "enlarged district" or "township" system. Their objections, as expressed wherever the township scheme has been mooted, are generally reducible to two. Let us hear them. First, it is objected that, in spite of all the economy promised by the promoters of the township system, it is obvious that additional taxation will be imposed upon the wealthier districts. Secondly, the new system will infringe upon the democratic rights of the school section.

The first of these objections has already been in evidence, and is maintained to be one of the admirable features of the plan of enlarged districts. Here is the way Mr. Henry S. Randall, Secretary of State and Superintendent of Education for New York state, expounds the principle of the ideal school tax:

"such, shall support public education, no sound reason can be assigned why its aggregation in cities shall relieve it from paying as much on the dollar for that object as is paid by the more thinly diffused wealth of the country; or why, as has sometimes been urged, county lines should limit its disbursement. If the doctrine maintains that the wealthy individual, though he have no children, shall aid his poorer neighbour in paying for schools, no sound reason can be assigned why the wealthy county or neighbourhood shall not aid the poorer one for the same end. It is no greater hardship for New York to aid

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"Oneida, than it is for the city of Utica to aid one of the poorer towns of its county; and the hardship is greater in neither case than it is to tax any one individual for the benefit of another. The only theory on which a state tax for education can be defended at all is that education is a common concern and interest as much as the support of government; and who thinks of claiming that the sums raised by tax for the latter purpose shall be exclusively disbursed in the counties where they are collected?" (Report for 1854.)

Listen further to another New York State Superintendent's report:

"Government must abandon the theory that it is its province to educate the people, or it is bound, so far as laws can reason-ably accomplish it, to make the burdens and benefits of any system which it employs for this object alike throughout every square mile and between all individuals within its borders."

Coming now to the second objection that the enlarged district system will infringe upon the democratic rights of the school sections, let us hear in refutation the report of the Secretary of State for Connecticut:

"The people are learning that the township system is truly democratic—equalizing both the expenses and the advantges of schools, relieving the poorer districts, securing better and more permanent teachers, and promoting unity, harmony and efficiency in the management of schools; and that the union of districts does not imply centralization of power—that no other office gives such an opportunity for the one man power as that of district committee." (Report 1875, p. 112.)

It may be insisted by my opponents that the trustee is elected by a community which he therefore represents. Well, so is a board of commissioners for an enlarged district or township, with this advantage for our scheme, that, in a large district sufficient interest would be taken in the election and sufficient honour would attach to the office to secure men intelligent enough to fairly represent the people and interested enough to fulfill their duties. This is not now the case.

Such are, as far as I am aware, the standard objections that have been urged against the township system in the United States. If there are objections founded upon educational con-

ditions peculiar to Nova Scotia, it will be well to have them discussed and passed upon; and I have no doubt there are seeming obstacles which have not presented themselves to my view. Time forbids my doing anything more in the way of enforcing my contention for the township system beyond quoting a few opinions from English, American and other authorities. For instance, Hon. Francis Adams, Secretary of the National Education League of England, in his work, "The Free School System of the United States," says (pp. 31-34):

"Although at first sight the area of a school district may appear to be an unimportant matter of detail, yet upon it, as the experience of the United States has proved, the efficiency of any school system largely depends. The most formidable difficulty which the American system has encountered has arisen out of this question. This is what is known in the United States as the district system! Wherever it still exists it is the subject of the most bitter complaint and condemnation amongst school superintendents and officers. Most of the states have, after an extended trial of the district system, reorganized under the township plan; and the complete abolition of the former system, if it can be secured by the almost unanimous condemnation of school officers of all grades, would appear to be a question of time only."

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Mons. F. Buisson, in his report upon primary instruction at the universal exposition of Philadelphia, says (as translated in the Report of the Commissioners of Education for 1887, p. xxxix):

"The district is a territorial unit not only too narrow but too variable to serve either as the basis for a wise distribution of school funds or for efficient supervision of the schools. Chance, caprice, sometimes the interests of a single family, or an insignificant village rivalry; sometimes also the prejudice or carelessness of a single man, may determine the fate of a locality, either burdening it with useless taxes, depriving it of any school whatever, or giving it a very poor one. The district system has been tried; it is not liberty, but chaos. Those who are engaged in elementary instruction, with one voice demand its repeal."

The Commissioner of Education at Washington said in his Report for 1877 (p. xxxix):

"The township was the unit of the whole school system, and "many thoughtful men are questioning whether it ought not to be

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em, and not to be "restored to that position, instead of being broken into incohesive "fragments called school districts, as is common now. These being the invariable characteristics and results of the two systems, a number of the States are endeavoring to get rid of the district and substitute the township system. The voice of the State Superintendents is believed to be uniformly in favor of this change."

Further, of 277 replies sent by leading American educationists in 1890 in answer to a circular addressed to them by Mr. C. W. Bardeen of New York, 247 were in favor of enlarged districts on the old township lines. Some of the replies indicated a fear that village schools might be hampered by rural penuriousness, but Supt. Buchrle of Pennsylvania, anticipating this very difficulty, says:

"I believe the Pennsylvania plan is about as nearly perfect as "any other. * * * The township system is established by law, but villages and rural districts independent of the townships may be created by the courts. This I regard as a healthy check against too great penuriousness on the part of rural members."

More than half of the respondents were in favour of exempting village schools, while two-thirds were in favour of making the system compulsory instead of permissible. The twenty-four State Superintendents who replied to the circular were unanimous in favour of the township system. Of thirty-seven principals of State Normal Schools only one answered in the negative.

Circulars were sent to the county superintendents of Pennsylvania, and, of the twenty-eight replies received, twenty-three considered the superiority of the system fully established, one was doubtful, and four were opposed to it. Mr. Bardeen, in his address delivered before the State Teachers' Association of New Jersey, in 1891, remarks that in the report of the New York Department of Public Instruction for 1889 may be found all the extracts from State reports referring to the township system that a careful search had been able to gather. There are in all 152 extracts, and every one of them is in its favour.

Another vote of representative American educators taken by the N. Y. State Department in the same year, omitting answers where doubt was expressed, stood 156 to 5 in favour of the system. The following questions were answered at the same time:

Do you think the following advantages are justly claimed for the township system:

- (a) Equal school privileges?—YES, by 150 to 5.
- (b) Equal taxation?—YES, by 145 to 3.
- (c) Impartial selection of teachers?—YES, by 144 to 9.
- (d) Higher education extended?—YES, by 143 to 7.
- (e) Increased interest in and respect for schools?—YES, 140 to 5.
- (f) Economy of intelligent expenditure?—YES, by 143 to 4.

Let me quote, finally, a few short extracts from the report of the United States Commissioner of Education for 1890-91. Vol. II, pp. 1076 et seq.)

In view of the body of opinion quoted in favour of the township plan, it is not surprising to learn that the system has already been adopted in many of the American States. Pennsylvania had it as early as 1836. Indiana adopted it in 1852, and New Hampshire followed in 1874; Massachusetts introduced it two years later. Since then have been added to the list West Virginia, Alabama, Maine, Vermont, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New Jersey, and other States; so that it seems probable that before many years this system will have extended throughout the length and breadth of the United States.

The enlarged district system is, thus clearly, not a mere theory offered timidly for discussion: it is a practical result, presented to you for examination or for condemnation. It has great merits: it may have grave defects. My endeavour has been, of course, mainly, to set forth some of its chief advantages. Whether I have dealt adequately with these or not, I trust that the facts and opinions which I have laid before you make it sufficiently plain that the adoption of the system in our provinces is a suggestion worthy of your serious consideration.

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THE POST-GRADUATE TRAINING OF TEACHERS.

By John Dearness, Esq.,

[Public School Inspector, Middlesex County, London, Ontario.]

He who marches not forward in his profession falls in the rear; in the very condition of things there is no time or place for standing still.

This is especially true of the teacher. Even one who puts forth energy sufficient for marking time, but that only, is steadily losing ground. Two causes operating to produce retrogression on the part of a teacher, who is not making conscious, continual and systematic efforts to advance, are the general progress of the profession and the peculiarly narrowing effects of school-teaching upon one who regards the work as so much mechanical routine, —a kind of tread-mill that makes one complete revolution every six months or year, as the case may be. Experience, in such instances, is a synonym for confinement in a deepening and evernarrowing rut.

There are obvious reasons why the teacher, dealing as he does with inferiors and dependents, is more liable to professional stagnation and contraction than members of other professions,—lawyers or doctors for example,—whose practice brings them into daily contact with their peers.

An intelligent trustee of long experience remarked at a board meeting, when the choice of a teacher was under consideration, that "our school has generally been more successful when in charge of a teacher ambitious to make a reputation than when taught by an older head satisfied with the reputation he had made." Indeed, I have heard it seriously contended that teachers' certificates should lapse into the lowest grade unless they maintained a higher one by re-examination at least once every three years.

Happily, in Canada, the day is past when any argument or plea is needed for the principle that no one should enter upon the full responsibility of a teacher without preparatory professional training. In the practical recognition of this important proposition we are in the van of the nations, and while justly contemplating with satisfaction the spirited start we have made, let us not forget

the necessity of continuing the march. The reason for this paper is the danger of forgetting the liability to stagnation, and the need for renewed stimulation of the sense of responsibility, and for continual revision and renovation of methods and subject material. Our own province, Ontario, while not at all extravagant in its outlay upon preparatory training, spends more than twenty times as much in starting the teachers as in keeping them going.

Speaking from the observation and experience of nearly twenty-five years in inspection of schools, I am disposed to place the sum of the values of the various possible agencies for the post-graduate training of teachers not far below that of preparatory

training.

A category of these agencies will scarcely include the daily preparation by the teacher for each day's duties. No teacher is worthy of the name who habitually enters on his day's labors without preparation. Every teacher should bear in mind the great Arnold's remark to his surprised friend when the former withdrew from the pleasant company to prepare his lessons for the ensuing day,—"I prefer that my pupils should drink from a running stream rather than from a stagnant pool." Rust and dullness will almost immediately overtake the teacher who does not follow Arnold's practice.

One effective agent in the expansion and development of a teacher in the harness, is the regular reading of a good educational journal. The ideal one is not a journal whose pages are mainly given to school gossip and the purposes of a bulletin board, or to sets of examination questions with the answers thereof, and to annotations upon and directions for the teaching of particular lessons having at widest but a provincial interest. But it is one whose articles raise the reader's eyes off the ground, and give him enlarged views of the various questions affecting his profession, and whose articles treating of special departments of work would have equal interest to all the workers in such department from Cape Breton to Vancouver. The constituency of one province is hardly large enough to support such a journal. Cannot the influence of this Association effect a combination of the publishing forces now in existence, which would produce a periodical that all classes of educationists in all the provinces could heartily support and recommend? Without waiting for that happy

combination, those who have the training of teachers, or the opportunity of influencing them, should implant the sentiment—that the teacher is under a stigma who does not seek out, subscribe for, and regularly read one or more good educational papers.

READING CIRCLES AND READING COURSES.

In towns and cities, small clubs or groups of teachers have been formed to hold weekly or fortnightly meetings to discuss readings in pedagogics, psychology, etc. I know of one group of five to eight teachers who met on friday evenings, and at their meetings carried out the following order of business:—

- (1.) Questions of interest since last meeting. ,
- (2.) The educational author for the evening.
- (3.) The literary half-hour.

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Under No. 1 there were always some questions relating to discipline, management, method or subject matter to be considered. The professional readings took the members through all or part of the works of David Page, Bain, Forrester, Wickersham, Curwen, and others. The literary half-hour usually had sixty minutes in it, and is femembered for the delightful intercourse with Emerson, Carlyle, Ruskin, Tennyson and Shakespeare. So far as I know, the practice of forming and attending these reading-clubs is not greatly in vogue among urban teachers, notwithstanding that they may be made the means of conveying so much benefit and pleasure to their members.

Of a similar character are the reading courses established usually by some central authority as that of a city, county or provincial board. The one adopted by the Education Department for the teachers of Ontario prescribes nine books to be read in a term of three years, three in each year. The readers prepare a critical thesis of at least fifteen pages on each book. These theses are examined by a committee of the County Institute. At the end of the course, upon the favorable report of the committee, the Education Department grants a diploma to the reader. The three volumes prescribed for this year's reading are:—Hinsdale's "Language Arts," Davidson's "Education of the Greek People," and Parkman's "Old Regime."

SUMMER SCHOOLS.

Some of the neighboring States have given official recognition to the professional assistance rendered to teachers at what are called Summer Schools.

These institutions have grown out of the desire to spend the part or whole of the long summer vacation in such a manner as will be most helpful to the following year's work. There is an increasing tendency, may it become a very prevalent fashion,for professional people having common interests and sympathies to assemble during the vacation at some pleasant and suitable place, commended by its healthfulness, beauty of surroundings or peculiar facilities for the pursuit of some particular object. assemblies seem a natural outgrowth of the old-fashioned campmeeting, and hence it is not surprising that so many of them have a religious purpose. A glance at advertising lists shows for how great a variety of aims and interests they are held. for physical culture, there for music, several for Bible study, another for oratory, besides special schools for each of :- Philosophy, mining, geodesy, languages, biology, microscopy, applied ethics, manual training and cooking, while many summer schools offer a choice of several courses.

So far as I know, the nearly invariable testimony of those who have attended these summer schools is, that a vacation spent in a judicious combination of recreation, congenial society and the prosecution of a favorite study is more pleasant and invigorating than one spent in idleness. The following quotation from a report of a Catholic Summer School is to the point:—

"There is something irresistibly attractive to human nature in the idea of a summer encampment by shore or stream. Men like to get away from towns and cities to enjoy communion with nature. When to the charms of the shore are added the comforts of home life, and the attractions of literature, art and music, neither the creature discomforts of savage life in the woods nor the jejune pleasures of the summer hotel can successfully vie with the Summer School, if rightly managed, as a rational mode of recreation and enjoyment."

As an agency for the post-graduate training of teachers the Summer School seems to be capable of doing great good and is th pr te gi

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well deserving the patronage of educationists and the encourageognition ment of educational authorities. In Ontario, the Education Department appointed lecturers to conduct one, or at most two, hat are summer sessions for instruction of teachers in drawing, music, botany, zoology and agriculture, respectively. The attendance end the was small, but these sessions had little or nothing of the social nner as or recreative character. re is an Mr. Wm. Houston, M. A., attempted to establish a Summer School at Niagara-on-the-Lake on the hion,-Chautauqua plan. It offered good courses in pedagogics, physipathies cal training, literature and science, but the patronage it received suitable was not generous enough to warrant its continuance beyond two lings or or three summers. It received no recognition or assistance from These the Government. camp-I cannot report to what extent the other provinces of Canada have used Summer Schools to help the m have teachers. The State of Wisconsin has for ten years or more given an annual substantial grant towards the amaintenance of Teachers' Summer Schools; \$6,000 is the amount New York State has granted this year for the same purpose.

TEACHERS' INSTITUTES.

I close with a reference to the Teachers' Institute which, in Ontario, aside from the varying value of the Inspector's visits, is the most influential agency in stimulating teachers to literary and professional self-improvement, in guiding them to a better study of the children intrusted to their case, and of informing them of improved methods of teaching and managing their schools. regularly attended meetings of a well-managed Institute are of incalculable benefit to the cause of education in the county. A good Institute sends a/vitalizing ferment through the schools of its district. To use the words of the original N. E. A. call, it is there that the wisdom and power of many minds is concentrated, and there that are distributed among all the experiences of all, Where can a teacher get more helpful reading than in the extended report of a good Convention? It is not to pay a compliment to some of those listening to this paper, but to speak the truth in support of my contention, that I say that in the last two or three years I have consulted the Report of the Twelfth Convention of the Nova Scotia Association as frequently as any other educational work on my shelves.

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rs the and is But the presentation of the concentrated wisdom and experience at these meetings does not sum up their benefits. The reading of the printed volumes of addresses, good as that may be, is not half the value of attentive attendance at the sessions. The animated debate arouses the interest and fixes the salient points in a manner that gives them the most practical worth. The personal contact of mind with mind, each summoning its best efforts, arouses the mind and heart of all to a degree of receptivity that the reading or class-room lecture can seldom reach.

Then, there is what may be called the social value. Dr. Wm. T. Harris, in appraising the values of the different influences of the National Association, said that he rated the direct aid of the essays and papers at one-fourth; of the debates and discussions, one-fourth; and that of personal conversation, observation of other teachers and of places and circumstances incidental to the meeting, at fully one-half.

The County Institute should be held at least once a year, better still, semi-annually, and should continue in session two or

three days.

The programme should be contributed mainly by the members. The teacher who prepares a subject is helped first and most; the discussion of the effort of a fellow-member is likely to be more general and incisive than of the more elaborate, but possibly not more practical address of an imported lecturer. When a method is illustrated by the actual teaching of a class, it seldom fails to interest and instruct. Some part of each programme should be specially designed to attract and benefit trustees, and one session, preferably in the evening, should be of a popular character.

The committee in charge of the programme should seek the advice of the Inspector. He has had the opportunity to discover that A teaches this well, B excels in that, and C in some other respect. Using the assistance, these teachers can give distributes among all the experience of the best.

It is a mistake to introduce too large a variety of topics. I have attended exceedingly useful meetings at which only two or three subjects were introduced. At the last one in this county, East Middlesex, provision had been made for the reading during the preceding three months, by every teacher, of Hinsdale's "Language Arts." Each made and brought to the meeting a

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should, seek the nity to discover in some other give distributes

y of topics. I ch only two or in this county, reading during of Hinsdale's the meeting a written application or amplification of some point in the book. Ten persons had been nominated a month in advance to speak on different specified topics relating to the teaching of reading and language. This work wholly occupied one day; the remainder of the time was devoted to the consideration of the teaching of drawing. Eleven different topics in drawing had been prescribed. For lack of time, four of these were not reached. It is unnecessary to say that the teaching of English and drawing in the district received from this meeting a very noticeable stimulus and uplift.

So great is the value of animated, general, well-controlled discussion, that it behooves the managers of an Institute at an early stage of the meeting to devise some means of bringing a considerable number to their feet in order to break down the reserve and reluctance to participate in debate which generally characterize the early sessions.

As valuable adjuncts to the meeting, may be mentioned the exhibition and exchange of specimens of school-work, and the exhibition of maps, apparatus and other educational appliances and samples of educational books and periodicals.

The equipment of a County Institute is not complete without a library of professional books. It need not contain a very large number, indeed it is likely to prove more useful if it contain several copies, three to six, of each of the few best books, than if it be made of single copies of a large number of all grades of merit.

To circulate a book with a view to making it the basis of part of the programme at an Institute, as was done with Hinsdale related above, the following is one practical plan of reaching, say 100 teachers:—Twenty-five books are purchased at wholesale price and each given a number. A "Circulation Chart," drafted by the Inspector, is printed and attached to each book. At the heads of the four columns of this chart are the dates of the "handover," and opposite the number of each book are the names of the teachers who will receive it at the respective dates. The teachers whose names are in the last column bring the books to the meeting, where they are offered to those who wish to put one in their own libraries at half or third price. The actual cost to the E. Middlesex Association of affording a three weeks' reading

of Hinsdale's "Language Arts" to each of 117 teachers was less than six dollars, exclusive of freight and postage on the first distribution.

The County Institute well deserves public sympathy and support. In Ontario it is made by law the duty of every teacher to attend the annual meeting at all its sessions, such attendance, shown by a sessional roll-call, being subsequently reported to the several boards of trustees. The time allowed for these meetings was formerly two days in each half-year. I regret to say that the time has been shortened. The alleged reason being to meet the "too many holidays" cry of a certain class. However, the time may be extended at the option of the County Councils. Each Institute receive an annual grant from the Education Department of \$25, and a minimum equivalent from the county. In this county, Middlesex, there are two district Institutes; each has received, for ten years or more, grants from the County Council varying from \$75 to \$300 per annum. With these sums the Institutes have conducted uniform promotion examinations and various other educational enterprises. The membership fee has provided the small sum required for the actual expenses of the Institute meetings.

. These Institutes seem to be indispensably necessary to the keeping of the educational status of the counties up to date. Inspectors and trustees should be zealous in maintaining their efficiency, and the government should see that those Institutes which are discharging their function are not snuffed out by restrictive legislation nor even hampered for lack of the small financial assistance sometimes necessary to their useful existence.

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MINUTES OF THE HIGHER EDUCATION DEPARTMENT.

AUGUST 3RD, 10 A. M.

On motion the following officers were elected:-

President.......D. J. Goggin, M. A., Sult. of Education, N. W. T.

Vice-President REV. T. ADAMS, M.A., D.C.L., Prin. Bishop's College, Lennoxville.

Secretary S. A. MORTON, M. A., Halifax Academy.

After a few introductory remarks, the President called upon Mr. W. J. Robertson for a paper on "Secondary Education in Ontario, its Development, Present Condition, and Needs."

Discussion: Professor MacMechan asked why the work done of late years was inferior to that of previous ones, and was told that the deterioration in the quality of the work was due to the number of studies.

Geo. U. Hay, M. A., spoke of the injurious effects of examinations and cram, and suggested improvements.

Principal Adams also had a few words to say on what was suggested by the paper read. Owing to the lack of time further discussion was curtailed.

The next paper was on "Modern Languages," by Prof. H. Lothar Bober, M. A., King's College, Windsor. (Read by D. M. Soloan, B. A., Principal of Schools, New Glasgow, N. S.

Discussion: Prof. Reynar put in a strong plea for the study of French. He objected to the term of "foreign language" being applied to it, for many of our fellow Canadian subjects spoke it as their mother tongue. A knowledge of French is essential for the proper appreciation of the finest prose of modern times.

Prin. Adams regarded French as of high value, and thought all Canadians should know both French and English. Indeed the faculty of his college were considering the expediency of making a speaking knowledge of French a sine qua non for its graduates.

Prof. J. M. Lanos, Halifax Academy, very lucidly explained the Gouin system of teaching French, which system he characterized as teaching actions, and not names of things.

The third paper was on "Some Tendencies in Modern Education, and how to deal with them," by Thomas Kirkland, M. A., Principal of the Normal School, Toronto.

Meeting adjourned.

AUGUST 4TH, 9.30 A. M.

This session was opened by a paper on "The best Collegiate Education for Women, and how it can be secured," by Miss Eliza Ritchie, B. L., Ph. D., Assoc. Prof. of Philosophy, Wellesley College, Mass.

Discussion: Prin. Adams asked if the opinion that girls should study at co-educational colleges was generally held by her associate lady teachers. The reply was that it was by many.

Prof. Robertson observed that in Modern Languages, English, and History, girls make as good progress as boys. In Mathematics, however, especially in Geometry, they are inferior to boys.

Prin. Kirkland did not favor co-education except in the case of those girls who are to make their own living. In Toronto University, women medical students attended the dissecting room presided over by women. He believed the ideal staff in Ladies' Colleges is made up of both men and women.

Prof. MacMechan, of Dalhousie College; Miss Fitch, of Halifax; Mr. Gormley; Supt. Goggin; Mrs. Potter, of Everett, Mass.; Miss K. Mackintosh, of Halifax Academy, and others, took part in the discussion.

Mr. F. H. Eaton, M. A., Supt. of Schools, Victoria, B. C., being absent, his paper was not read.

The next paper was on "Nature and Literature," by Geo. Up Hay, M. A., F. R. S. C., Editor "Educ. Review," St. John, N. B.

Discussion: Prin. Kirkland wished to get rid of the everlasting grind of examinations.

Superintendent Goggin said the question was solved in the N. W. T. There the pupils took no examinations except from their own teachers, and their promotion did not wholly depend

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olved in the except from holly depend upon the results of these examinations, and could be made at any time in the year. Thus far the experiment worked well.

Miss Mackintosh remarked that examinations destroy individuality in the pupil.

Meeting adjourned till 2 p. m.

2 P. M,

This Department was divided into three sections: (a) Language; (b) Mathematics; (c) Technical Education.

Section (a). Mr. J. W. Logan, B. A., Halifax Academy, read a paper on "Value of Latin as a Subject of a High School Curriculum."

A short discussion followed.

Paper. "English Classics as a Substitute for Ancient Classics." By Rev. A. H. Reynar, M. A., LL. D., Dean of Faculty of Arts, Victoria University, Toronto.

Professors Lanos and Adams took part in the discussion. Meeting adjourned.

Section (b). MATHEMATICS. Reported by H. M. Mackay, B. A. Sc.

The Mathematical sub-section of the section of Higher Education assembled at 2 o'clock, Principal Adams in the Chair; Secretary, Mr. H. M. Mackay. A paper was read by Dr. D. A. Murray, of Cornell University, on "Euclidean Geometry and its Modern Substitutes," followed by a discussion participated in by Mr. Ahearn, Mr. Oakes, and the President. The proceedings were closed by a paper on "Mathematical Drawing," by Mr. H. M. Mackay.

Section (c). TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

The sub-department of Technical Education was one of the most interesting of the aggregation. There was a good attendance, and the papers were of great merit. That of Dr. Mills, President of the Agricultural College, Guelph, received special commendation. It was entitled "Technical Education in our Schools."

S. A. MORTON, Secretary.

SECONDARY EDUCATION IN ONTARIO, ITS DEVEL-OPMENT, PRESENT CONDITION, AND ITS NEEDS.

By Mr. W. J. Robertson, B. A., Ll. B.,

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[St. Catherine's Collegiate Institute.]

The Secondary Schools of Ontario hold a position of such importance in the educational system of that Province, that a brief historical account of their development seems desirable, in order to appreciate and understand the part they play in meeting the educational needs of the people. The present organization and actual working of these schools are an evolution of the old District and Grammar Schools system, which came into existence in the early years of this century. When Ontario (then called Upper Canada) was nothing more than a huge wilderness with a few small settlements scattered along its lakes and rivers, it occurred to its college-educated Governors that the young province should be equipped with a University and schools which would prepare the children of the official and governing classes for entrance into such an institution. Common Schools, or schools for the common people, were of little importance in the estimation of those who at that time controlled the destinies of Upper Canada. make this point clear because it is now so generally felt that the Secondary School is the "poor man's college" that we are apt to forget the radical change which has taken place in public opinion during the last half century, regarding these institutions. For it is undoubtedly true that for a long time the District and Grammar Schools were looked upon as institutions established for the special benefit of the wealthy and aristocratic elements in the community, and as might be expected, the masses viewed them with small favour and gave them but a grudging support. this has been changed. The elements in our community that formerly patronized and received benefit from the Grammar Schools, now, to a considerable extent, support and patronize another class of Secondary Schools having little or no connection with the state. The effort to establish a University and Grammar Schools without first laying a broad and deep foundation in an efficient public school system, has been rightly compared to the

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task of standing a pyramid upon its apex instead of on its base; yet that was the policy pursued in Upper Canada for fully half a century.

The history of these District or Grammar Schools may now be outlined briefly:-The first Classical or Grammar School founded in Ontario, was at Kingston in the year 1785, under the a little later at Niagara, York and Cornwall. These were not public institutions, but private schools supported by fees. State action dates from 1797, when a memorial was sent by the Upper Canada Legislature to George III. praying that a grant of land be given for the endowment of a Grammar School in each district, and a University for the whole province. To this memorial His Majesty graciously assented, and a recommendation followed "that 500,000 acres of land be set apart for the establishment of a Grammar School in each district, and a Central University for the whole Province." Moderate salaries were proposed for the Kingston, Niagara, Cornwall and Sandwich were chosen as sites for the schools, while York (now Toronto) was selected as the seat of the pioneer University. After some negotiation, John Strachan, a teacher at Kettle, Scotland, was selected as the head of the University. This young school-master, soon to become famous in our history, arrived in Kingston on the last day of the year 1799, and found that the scheme to establish a college was indefinitely postponed, but with characteristic energy he proceeded to establish a private school, first at Kingston, and, a few years later, at Cornwall. This school at Cornwall, soon to become widely and favourably known, was for many years the chief educational institution in the province.

In 1806 an Act was passed by this Legislature, establishing District or Grammar Schools in the eight Districts of the Province. Money was voted to pay the salaries of the Masters, who were engaged by trustees appointed by the Governor, the sanction of the latter to the appointments being considered necessary. Gradually the number of these District or Grammar Schools increased, and we find, from a Report dated 1828, that there were in existence at that time 11 Grammar Schools with an attendance of 372. The course of study in these institutions permitted the attendance of very young pupils and included little beyond

Classics, Mathematics, French, and the elements of English. The pupils were, in the main, the children of the wealthy and official elements in the community, although an effort was made to have admitted free of charge a few pupils from the common schools. This well meant attempt to give the benefits of a liberal education to a select number chosen from the masses, was an utter failure. Doubtless a few poor but energetic students like the late Hon. John Sandfield Macdonald, the first premier of Ontario, found a place in the class roll of these schools, but the number must have been exceedingly limited.

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The year 1828 is memorable as the year in which Upper Canada College was founded. The project of establishing a Provincial University had, for the time, been abandoned, and the failure of the scheme called into existence Upper Canada College as an educational substitute. This well known institution had for its model the great public schools of England, and was endowed with a large grant of public land. Like the District or Grammar Schools it was supported mainly by the official and aristocratic elements in the province, and for many years it ranked high

among its chief educational institutions.

The character of this paper will not permit of a further detailed account of the growth and working of these Grammar Schools. As already indicated, they derived their support almost entirely from fees and Government grants. The municipalities or districts in which they were situated did but little to encourage them, nevertheless they served an important purpose in furnishing a liberal education to those fitting themselves for professional and public careets, for at this time universities were not yet in existence. They were the highest rungs in our Provincial educational ladder.

It is scarcely necessary to say that the appointment of the Rev. Dr. Ryerson, in 1844, as the Chief Superintendent of Education in Upper Canada, had a profound influence upon our Secondary as well as upon our Public or Common School education, yet it seems to me that for many years the revolution he wrought in our educational system, had no very marked effect upon the Grammar Schools of the province. Doubtless, the great improvement that took place in our Common School education must have had a beneficial effect upon the Grammar Schools. Increase in wealth

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and general intelligence must have created a desire for a more liberal education than what the Common School could furnish, and this would tend to increase the number of pupils in the Grammar Schools. It was also the policy of Dr. Ryerson to enlist the active co-operation of the municipalities in the support of the Grammar Schools, as he rightly considered that the community should recognize that higher education was as much in the interests of the state as that furnished by the Common Schools. Hence we find that this far-seeing friend of education was unceasing in his efforts to overcome the apathy of the general public towards higher education. That his efforts were not wholly unsuccessful is shown by the great increase in the number of Grammar Schools that took place during his superintendency, as well as in the more liberal aid given by the municipalities. It must be confessed, however, that the increase in the number of Grammar Schools was largely due to the desire to obtain as much as possible of the Government grant towards education. Grammar Schools, it must be remembered, received their main support from Government grants-grants too, much more liberal than those given to the Common Schools. It was the policy of Dr. Ryerson to have not only the Common Schools free from charges for tuition, but also the Grammar Schools. To accomplish this task required persistent and tactful efforts on the part of the Chief Superintendent. The process of educating public opinion to this end was carried on from year to year, and resulted in giving Ontario free Public Schools. To a much more limited extent he was successful in inducing the municipalities to make the Grammar Schools free; although a reference to the educational reports of forty years ago shows that many Grammar Schools had at that time opened their doors to pupils without charge.

Before noticing some very important legislation that took place under the Ryerson règime, it may be permitted to call attention to some features of the Secondary Education of the time prior to 1853. In the first place, there seems to have been no particular educational qualities demanded by the state of the Grammar School masters. In the next place, no entrance examinations had to be passed to secure admission to these schools. In the third place, girls were not admitted. At that time a classical education was not deemed the proper thing for young ladies, hence we find a

multitude of private schools, seminaries and academies where young ladies were given a so-called higher education. Co-education was frowned upon by the highest educational authorities, among whom we may place Dr. Ryerson himself.

According to our present ideals, the curriculum of these Grammar Schools was a very limited one. Very few pupils ever found their way into Trigonometry, Algebra and Euclid. Latin was studied very generally, but Greek had few friends. French had a place, but German was unknown. Of Science, we may say there was none. Literature and History received the crudest kind of treatment. It is safe to say that beyond Reading, Writing, Spelling and Latin, nothing was taught as we now think it should be taught.

The buildings and equipment of these Grammar Schools were of the most defective and imperfect character. Very often the Grammar School was in the same building as the Common School—a kind of upper room, in which the higher pupils received a so-called classical education from the one—or at most two—masters employed.

The year 1853 marks a change for the better. Several steps are now taken in advance. Hitherto, the Grammar School was managed by a Board of Trustees distinct from the Common School Board—in fact we find that these trustees for a long time were appointed by the Government. Now, we have Union Boards called into existence. Provision is made for Government inspection, and a programme of studies is outlined and prescribed. Head Masters are required to be graduates in Arts or to hold certificates granted by the Council of Public Instruction. As a report of Dr. Ryerson shows, the inspection of Grammar Schools soon brought to light their utter inefficiency. Many schools were in existence solely for the purpose of securing a share of the Grammar School Fund. This, and other evils, led to the legislation of 1865, by which the "undue multiplication of Grammar Schools was prevented, the duties of Grammar Schools defined, and an amount of local support required, equal at least to one-half the amount of the apportionment from the Grammar School Fund." The Government grant was made on the basis of the average attendance of pupils in the prescribed programme of studies, Latin being deemed an essential. An improved

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curriculum was drafted and put into force, in which English received attention; pupils were to pass an entrance examination held by the inspector, and last, but not least, girls were to be admitted for the purpose of studying English and French. girls might study Latin was not considered a possibility, much less a probability, yet the ingenuity of trustees and teachers was found equal to the occasion. The Government grant was based upon the average attendance in certain prescribed studies, one of which was Latin. Girls taking English and French were not counted as Grammar School pupils in the apportionment of the grant, Unfortunately, for the Government treasury, the law did not specify which sex should be permitted to study Latin, and soon the Grammar Schools were full of girls taking homoeopathia doses of Latin Grammar, and little or no French. The fair sex was being initiated into the mysteries of the dead languages and was helping to fill the coffers of the Grammar Schools at the The Chief Superintendent was in a state of consternation and wrath, but could find no better remedy than the proposal that for the purpose of computing the average attendance, two girls should be held equivalent to one boy.

We have now reached a most important point in the development of our Secondary School system. What follows may be called the "Modern History of our Secondary Schools." Changes are exceedingly numerous and frequent; in fact, bewilderingly frequent. From whatever point of view we look at the subject, we are impressed with the fact that the High School or Collegiate Institute of to-day (the name was changed in 1871) is markedly different from the Grammar School of thirty years ago. In buildings, equipment, attendance, qualification of teachers, municipal support, course of study, text books, methods, we have made the most remarkable progress.

If asked to state the cause or causes of this advancement, aside from the improvement in our Public Schools, I would be inclined to suggest that it began with a remarkable Report made by Rev. Prof. George Paxton Young, the Grammar School Inspector, in the year 1866. This report is too lengthy to analyze, but its scathing criticism of the Grammar Schools of the day, its broad and comprehensive views of educational reform revolutionized the secondary education of the province. Prof. Young, as is well

known in Ontario, was a profound scholar and one of the deepest thinkers of his day, besides standing easily first among Canadian educationists as an inspiring teacher. His visits of inspection to the Grammar Schools were memorable events in the history of these institutions, for with him came life, energy, encouragement, stimulus and kindly but healthy criticism.

Referring then, to Prof. Young's reports of 1866 and 1867, we find that he unsparingly condemns the system of distribution of the Government grant, the character of the education given, the relation existing between the Common and the Grammar Schools, and above all, the tendency existing to degrade the Common Schools in the interests of the Grammar Schools. specifically noted are: - Crowding the Grammar Schools with pupils that should have been left in the Common Schools to receive some knowledge of the elements of an English education before being thrust into the study of Latin and creek. His report fairly bristles with illustrations of the gross ignorance on the part of the pupils in the Grammar Schools of the most elementary knowledge of English Grammar and Literature. This evil, of course, originated in the desire of the trustees of these schools to secure as large a share as possible of the Government grant, this grant, as already pointed out, being apportioned on the basis of the average attendance of pupils taking a Classical course. In consequence, the higher grades of the Common Schools were depleted of their pupils, to be thrust nolens volens into classes in Latin Grammar. The result was disastrous to both Common and Grammar Schools. While the study of English branches was grossly neglected, the instruction given in Latin and Greek was of the most farcical character. Thus the main object of the Grammar Schools, viz., the furnishing of a higher and more liberal education in English, Latin and Greek, was almost wholly My excuse for dwelling upon this point is, that the very evil so lucidly explained and so strongly denounced by Prof. Young thirty years ago, is once more threatening the usefulness of our High Schools and Collegiate Institutes, as will be seen later on.

Prof. Young's remedy for the ills of his day, was the apportionment of the Government grant upon a different basis. He suggested that *results* should be an important factor in determining

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the grant, but to secure a fairly accurate knowledge of the efficiency of the different schools, it would be necessary to have a more complete system of inspection. To that end he recommended the appointment of three District Inspectors, whose work might be controlled and harmonized by a Chief Inspector. He also emphasized very strongly the importance and necessity of giving more prominence to the study of English branches in our Secondary Schools, as he considered that the great majority of the pupils taking Latin and Greek were practically wasting their time.

Prof. Young's inspectorate ended in 1868, but the fruits of his labors and his suggestions were soon seen. In 1871 an important Act was passed by the Ontario Legislature, which did much to shape the future course of Secondary Education.

Four points may be noted regarding this legislation:

- 1. The Entrance Examination to High Schools was in the future to be on the subjects (with a few exceptions) taught in the Fourth Form of the Public Schools, and the examination was to be a written one. This examination, however, was entirely local in its character, and consequently the standard very variable and indefinite.
- 2. A definite programme of studies was prescribed for High Schools, so that their work should not conflict or overlap that of the Public Schools.
- 3. Municipal aid to the High Schools was now rendered imperative, and the state grant to the High Schools considerably increased.
- 4. To encourage the establishment of better equipped Classical schools, the name of "Collegiate Institute" was granted to High Schools which could satisfy certain prescribed conditions. These conditions were as follows:—
 - (a) The employment of four masters.
- (b) An average attendance of at least sixty pupils studying Latin or Greek.

To encourage the High Schools to reach this higher standard, Collegiate Institutes were to receive an additional Grant of \$750 per annum from the public treasury, in addition to the prestige of the name conferred.

A reference to the Educational Report of this time shows that eight Collegiate Institutes were at once established as a result of the new legislation. Still, results were unsatisfactory, and further action was deemed necessary. The Entrance Examinations were in 1873 made uniform, the questions being prepared and sent to the different localities or Examination centres by a central Board of Examiners. As a further check upon that local enthusiasm for higher education, which had led to the admission of unfit pupils into the High School, the answers of the candidates had to be sent to headquarters for revision by the Inspectors. Still the Inspectors were dissatisfied. The principle of "Payment by Results" had been accepted, but a grave difficulty arose in determining the "results." After much discussion and anxious deliberation, it was decided to establish another examination to be known as the "Intermediate," because this examination marked a stage in the pupil's development "intermediate" between thebeginning and end of his High School career. Certain subjects were prescribed for examination purposes. A certain percentage was exacted, and on the "results" of these examinations a certain amount of the Government grant was apportioned. The examinations were at first held twice a year. Then began the most desperate struggle, for a share of the Government grant, known in our educational history. "Cram" was king for the time being. Nothing was worth teaching that did not directly tend to pass as many candidates as possible. The health of the teachers and the true intellectual development of the pupils were sacrificed remorselessly upon the altar of this examination Moloch; but the "fever" died out in a few years. So many pupils passed the "intermediate" that the coveted Government grant became almost valueless and the cry went forth for a return to more rational methods. In less than seven years the "Intermediate" was buried and "payment by results" took another form. In 1885 it was decided to apportion the Government grant on the basis of (1) salaries paid to Masters and Assistants; (2) The character and equipment of school buildings and appendages; (3) Average attendance. If we add to this that a fixed minimum grant is given to every High School and Collegiate Institute, we have the basis on which the grant is now distributed.

In the meantime other changes of an important and beneficial kind had been carried out. Three inspectors were appointed

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instead of one, viz., -Messrs. J. A. McLellan, J. M. Buchan, and S. Marling. These gentlemen were all accomplished and experienced teachers, and the services they rendered our High Schools should not be forgotten. The first named, J. A. McLellan, Ll. D., was an enthusiast for mathematical studies, while Messrs. Buchan and Marling were deeply interested in English and History, and in the study of languages. Under the dominating influence of Dr. McLellan, Mathematics took the first place in our Secondary Schools, a place they have held until very recently. The whole method of teaching Arithmetic and Algebra was revolutionized. Reason took the place of rules. Short and direct methods in Algebra drove out the old cumbrous and tedious processes. The influence of this new revival of Mathematics extended far beyond the High Schools; it was soon and permanently felt in our Universities. No branch of higher éducation is so thoroughly taught, and in no branch is the standard so high at our Provincial University as that of Mathematics. Considerable attention was also devoted to English studies, but the complaint was soon heard that an undue portion of the time and energy of the teachers, and pupils was being given to Mathematics. Doubtless this complaint had some justification, but the reproach, if such, has since been thoroughly removed.

At this point it may be well to notice that the duties of the High School Inspector or Inspectors twenty years ago were very different from what they are to-day. Besides the work of inspection, pure and simple, men like Messrs. Young, Mackenzie, McLellan, Buchan and Marling taught classes in the presence of the masters and thus indicated directly by example the best methods of instruction of the day. A visit of the Inspector was looked upon as an event of no small importance to the pupils as well as to the teachers. Encouragement and stimulus were given for greater and better efforts, and no young teacher-anxious to do his best-but felt that the Inspector was his best friend. To-day the work of the Inspector is almost wholly critical. For this change there is a reason. It would be difficult now to find two gentlemen fully competent to take charge of all the classes in our extended curriculum and illustrate by actual example how a subject should be taught. Farther,-under our present system, considerable attention is given to the professional training of

High School masters, and all the best and newest methods are supposed to be taught in our training schools. That a High School master should know something of the actual work of teaching, before assuming his duties, was recognized by the Act of 1874, by which it became necessary for an applicant for a Head Master's Certificate, to furnish to the Council of Public Instruction, some evidence of his knowledge of the science and art of Parenthetically, it may be said, that a very small amount of evidence was sufficient to secure that coveted document. From that day to this the law has become exceedingly strict in demanding, not only from Head Masters but from their Assistants, professional, as well as non-professional, or scholastic attainments. Training Schools were very soon established at different points for High School Assistants, and no teacher was permitted to assume the duties of Headmaster unless he had at first served an apprenticeship as an Assistant. Specialists in the four departments of Mathematics, Classics, Modern Languages and Science were soon considered necessary before a High School could become a Collegiate Institute. A little later the School of Pedagogy was established to do the work of the Fraining Institutes, and this School, under its more dignified title of "Normal College," is now the sole institution where the raw University graduate or holder of a Senior Leaving certificate is fitted and prepared for High School duties. That a few months' training inthe Normal College is sufficient to make a skilled and successful teacher, no sane person thinks for one moment, but it is undoubtedly true that the instruction and practice in teaching there obtained must be of very considerable value.

I have dwelt somewhat at length on the improvement in the internal conditions of our High Schools, but it should also be pointed out that external conditions were showing equal improvements. In 1879 the law was changed so that the local grant to High Schools and Collegiate Institutes should be at least equal to the Government grant. That the municipalities had at last begun to realize the importance of the Secondary Schools is shown by the willingness now exhibited in many cases to make them free to the children of all resident tax-payers (sometimes to those of non-residents) and by the large sums raised through taxation to erect suitable buildings and furnish a satisfactory equipment of

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laboratories, libraries, gymnasia, etc. The amount spent in salaries for teachers was largely increased, for not only were more teachers employed but ambitious schools sought to secure the best and were prepared to pay accordingly. It is true that at the present time there is a disposition to lower the salaries of teachers, particularly those in charge of Junior Forms. This arises from the keen competition on the part of graduates of the Training School to secure situations, by means of which they may become fully qualified teachers.

In one respect the period beginning about 1876 and ending about 1886, is the best in the history of our Secondary Schools. The work done then, while not so extensive as that undertaken to-day, was done more thoroughly. This is particularly true of Mathematics and Mathematical Physics. Our best schools had, at that time, large classes of students in these subjects and the standard of excellence was unusually high. It is true Experimental Physics received comparatively little attention, compared with that given to-day in our well-equipped laboratories, but the loss sustained by not having physical apparatus was much more than compensated by the exactitude and clearness of the knowledge acquired through a mastery of the elementary Mathematics. Students, too, during this period, frequently took the first year Honour Course of the University in Mathematics, Classics and Moderns at our Collegiate Institutes with excellent results. These students were better trained than those attending the Universities, and the teachers in the Collegiate Institutes were stimulated to greater exertions by the fact that higher work was placed in their hands. Since the curriculum of our Secondary Schools has been limited to Honor Matriculation or its supposed equivalent—the Pass work of the First Year at the University,—there has been a perceptible loss in the educational efficiency of both Collegiate Institutes and Universities. On the other hand, it must be recognized that during the last ten or fifteen years there has been a marked improvement in the teaching of History, Literature and the Modern Languages. For this, we must, I believe, give considerable credit to the present High School Inspectors-Messrs. Seath and Hodgson. 'If the influence of such a man as Dr. McLellan tended to raise the mathematical status of our Secondary Schools, it is equally certain that the influence of the present

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Inspectors has tended to raise the standard of English and Modern Languages. Unfortunately this has been accomplished at the expense of Mathematical studies; for while the standard as shown by the examination papers has not retrograded, the actual mathematical knowledge and power of our pupils have greatly diminished. Every mathematical teacher of long experience realizes this fact.

The theory on which our educational system is based is, that it is a continuous chain, or ladder, reaching from the lowest grade of the Public School to the Provincial University. A child beginning with the Kindergarten, may pass through all the stages of Public School education, to the High School or Collegiate Institute, and from thence, by a gradual transition, to the University, The state, aided by the municipality thus provides the means of a liberal education with little cost to the ambitious student. But this theory, while ever present before the mind of Dr. Ryerson, could not be realized in its completeness in his day, —it remained for his successors to work out and develop his ideas.

In 1876 the venerable Chief Superintendent retired, and our educational machinery was in consequence modified. Instead of a Chief Superintendent aided by a Council of Public Instruction, we introduced a Minister of Education, responsible for his Department to Parliament, just as every other Cabinet Minister is responsible. The Hon. Adam Crooks was our first Minister of Education, and during his administration secondary education received much attention and made rapid progress. He, in turn, was succeeded by the Hon. G. W. Ross, the present incumbent. The most noteworthy feature of the present administration is the successful effort to bring about a simplification of the courses of study in our Secondary Schools and a greater uniformity in the examinations for entrance to the professions and to the Universisities. Not many years ago each profession had its own separate matriculation course and examination; Law, Medicine and Dentistry prescribed their own entrance examinations, regardless of the matriculation examinations of the Universities. Each University too, had its own matriculation course and examination. The course of study for the different grades of teachers' certificates did not correspond with that for junior and senior matriculation,

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and consequently such certificates counted for nothing to those anxious to enter on a university career. On the other hand a university matriculant could not, by virtue of passing the matriculation examination, qualify for a teachers' certificate. Now all this is changed. By an agreement between the Education Department and the different Universities, a joint Examining Board has been appointed and we have secured the great boon of a uniform matriculation examination, which is accepted by the different professions of Law, Medicine, Dentistry, etc. A still more radical step was taken recently when the courses of study for teachers' certificates and matriculation into the Universities were practically unified. This was accomplished by raising the matriculation standard in some subjects, such as Mathematics, Physics and Chemistry, and by introducing into the course of study for the higher grades of certificates, Latin and the Modern Languages. One result of the change is that candidates for certificates can at the same time prepare for matriculation into the Universities. This has had the effect of greatly increasing the attendance at these institutions, -in fact, this change has completed the chain of our educational system. This unification of courses of study and the greater uniformity introduced into our examinations has aided our Secondary schools materially in carrying on their work. The time wasted formerly in preparing candidates for many different examinations, can now be utilized to good advantage in giving greater attention to branches of study formerly neglected. It is questionable, however, whether the results of the new regulations have been wholly good. The universities have undoubtedly gained by introducing Latin and the Modern Languages into the course of study for teachers' certificates, but it is, to many quite apparent, that the change is likely to prove highly detrimental to Public School education. The time now devoted by candidates for certificates to Latin, French and German, is largely wasted. A smattering of knowledge in these languages is obtained at a great expenditure of time, while the much more essential subjects of Mathematics, English and History are necessarily neglected. Our Public School teachers are going out from our Secondary schools inadequately equipped in the essentials for Public School work, while our classes are thronged with pupils endeavoring to master the elements of Latin, French and German.

Still another evil of no small importance has developed itself as the result of our recent legislation. Our Secondary schoolsup to a certain point-undertake to provide a good English education to those preparing for the ordinary avocations of life; No child is compelled to take Latin, Greek, French or German in the lower forms of our High Schools-his whole attention may be given to English, Mathematics, Elementary Science and subjects having a direct bearing on commercial life. This is in accordance with our ideal of a High School, that it should prepare our youth for the duties of ordinary citizenship, as well for the teaching and other professions. But while the theory is unobjectionable, the practical working out cannot be said to be free from evil results. A boy enters one of our Secondary schools without any definite ideas of a future career. The Head-master realizes that unless Latin is begun immediately, the pupil will give a great deal of trouble later on in his course, should he decide upon entering the University or one of the learned professions. Should such a decision be reached, his lack of linguistic knowledge would render it necessary to organize special classes in Latin, or French, or German, as the case may be, to meet the special need of a few This the teacher avoids as far as in his power, by compelling or inducing as many as possible of the entrance candidates to begin the study of Latin, and later on of French and German. As by far the greater number of these pupils never go beyond the lower forms of our High Schools, the time given to Latin is so much time wasted. The few years, two or three at the most, which the pupil spends in the High School, should be devoted entirely to the acquisition of a good knowledge of English, History and Arithmetic, instead of being thrown away on the elements of Latin Grammar. In fact we are in some degree reproducing the evils so graphically described by Professor Young in his famous report of 1866. It would be, of course, very unjust to say that our High Schools are, to anything like the same extent, as inefficient as they were at that date; but it is true that we now are reproducing the evil of that time in practically forcing into Latin young boys and girls whose time should be spent in obtaining a more thosough knowledge of English and Mathematics This defect in our system has given rise to various suggestions. One remedy proposed is to revert back to the old practice of

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making a clear distinction between the qualifications required in order to obtain a teacher's certificate and those required for matriculation, into our Universities. It would not be a matter of much difficulty to raise the standard required for admission into our High Schools and thus raise the standard of English and Mathematics in the High Schools themselves. Schools, too, teachers and pupils alike, would benefit by having a higher standard of admission provided the qualifications of the Public School teachers in English and Mathematics were raised. Against this proposal, we find arrayed those interested in securing a large attendance at the Universities. Unless pupils begin the study of Languages at an early age, he is urged, there is little hope of their becoming good linguists. So it has been suggested that the division of our Secondary schools into two classes, Classical Schools and English Schools, should take place. The formerfew in number-would be specially devoted to preparing candidates for entrance into the professions and for matriculation. The latter would give their attention to furnishing a good English education and to training candidates for teachers' certificates. This proposal has not as yet found many supporters. Local interests and jealousies are against it. Every man who wishes to give his child a professional or University career finds it convenient to have at his own door a High School, where Latin, Greek and French are taught. He prefers to support a small High School in his own locality, rather than send his son or daughter a few miles away from home to attend a Collegiate Institute. Besides, it is quite obvious that such a division as is proposed would destroy that unity and uniformity in courses of study and examinations which now exist. This, as I take it, is the chief difficulty we experience at the present time in the working of our system of secondary education.

Let me now in concluding call attention to some of the results of the wide extension of our Secondary School system. As stated before, the last twenty-five years have witnessed a marvellous development—not so much in the number of our Secondary Schools, as in the attendance, municipal aid given, tlass of teachers engaged, equipment, buildings and play grounds, and widening of course of study. What effects have been produced by this development? Have our Public Schools gained of lost

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English education.

Another effect of this extension of the means of obtaining a higher education at small cost has been a deplorable over-crowding of the professions. Law and Medicine, for instance, in spite of the barriers erected by high fees and lengthened courses of study, are now full to overflowing. If this is the case in professions where artificial hindrances are created by legislation, what shall be said about the teaching profession? In spite of denials to the contrary, I have no hesitation in saying that the eager rush into this profession is so great as to demoralize teachers' salaries in the Public Schools of large sections of the Province. holding the highest grades of Public School certificates can now be engaged (or hired?) at wages little better than that given to corporation laborers. The profession is becoming degraded by the wholesale introduction into its ranks of young men and women prepared to teach for the most petty remuneration. This, of course, is the natural outcome of the economic law of supply and demand. An education procured at small cost cannot expect to bring large returns. It may here be noted that one result of this enormous influx into the ranks of the teaching profession has been the recent abolition of the lowest grade of certificate-the Primary. Whether the rémedy will meet the evil, time will tell.

One other phase of our system of Secondary education must be noted before I close. Examinations, as already explained, have now reached a remarkable degree of uniformity. Every certificate is the result of an examination conducted by the Education Department. There the papers are prepared, and there the answers are read, the latter by a small army of examiners

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selected from the teachers themselves. Examinations are looked upon as one of the most important agencies in carrying out the educational programme of our High Schools. meet the candidate for entrance, for promotion, for different grades of certificates and for admission to the Universities. You may secure a certificate by taking the subjects required, in sections, and you may matriculate in the same fashion. Nominally, these examinations are uniform, for the same papers go to every part of the Province-really, they are not uniform. In the first place, the oscillations from being very easy to very difficult are notoriously frequent. One year we have an extremely difficult Algebra paper; an outcry follows, the regulation percentage on that paper is lessened, or the paper is cancelled. The next year the pendulum swings in the other direction and everybody complains how the standard is being lowered. And so the work goes on-now one subject, then another, furnishing the objectionable papers. The Education Department takes many precautions to prevent these constantly recurring mistakes, but examiners are fallible, and not being engaged in High School teaching, they lose touch with the schools and the work there carried on. In the second place, these examinations are not uniform because those who read the answers, the "Sub-Examiners," as they are called, are of all degrees of efficiency. Some are disposed to be lenient, some are naturally severe, while others are incompetent through lack of knowledge and experience. Hence the most startling results. Within a certain range, the chances of a badly prepared candidate are as good as those of one thoroughly well-informed. To teachers and pupils, the whole affair partakes a good deal of the nature of a lottery. Another feature of the examination system is so decidedly objectionable that a brief reference must be made to it. examinations take place once a year, in the month of July; that is the hottest month of our year. For four or five weeks prior to the examinations, during the warm month of June, thousands of boys and girls ranging from 15 to 18 and 19 years of age are going through a process of hard reading and "Cram."

The teachers are anxious, for they know that praise or blame will follow the success or failure of their pupils, and they use every legitimate means to incite the candidates to effort and diligence. The candidates themselves are anxious as the time

approaches, and every hour is felt to be of importance. and rest are denied themselves-in the hope that hard study may triumph over mental weakness or incapacity. What follows? The candidates enter the examination hall fatigued and worn out, physically and mentally, to undergo the tortures of a one or two weeks' struggle with conundrums evolved during the hours of leisure of the examiner. Is it any wonder that the examination leaves mental and physical wrecks behind it? wrecks, too, among the more sensitive and gifted of the pupils-wrecks, in particular among girls and young women, whose ambition to excel far exceeds their physical strength. Why such sacrifices should be annually offered up to this examination system is a wonder to any sane educator or parent. No good reason exists why these examinations could not be held earlier in the year, before the extreme heat of our Canadian summer begins. But the desire of many ignorant people, that teachers' holidays should be kept within the smallest limits, is sufficient justification for the continuance of the present eruel and senseless practice.

This paper has been devoted almost exclusively to a consideration of the growth and development of the Secondary schools state control. It has been incidentally pointed out that these schools receive a portion of their support from the Provincial Treasury, a still larger portion from the municipal taxation, and in some cases a portion from fees paid by the pupils in attendance. It has also been shown that the teachers in these schools must possess certain qualifications before being allowed to teach, these qualifications being of a non-professional and professional nature. I have endeavored, too, to trace how, from being schools requiring no entrance examination for the admission of pupils, they have become institutions where entrance and promotion depends upon Government examinations and regulations. Everything, it is seen, is under rigid state control, except the engagement of teachers and the erection and maintenance of school buildings. We have seen how inefficiency has been replaced by efficiency, and how public apathy has been changed to public interest and The District School of the earlier years of this century has developed into the High School or Collegiate Institute—justly prized and appreciated by the community as no longer a school for the classes but the special friend of the masses.

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e masses.

But a description of our secondary system of education would be incomplete were no mention made of those schools wholly or partly independent of the state which flourish throughout the Province of Ontario. Such institutions as Upper Canada College (now in a semi-independent condition), Albert College (Belleville), Woodstock College, Bishop Ridley College (St. Catharine's), Trinity (Port Hope), to say nothing of the numerous Ladies' Colleges and private schools in our large cities, are doing a work of their own of a very valuable character.

Under such a rigid system of state control as exists in Ontario, voluntary schools, such as I have mentioned, have a sphere of influence and usefulness which the state schools cannot reach. Most of the former are denominational in their character, and as such receive denominational sympathy and support. Others, however, have to depend entirely upon the fact that they supply an educational want to the community. Their efficiency from the purely intellectual and scholastic standpoint is perhaps not quite up to the standard of our best High Schools and Collegiate Institutes; but what they lack in that respect is frequently atoned for by the amount of attention given to physical, social, and artistic culture. One thing seems certain, and that is, that the advancement in our High Schools and Collegiate Institutes has had a stimulating effect upon the voluntary schools. To a very large extent the standard of the Collegiate Institutes is becoming their standard. Pupils from these institutions prepare for the same examinations, and their success is becoming more marked year by year.

Allow me, in conclusion, to express my regret that the character of the subject under discussion, and the already great length of this paper, will not permit me to enter into the details of the organization of our Secondary schools or to give an outline of the subjects taught. Perhaps I have dwelt too long upon the early history of the Grammar Schools, but the object of this paper is to show that our system of secondary education is a development in which we must notice periods of advance and retrogression,—the net result of which is the long list of splendidly equipped institutions which now add lustre to what we consider the Premier Province of the Dominion.

SOME CHARACTERISTICS AND TENDENCIES OF MODERN EDUCATION AND THEIR REMEDIES.

By THOMAS KIRKLAND, M. A.,

[Principal, Normal School, Toronto.]

Every profession is characterized by certain tendencies, and it is of the greatest importance that these should be well understood, so that means may be taken to counteract the bad and to emphasize the good.

In the short time allotted to this paper I will confine myself to a few of the characteristics of modern education, whose tendencies if not remedied will gradually lead to results that are far from desirable.

The first of these characteristics which I will note, is the tendency to devote the whole energy of the teacher and school to the mere intellectual development of the pupil.

This tendency is largely due to the frequency of examinations and the inordinate estimate placed upon their value. This age may be characterized as the age of examinations, and so great is the desire of the teacher to make a good showing at them that there is a strong temptation to neglect everything that does not contribute to that end. In many cases the so-called success of the teacher depends on the standing of his pupils at the different examinations, and the estimation in which he is held by the community largely depends on the number of pupils which he passes. his end and aim of education becomes narrow, utilitarian and mercantile. While the real end and aim of education, which is the formation of character, and in which the feelings, moral and æsthetic, are certainly of equal, if not of greater, importance than the acquisition of knowledge. The too exclusive attention given to mere intellectual education will never produce the best type of character. Knowledge is only a part of the educational ideal which embraces feeling and action as well. All true education must be based on the nature of the child, and its aim must be to unfold, to train, and to enrich the child's spiritual nature as well as his (intellectual. Hence, due attention must be given to the moral and æsthetic feelings, to the training of the imagination, and in that and only to ke and the vertical

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To attain this desirable end will require the earnest and cordial co-operation of teachers, parents and leaders of public opinion. Teachers must have a proper estimate of their profession, and in that case they will never become mere trainers of prize-winners. They must work for the future, and for their reward must

"Learn to labor and to wait."

Parents and leaders of public opinion must unite with the teacher in leading the public to form a more correct estimate of educational work than that which is formed from the number of pupils who obtain prizes and pass examinations.

A second tendency is, that from the very nature of his calling, the interest and enthusiasm of the teacher is apt to wang and his work to become monotonous and mechanical.

I need not speak of the importance of interest. The Herbartians have said enough, and perhaps more than enough, on this subject; and yet it is difficult to over-estimate its importance. We all recollect how easy it was to travel all day through the woods, earrying a heavy rifle, when there was a prospect of getting a shot at a deer, and how difficult and fatiguing it was to travel half the distance about our every-day business. We do not require a psychologist to tell us that stimuli soon lose their effcets when often repeated. A young teacher, full of enthusiasm, and wellequipped with the best methods of teaching, graduates from one of our Normal Schools. He soon obtains remarkable results. But after a time he wonders why methods which once secured the attention and aroused the interest of his class now fall flat and produce little effect. It is not that the methods have become familiar; for to the class they are probably new. They have been so often repeated that they have lost their interest to the teacher and therefore to the pupil. For it is a law of our nature that we cannot interest others with what does not interest ourselves. Without interest there is no attention, and without attention there is no learning. Hence for waning interest and for worn-out enthusiasm remedies must be found, or there is an end of successful teaching.

A partial remedy is obvious. The teacher must never cease to be a student both of the matter and methods of the subjects which he teaches. To use Arnold's oft-quoted words, "Pupils must drink from a living spring, and not from a stagnant pool." But this does not always succeed. The only real remedy will be found in the teacher becoming personally familiar with the methods of teaching, discipline and management, and with the educational thought of other countries and under conditions differing from his own. For this purpose the head teachers of our larger and more important schools should have at least a six months' leave of absence, say once in seven years, the salary to be paid as usual, and if possible a bonus added, to enable them to visit and see the work in the leading schools in the other Provinces, the neighbouring States, in Britain, or on the Continent of Europe. The community would be amply repaid for the outlay thus incurred. The teacher would return to his work re-invigorated both in mind and body, with renewed interest, energy and enthusiasm, and with increased knowledge of educational methods. Interest and enthusiasm are contagious, and his colleagues would soon feel their effects. Besides, what we know and are greatly interested in, and more especially when the knowledge has been recently acquired, we feel constrained to communicate to others. knowledge obtained would be communicated to his fellow-teachers, and thus the whole school would be greatly benefited. Other professions find the need of an occasional break in the routine of daily work, longer than is afforded by the ordinary summer vacation. Our best doctors, after practicing for a number of years, find great benefit in making a long visit to the hospitals of Britain and the Continent, and thus becoming familiar with the present medical thought and practice in these countries. Many of our leading clergymen find great profit by occasionally spending a winter in Edinburgh, Leipsic or Berlin. The Professors in Harvard have the Sabbatical year. From time to time the Minister of Education in Ontario sends the Principals and Head Masters of the Normal Schools and the head teachers of the Model Schools to visit the schools in the neighbouring States, and with the best results. The teachers come back with new ideas, new methods, new stimuli, and above all, with minds open and eager to adopt new ideas and new methods. The results were so weeks is profit th

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There is a third characteristic of our modern education closely allied to the preceding, and which is more likely to obtain in new countries than in older lands, viz., the tendency to be satisfied with the present state of our educational institutions.

I know not how it is in the other provinces, but we in Ontario are a very modest people. We never boast of out great fishes, and hardly ever of our great men, though we have ample material for doing so. But it is not safe for anyone who wishes to stand well with us to adversely criticize our school system, beginning as it does with the Kindergarten and ending with the University; nor do we take kindly to have fault found with our teachers, all of whom have been specially trained for the positions which they occupy, except our University professors, who are supposed to be born teachers. This educational self-satisfaction is not conducive to progress. Every country which wishes to maintain its position in the educational world must take pains to find out what-other countries are doing in educational matters, to adapt what is good to its own needs, and to avoid what is bad. Our mother country has set us a good example in this as in many other respects. We have all read with interest and profit the able report of Sir Joshua Fitch on the schools of the United States, and of Matthew Arnold on some of the continental schools. The late Dr. Ryerson was accustomed to make long visits to the schools of the United States and to those of the European Continent, the results of which may be found in our Parliamentary Blue Books. The Hon. Dr. Ross has lately made us familiar with the school system of Britain, and more recently Mr. Millar, Deputy Minister of Education for Ontario, has given us a lucid account of the school system of the State of New York. All these reports are valuable, but far more valuable to the Educational Legislator than they are to the practical teacher, who wants to know not only what they teach in other countries but more especially how they teach and what is the result of their teaching. He wants to know how their teachers and pupils compare with our own in culture and scholarship. every country there is a special undefinable influence working with great force which produces a certain type of men and women.

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This influence is no doubt largely due to their system of education. What is it that makes the American boy so intensely patriotic? The English boy so self-reliant? The German boy so painstaking and plodding? All this and more we would like to know so that we might absorb and assimilate what is good, the effect to be seen not by imitation but by natural growth.

To obtain this information one of our most experienced teachers; supervisors, or inspectors should be sent at regular intervals to visit and report on the schools, the teachers, the educational methods and machinery of the best educating countries. The person sent would not only obtain valuable information for us, but would also make known to them what we are doing in educational matters and how we are doing it. Thus, besides his value from an educational point of view he would be worth more than the cost incurred as an immigration agent of the very highest type. I hope this Association will urge on the respective educational authorities in the different Provinces to make such appointments at an early date.

A fourth characteristic of our modern education is the inordinate attention given to mere methods of teaching.

If methods do not fill the air they certainly do fill the pages of our educational periodicals. Not long ago it was considered enough to know a subject in order to teach it. Happily this is not now the case. But there is great danger of the educational pendulum swinging too far from the side of no methods at all, to the side of nothing but methods. At most of our teachers' conventions a knowledge of the subjects discussed is usually taken for granted. But seldom does the discussion proceed far until the lack of the knowledge of the subject itself becomes painfully evident. A knowledge of the best methods of teaching has its place, and an important place it is. But that must never be allowed to take the place of genuine knowledge. For the want of a living and strong knowledge of the subject nothing can compensate.

To counteract this inordinate attention to methods the teacher must have some favorite subject in language, literature, science, or mathematics which should occupy his leisure time, and with which he should become thoroughly familiar. This will give him a due appreciation of thoroughness and prevent from becoming the mere slave of methods.

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by the And and in whi All this is discipline. A fifth characteristic is that of over-estimating the value of oral teachings, and under-valuing the use of text-books.

Formerly the value of text-books in teaching was greatly overestimated. We have now gone too far to the other extreme. One not infrequently hears teachers boast that they never use a text-book in certain subjects. This is a profound mistake. Teaching must never supersede study, and study must include the study of books. All good teaching finds its immediate end in directing the work of the pupil. Too much oral teaching, however good, robs the pupil of the joy and delight of discovering knowledge for himself, and in consequence he soon loses all enthusiasm, and all desire for investigation, and simply becomes a mere sponge taking in whatever is presented to him. Not the least part of a teacher's work is to teach his pupils how to obtain knowledge from books. The knowledge of the race is embalmed in books, and pupils must be constantly trained and practiced in obtaining knowledge from that source.

A sixth characteristic of modern education is the tendency to give too much assistance to the pupil. Too much is done for the pupil and too little by him.

Here again we have gone too far. If the pupils cannot readily find the solution of a problem, it is solved by the teacher. The purpose for which the problem was given was to secure concentration of mind and sustained mental effort. John Stuart Mill, says, "A pupil from whom nothing is ever demanded which he cannot do, never will do all he can." There is far too much mere class teaching in our schools, and in consequence too little time is allowed for individual study. If the teacher tries to remedy this by allowing sufficient time for study during school hours, the trustees will probably consider him idle; If he gives home lessons in order to give the pupils some training in independent study he will be censured by the parents and denounced by the doctors. Take the subject of English Literature. The study of the masterpieces in English Literature now occupies a prominent place in our schools. But this study is rendered of comparatively little value by the Annotated Editions of every selection prescribed for study, and in which every possible difficulty is anticipated in the notes. All this is opposed to and destructive of true mental training and discipline.

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ne teacher e, science, and with give him becoming Fortunately, for this an easy remedy may be found. Let selections be prescribed for study as at present, but let the examinations be mainly on selections other than those prescribed. Annotated Editions will be a poor preparation for such an examination. Teachers will then cease to use them, and enterprising publishers will cease to flood the market with them. Teachers will be more interested in developing power on the part of the pupil than in cramming him with what others have said on the subject, and "examiners will place more value on an artless criticism of the pupils own, than a rechauffé made up of the lordly generalisms of even a Matthew Arnold."

A seventh characteristic, and one which largely obtains at the present time, is appointing the youngest, the least experienced, the cheapest and the poorest teachers to teach the junior classes.

It is a profound mistake to suppose that less knowledge and experience is required to teach pupils in the first grade than is required to teach pupils in the fourth or fifth grade. To make knowledge real to the minds of young children, to watch over each budding faculty and cultivate it just enough for its symmetrical development requires a far more real and extensive knowledge both of nature and human nature, than is required to teach the extraction of the cube root or the proper use of shall and will. Primary teaching is far less understood than more advanced work, and, therefore, the greatest ability and greatest experience should be employed where the greatest research is needed. The Jesuits knew this. They appointed the youngest and least experienced teachers in the middle and higher grades, and when they had shown their ability to teach in these grades, they were transferred to the lower. The best teachers are not good enough for the youngest pupils.

Teachers should be appointed on account of their ability to do the work required of them, and the salary should depend on ability, faithfulness, and length of service, and not on the grade in which

they teach.

Having thus briefly and imperfectly discussed seven of the characteristics of our modern education and their remedies; with the sacred number seven I will stop, not because I have exhausted the characteristics which require remedies, but because I would exhaust my audience if I continued longer.

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MODERN LANGUAGES.

By Professor H. Lothar Bober, M. A.

[King's College, Windsor.]

Professor H. Lothar Bober of King's College, read a paper on modern languages which in part was as follows:

After the most sublime duty of the school and the church in forming the character of the coming generation of men and women, it is the school's next important duty to equip the coming citizen's mind with that practical knowledge which will be of use to him in any possible profession he may choose and so enable him to become a useful member of society.

Wonderful discoveries and inventions in the various branches of medicine, physics, technology and engineering have been made in recent years; and these marvelous achievements have not been made, as so often in former times, by blind chance, but by constant scientific research, by comparing, supplementing and perfecting what the noble army of scientists in the different parts of the world have lately published as newly discovered or invented. Medical, chemical and technical papers and periodicals have been multiplied in number, improved in quality and increased in size, especially in America, England, Germany and France, and many thousands of physicians, chemists, engineers and manufacturers are looking eagerly forward to the newest editions of the professional journals to see in how far the researches of their confrères in certain directions are congruous with their own, or in what respects they differ. There is a continual change of useful experiences, to the great benefit of all humanity. And agriculture, manufactures and commerce in general have the benefit of it. The interchange of exports and imports as well as the great facilities • of travelling in our hurrying times have brought an ever increasing intercourse between the nations of the world.

All my fellow teachers, and I know many other ladies and gentlemen of this illustrious audience are acquainted with the so-called "Object teaching," or "Comenius Methods" the best known of which is the Berlitz method; and those who have studied

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1. It arguses in every listener interest and attention.

2. It keeps and increases these most valuable requisites for successful instruction.

3. We learn at the same time, as much by the ear as by the

4. We learn to converse from the start.

5. The text book is only for reviewing purposes and of quite subordinate importance to the voice of the living teacher.

6. We find a peculiar charm in hearing ourselves using a foreign tongue, and from this results the effect that we have a growing confidence in our ability to master the other language

7. We never learn the names of objects alone, but in reasonably complete sentences and together with their qualities.

8. In speaking of objects our eyes rest on them, and therefore our memory is better or more lastingly impressed by them.

9. And of especial importance, we are led to think in the language we are studying.

These are the features of the Comenius System which are prominently before our mind after we have some experience in object teaching.

Strange objections are often, brought forward against the studying of modern languages. For instance some contend that by studying modern languages people acquire a desire to go to foreign countries and are tempted there to forget their home. From my experience as a teacher and as a pupil, I must admit that the first conclusion is right. Everyone who has studied the language of a living nation in its literature would like to make its acquaintance. I am proud to say that I have imbued quite a number of persons with the desire to go to Europe and to see the peoples and the lands of the nations whose languages they have studied. I further admit that all of them came home with a sincere admiration of what they had seen and heard; for they had visited the beautiful and gay Paris, they had watched the snow covered peaks of the Alps glowing pink in the rising or setting sun; had studied the wonders of art in classic Italy; had floated past the

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picturesque shores of the German Rhine; had listened to the most sublime music in the world. But none of these persons I am sure, would exchange his beloved home for these beautiful spots. No, we have only a feeling of pity mingled with contempt for the man who prefers any other country to the land where he was reared or where his fore-fathers are resting.

Other objectors claim that soon the world will speak English. None of us here can afford to wait to see whether this is an error or not, but one thing is sure: The English Language spreads naturally in the English colonies and in the United States; nowhere else. Do you think that the Russians, Germans or French are inclined to give up their own and adopt the English language? Such could happen only after a conquest of whole countries:—the victor would have to impose his language on the conquered. But who will be victorious in the coming struggle, the Anglo-Saxon, the Russian or the Teuton? God alone knows! But so long as we do not know this, let us study for such various important purposes the three most cultured languages of our times: English, German and French.

Prof. Bober's paper, in the temporary absence of the author was read by Principal D. Soloan of New Glasgow, who supported the views of the writer, which were listened to with interest. The paper elicited a good deal of interesting discussion on the importance of making our courses in French and German more practical. Dr. Reynar of Victoria University spoke of this as a necessity in a country where we have a million French people. Principal Robertson of Bishop's College, Prof. Lanos and Supt. Goggin strongly recommended the idea of teaching the spoken language in our schools rather than the literature.

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THE BEST COLLEGIATE EDUCATION FOR WOMEN.

By E. RITCHIE, PH. D.,

[Assoc. Prof. of Philosophy, Wellesley College.]

There is probably little need at the present day, and before such an audience as this, to prove the desirability of a college training being obtainable by women. The fight for this has been fought and won, the foe has fled or been silenced-in many cases even, after no ungraceful surrender, has come over to the attacking party and done good service in its ranks. In England, Wales, Scotland, Ireland, Switzerland, Denmark, France, Germany, Italy, and Spain-in the United States, Australia South Africa, New Zealand, and Canada, it is now possible for women, with greater or less difficulty, with more or fewer restrictions, to obtain some considerable share in the privileges of the so-called higher education-privileges for which little more than a generation ago it was considered almost an impertinence that they should make a demand. I have no desire to fight o'er again the battles of this campaign; something still remains to be done, but perhaps the time has come when we may well pause for a moment and ask how the advantages already obtained for the weaker sex may be so used as to secure the greatest good, both of the individual student and of the whole social organism to which she belongs,

In trying to make clear what it is we should seek for in the college education of women, it is well to remind ourselves that the young girls entering college are no more all alike than are boys entering college. The girl students possess different abilities, are of different degrees of culture, and have various aims and objects in life. It is in order to take some account of this fact, and of the complex character with which it invests the answer to our problem, that I propose to consider women's college education in three relations—first, as constituting the highest formal stage in the education of girls of good average intelligence; secondly, as it affects the whole average system of secondary education by the standards of its entrance requirements, and by the creation of a class of women college graduates in the teaching

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profession; and thirdly, as it affords conditions suited to arouse, develop and ripen those minds that are of exceptional natural power, those that form the intellectual aristocracy, as it were, which nature herself has instituted, and on the possession of which so much of the progress, the glory, and the true welfare of any people must depend. It will be evident, I know, that much of what has to be said in regard to these points is as applicable to the case of men as to that of women. But I shall endeavour, in this short sketch of a great subject, to restrict myself, so far as is possible, to a consideration of this part of the educational system in so far only as it directly concerns those of my own sex.

What, then, is it that the college should give to its average girl students? The answer to the question ought not to be very difficult for those who understand what education means. Every true teacher knows that the work of education is to develop the natural capacities, to train and discipline the mind so that it may gain energy, steadfastness and skill in making and holding acquisition of the truth; to stimulate the perceptive, imaginative and reasoning powers of the young soul, and to direct it to the living springs of thought and fact that can satisfy its healthy thirst. Opposed altogether to this is that popular, but most mischievous heresy which regards the educational process as completed in the transference of certain information-" useful" information especially, from instructor to pupil—the teacher being supposed to know certain things which for a pecuniary consideration he makes over to those needing such knowledge. Now the essential error which vitiated the old-fashioned plan of girls' education lay in just this mechanical, lifeless, utilitarianism. For example: "a young lady" expected to learn French. Why? Not because a thorough investigation of the structure and growth of that language would train her powers of analysis or develop her historic sense; nor because it would appeal to her imagination and quicken her sympathies for a great people offering many points of contrast to her own nation. Not even because an acquaintance with French prose literature, with its exquisite clearness and precision, its sanity of idea and its fine wit, was well calculated to awaken her literary instincts, and to correct girlish slovenliness in though and expression. No; it was merely because an ability to converse and read fluently in that language

was of practical convenience in society and travel, and was a recognized sign of a well-brought-up young person of a certain social rank. No wonder with such an end in view that the study itself was shallow, meagre and almost valueless. Similarly, she was not taught mathematics, save in its most elementary form, because it would be of no "use" to her; the training of her reasoning powers, and the formation of mental habits of exactness and accuracy, not being a "use" worth considering.

Now the advantages of a college education do not consist in the mere substitution of Greek, Latin, Mathematics, Biology, etc., for the French, Italian, china painting and piano playing, of the fashionable finishing school. It is chiefly through college methods and college standards of scholarship that the girl student can find an opportunity to work out her intellectual salvation. The subjects taught her, it is often said, however, should be such as are suited to her needs as a woman. Wherein, then, do her needs differ from those of her brother? That there are some differences, at least under existing circumstances, I would admit; but they are less than is commonly supposed. For let us never forget that underlying all sexual psychological divergence is the essential unity of human nature? "Homo sum," the modern woman asserts, knowing that the assertion carries with it the claim to a full, rich, individual life. Man is a creature potentially rational actually largely irrational, egoistic by nature of impulses making for self-perservation, altruistic through those that tend to the social welfare emotional and imaginative, swayed now by influence of the senses or the mechanism of habit, now by reflection and the consciousness of the moral law. And in their possession of all these characteristics, men and women are of one flesh, of one spirit. There are differences between the sexes, but they are differences of emphasis, of degree, of proportion. Now, surely, if we come with unprejudiced minds to the problem of what is the best education for women, we shall see that our aim should be to correct those tendencies which, in the average woman, are apt to be overstrong, and to supplement whatever deficiencies remove her from the standard of a perfectly balanced and highly evolved humanity. Hence we shall conclude that a college course for young women ought to be, not less but more, bracing and invigorating, more strict and disciplinary in its methods, than one

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for men, supposing that any distinction is to made between them. Girls have inherited highly sensitive and emotional natures; they possess a quickness of fancy and a certain alertness and receptivity to new impressions, greater than belong to lads of the same age. They are more docile, but have less mental honesty, originality and thoroughness. They are inferior in reasoning power and are less ready to suspend judgment. Hence, a woman's education is only satisfactory if through it she gains strength, mental balance, and the power of initiative. She has to learn that instinct, invaluable in its own sphere, can never do the work of thoughtthat to yield to prejudice is to be guilty of a criminal abnegation of the divine gift of reason. She must come to hate vague unproved generalizations, inaccurate observation, fallacious argument, exaggeration and redundance in language, and, in a word, all slovenliness and superficiality in work and in life. She must gain the power to see clearly and to grasp firmly the objects that claim her attention.

Now, I do not wish to attempt to lay down a curriculum through which these ends may be best attained; it is the method of teaching, rather than the subjects taught, which is of supreme importance. Yet what has been said will indicate on what principles those subjects should be chosen. Instead, for example, of spreading the time and energy of the student over a great variety of studies, there may well be a certain restriction insisted on, so that cohesive definiteness and unity may pervade the whole college course, and the feminine tendency to scattering and smattering may be strongly corrected. In place of the modern languages, now most often taught by the "natural method," there should be preferred the severer discipline of Latin and Greek-not like what Mrs. Browning calls "woman's Greek without the accents," but the patient, long continued training given by steady drill in the grammatical structure of the great languages of antiquity, and the earnest appreciation and critical study of some of the masterpieces of their literature. The exact sciences, moreover, especially Logic and Mathematics, may fairly be regarded as of more importance than lighter subjects, for example, English poetry, which any intelligent girl will make acquaintance with and will learn to love for herself, once her judgment and taste are properly formed-while those studies that

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give definiteness to her ideas and accuracy to her thinking, are for her well nigh indispensable. Still, when all is said, it is worth noticing that no extension whatever is needed of the ordinary curriculum of the man's college in order to render it a suitable training ground for women.

But, it will be said, such a training as that indicated will make girls "mannish," and destroy that sweet womanly grace and delicacy, that soft feminine charm, as of the clinging ivy or the modest violet, which makes her the delightful counterpart of her brother man. Now we are all familiar with the old-time bug-a-boo that has been so long exploited by the opponents of woman's higher education-the woman who is unsexed by her much learning. I have never seen this woman; I have never seen anyone who had seen her. I think we may safely regard her as one of the monsters that belong only to the region of myth. Yet let us meet this contention fairly and frankly. I think we may venture the assertion that the education which shall make women more rational in their thinking, more thorough in their work, and more self-controlled in their emotions, will not, and cannot, make them "mannish." It will not, for example, lead girls to talk vulgar slang, to smoke cigarettes, or to do anything else that is coarse or reckless. But it will, let us hope, make them "manly," that is, courageous, candid, strong and selfreliant. But to acquire such virile qualities is surely to lose no whit of womanliness. We all know that a man only wins our reverence and respect the more fully when he adds to his strength, patience and love, purity and pity, the so-called feminine virtues. "The bravest are the tenderest; the loving are the daring." And as the manliest man has ever just a touch of the womanly about him, lending a peculiar grace to the sterner features of his character, so the womanliest woman is not she who is weak, hysterical and unreasonable-the burden that others must bear, but she whose earnestness of soul and soundness of judgment, and steadiness of purpose, can help humanity forward toward its highest and purest ideas.

And how great were the advantages to society, if any considerable number of our young girls would submit themselves to such sound, wholesome discipline and culture. A single example will show what the benefit would be. Almost all the active work of

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charitable and philanthropic agencies in this country is practically managed by women. Now, philanthrophy is confessedly one of the most difficult, as it is of course one of the most valuable of arts. An enormous amount of money and energy expended in attempts to benefit the poor and dependent classes is wasted through ignorance of the ultimate consequences of our wellintentioned charity. Pauperism, and even vice, may be increased by the very measures we take to alleviate distress. How important would be the gain to the country if we could rely upon finding for such work a class of women of light and leading, whose zeal would be according to knowledge, to whom Political Economy and Sociology and Ethics were not a terra incognita of mysterious dismal sciences, but familiar and readily accessible ground, full of living human interest. In place of the blind struggle against unknown forces, we could then have carefully concerted schemes for social improvent thought out in the light of the widest experience; in place of the heedless alms-giving that too often degrades the objects of our pity, there might be enlightened efforts to help the individual to help himself, and the awakening of the public conscience to the need of industrial, hygienic and social reforms. But such work is possible only for women who have learned to think for themselves as well as to feel for others.

The second part of my subject, the work of the college as it may advantageously affect the general system of girls' education, I shall pass over briefly, knowing as I do that many of those present have a far more intimate and adequate knowledge of secondary education, and its relation to colleges, than I can lay claim to. The experience of the United States has abundantly proved that the opening of colleges and universities to women, and the establishment of women's colleges, have a direct, farreaching, and, on the whole, beneficial effect upon girls' schools, and on the training of girls in schools attended by pupils of both sexes. To meet the college entrance requirements the schoolwork must conform to definite standards, and be to some extent systematic and thorough in its methods. The girl preparing for college is likely to have her energies less wasted, and to be less superficial in her knowledge, than is her sister whose education is to be "finished" at the age of seventeen. But my experience

as a college teacher inclines me to the belief that, (in the United States at least), the entrance requirements of colleges are now too numerous for the best interests of the preparatory schools, and that the foundations of the educational structure could be more strongly laid, and the ultimate result would be more satisfactory, if the subjects of these requirements were fewer in number. The most important service, however, which a good college training for women can do for our educational system is through the more adequate preparation for their life's work that those women who are to be teachers can obtain from a four-yours' course at That there have been, and are, excellent teachers who have never been to college, needs no proving. Yet there is no profession where the advantages of a truly liberal education are more felt that in that of the teacher. And once more I would emphasize the need, for women especially, of the higher education being such as will do most to strengthen the mind, to develop habits of accuracy and thoroughness, and to set up a high ideal of scholarship. Unfortunately, in view of the demand for women teachers prepared to instruct in a great many subjects, there is a temptation to the undergraduate who expects to enter the profession to scatter the work of her college course over as many as possible of those studies that are likely to be found "useful" when the time comes for seeking a position-another instance of the pernicious utilitarianism which sacrifices the essential to the superficial. It is of course desirable that the future teacher should have a sufficiently wide range in her studies to broaden her outlook and to enlarge her intellectual sympathies; but I think she should constantly keep in view the fact that it is on what she is, rather than on the number of subjects she knows, that her future success will depend.

It remains that we should consider the ideal college training for those exceptional women who, whether they are to be teachers professionally or not, possess those rare talents from which the finest work, whether in literature or art, in science or philosophy, or in the great world of industrial activity, may be expected. How can we provide the best soil, the most favorable aspect, for the germination and growth of the precious seed of genius, that the Great Power now and again sends to enrich the world?

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It has sometimes seemed to me that our modern educators in their theories and plans too much neglect the needs of the higher class of mind. Under the all-pervading sway of democratic feeling we concern ourselves chiefly with direct efforts for the lifting up of the general level of knowledge and intelligence, almost to the exclusion of an interest in that at least equally important object, the training of those finely endowed souls whose importance to the world is so disproportioned to their number. After all, as Carlyle taught so long, it is of its heroes-heroes of the pen, now, rather than of the sword—that our civilization stands most in need. We want the pioneer who will open out fresh paths for the spirit of man to tread, the discoverer who shall give the soul wider horizons of thought and feeling, the reformer who shall raise the standard of the moral life and quicken the conscience of humanity. Who can estimate the value to a nation of one great man.' We cannot afford to risk losing a single true poet, a thinker, a states-As Browning says:

"Tis in the advance of individual minds
That the slow crowd should ground their expectation
Eventually to follow; as the sea
Waits ages in its bed till some one wave,
Out of the multitudinous mass, extends
The empire of the whole, some feet perhaps,
Over the strip of sand that could confine
Its fellows so long time: thenceforth the rest,
Even to the meanest, hurry in at once
And so much is clear gained."

And perhaps Plato was no bad guide in pedagogics when he made the very heart and core of the educational problem to be the right training of those who are to be the guardians of the state—the leaders in thought and action.

To return to the subject immediately before us, one question is, How can the college do the best possible for the young woman of exceptionally vigorous mind and brilliant ability? Hitherto I have tried to emphasize the importance to women of a somewhat strenuous mental discipline; we may now add the demand for a strong and steady stimulus to her activity. A woman is apt to have little personal ambition; for the success of father or brother, of husband or son, she will often feel an intensity of interest which the possibilities of her own career fails to awakens and many a fine mind capable of original and valuable production has

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been sacrificed to the claims of a mistaken altruism. I think that to kindle a genuine and lofty ambition-not a silly vanity and love of applause, but an intense yearning for the doing of thoroughly good work for its own sake is no small part of what a college may do for a clever girl. She should be taught to expect good things from herself, and never to rest satisfied unless in all her studies she does the very best of which she is capable. Some form of honour system, therefore, by which the more able and promising students may obtain specially planned instruction more advanced, and perhaps more individual, than can be given to the rank and file, seems particularly desirable for women. With the same end in view, I think competition with other students has a considerable value. I do not think the evil side of emulation is much to be feared in the case of girls; they are seldom ungenerous or jealous competitors, and the encouragement that comes from success is often just what is needed to give courage and selfconfidence to a young woman who is just awaking to a shy hope that she, too, may perhaps do something in and for the world.

And now we come to a vexed question which I have hitherto avoided. For when we ask what sort of competition it is that gives the most healthy stimulus to a girl's mind, and under what conditions she can best obtain the discipline and training that develop the qualities most essential for her success in her life and her work, we have to take account of two alternative plans, that of a higher education received from and with those of her own sex only, and that of one in which she is brought into contact with men as teachers and fellow-students. We have now the advantage of the experience of the United States-the country foremost in the movement for the higher education of women, not only in regard to these two plans, but to almost every conceivable modification of them. In that country there are co-educational colleges and universities, many of them of the very highest standing, such as Michigan, Cornell, Leland Stanford, Chicago and California, where for the most part women are admitted to precisely the same privileges as men, study under men-professors and along with men students. There are also colleges for women formed in connection with existing universities, such as Barnard, which is a part of Columbia, and Radeliffe, which is closely connected with Harvard, where women are taught by the university professors

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but are in separate classes. Finally, there are the colleges founded exclusively for women, such as Vassar, Bryn Mawr, Smith and Wellesley. At some of these, as at Smith, the teaching staff is made up chiefly of men; at others of men and women indifferently, while at Wellesley the faculty is composed almost wholly of women. Thus we have now the benefit of the experience of a great number of institutions regulating the educational intercourse between the sexes in nearly every possible way. Now, it seems to me that here in Canada, where the higher education of women is still at its initial stage, it is very advisable for us to consider carefully which of these various schemes is for the best interests of the women students and of our educational system as a whole. For my own part, having had some opportunity for observing the facts, and having tried to study them in as impartial and unprejudiced a manner as I could, I have no hesitation in expressing the opinion that, judged by results, the best system is that in which women are given, with the least possible restriction, equal privileges with men, study along with men, and learn from men. So strongly am I convinced of this, that I should advise a young woman of earnest purpose to give the preference in choosing a college to almost any co-educational institution, however poorly endowed and limited in its equipment, to the very best woman's college in existence. In saying this I would not be thought to call in question the value of the work that women's colleges have done, and are doing. At a time when the feeling against granting women any higher education at all was strong and widespread, it was they that put in the thin end of the wedge which was so soon to break up this prejudice. • The work they have done for the secondary schools has been most beneficial. Their graduates, scattered all over the country by hundreds and thousands, are intelligent, enthusiastic and loyal. In the eight years in which it has been my good fortune to be connected with Wellesley College I have had abundant opportunity to recognize the ability, self-devotion and conscientiousness of the teaching staff, the docility, brightness and faithfulness of the students, and the wholesome, cheerful atmosphere of the life in what is the most beautiful, as in many respects it is the most typical, of the women's colleges of America. The work done at Vassar, Smith, Bryn Mawr and Wellesley has been on the whole good work, and

is bearing abundant fruit. But I feel convinced that to seek to establish any similar institution in our own country would be a grave mistake. And this, not merely for the reason that a poor country cannot afford to duplicate the outfit and teaching force of its institutions of learning, but because the ends to be gained are better gained by the method of co-education. We want, as I have tried to show, by means of the college courses we offer to girls, to help them to a higher level of intelligence and a clearer outlook upon life. We want to give them greater earnestness of purpose and an intenser love of truth—to form in them habits of application and thoroughness, and to mould characters rational, well-poised and self-reliant. We want to gain as one typical college product—

"The reason firm, the temperate will, Endurance, foresight, strength and skill A perfect woman, nobly planned To warn, to comfort and command."

Is it not almost self-evident that just because men and women differ, because women are more emotional and men more selfcontrolled, because the one sex is more quick and impulsive, the other more deliberate and steady, the one sympathetic and receptive, the other judicial and critical-that the best results will follow when the young woman's mind is brought into daily contact with the minds of men, whose qualities supplement her own? It is from the intercourse of souls that are, as we may say, complementary to one another, that the most of pleasure and of profit is to be gained. It is not from absolute similarity, but from the differences that play upon the surface of one common human nature, that we get our most helpful intimacies and our most lasting friendship. We women, I think, have been over-zealous in urging as our claim for social, educational and political privileges that we are the intellectual equals of men. I doubt whether this position is tenable, but the question is one of almost purely academic interest. Women, as human beings, have the right and the duty to make their lives as rich, as high, as happy and as useful as they are capable of becoming. If women have less mental strength than their brothers, it is but a reason the more that they should not be limited to women alone as their teachers and companions, at the time when they most need the broadening and invigorating influences that come from inter-

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course with minds of a calibre superior to their own. It would be foreign to the subject of this paper to discuss whether women in co-educational colleges do not bring with them certain elements of no small value to academic and social life. Many of the most thoughtful and earnest men on the faculties of these institutions believe that this is the case. But even if something of sacrifice be needed, so long as the sacrifice is not such as to injure collegiate instruction or lower the standard of work, I think that women, by the intensity of their desire for the privileges of study, and by the self-denial they have always been ready to show for the sake of it, and even by the character of the work they have done when brought into the wholesome and stimulating air of student tradition and student fellowship at the great seats of learning, have established a fair claim on the generosity of those whose interest lies in the pursuit and the dissemination of knowledge more close than any bond of sex. More permanent than any similarity of taste based on sex, is the tie that binds together all searchers for the philosopher's stone of truth. The name of scholar is one that unites all who can claim it in a common brotherhood, in which there is no distinction of country or creed, of race or sex-in which the only rivalry is in the effort to bring the most to the general store of knowledge, and in which the acquisition of each is felt to be the gain of all. It is to this fraternity of thought, culture and learning that women are demanding and obtaining initiation. Let us encourage them to prepare for it, not carelessly or lightly, but by high aspiration, earnest endeavors, and the performance of faithful and thorough work.

NATURE AND LITERATURE.

By G. U. HAY, Ph.B., M. A., Editor of "Educational Review".

In the charming story of En Glad Gut (A Happy Boy) by Björnson, the famous dramatist and novelist of Norway, Oyvind the hero of the story is shown at home in the world of nature around him:

"His mother came out, and sat down by his side. He wanted to hear stories about what was far away. So she told him how once every thing could talk: the mountain talked to the stream, and the stream to the river, the river to the sea, and the sea to the sky. But then he asked if the sky did not talk to any one. And the sky talked to the clouds, the clouds to the trees, and the trees to the grass, the grass to the flies, the flies to the animals, the animals to the children, the children to the grown-up people; and so it went on until it had gone round, and no one could tell where it had begun. Oyvind looked at the mountain, the trees, the sky and had never really seen them before."

And so the author goes on telling us how the mother, with her little songs, interpreted to him the speech of the cat, the cock with all the hens, the little birds; "and she told him what they all said, down to the ant who crawled in the moss, and the worm who worked in the bark."

"That same summer his mother began to teach him to read. He had owned books a long time, and often wondered how it would seem when they also began to talk. Now the letters turned into animals, birds and everything else. But soon they began to walk together, two and two; a stood and rested under a tree, which was called b; then came c and did the same; but when three or four came together, it seemed as if they were angry with each other, for it would not go right. And the farther along he came the more he forgot what they were. He remembered longest a which he liked best; it was a little black lamb, and was friends with everybody; but soon he forgot a also; the book had no more stories, nothing but lessons."

When I chose this subject of *Nature and Literature* for a paper at this meeting the first questions that met me in thinking

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it over were, - why is it that so few read with any real appreciation from the great book of nature around them; and why is it that so many leave our schools with little or no taste for good literature? Evidently they have no real love for the one and they have not been taught to understand the other. Some of us are not too old to remember with what groanings of spirit we learned our letters, doomed for weeks or months to see no reason in the process. Those who were fortunate enough to be born later were taught to scorn the degrees by which others had learned to read, and they were started out boldly upon the formula: "This is a cat" when there was no cat there; or by a blind unreasoning faith were led to see the cat "run" or to "catch a rat," one lifeless picture (too often none at all) doing duty for a score of movements. Here we have at the beginning of a child's life at school two methods, both of them wrong, the one stupid and the other false, and both ignoring the characteristics of childhood. I would not be misunder-The work of the school-room should be work not play, and the healthy boy or girl, full of life and activity, likes work of the proper kind; but the transition from play to work must be gradual and imperceptible, not sudden nor attended with monotony The free happy life out-of-doors is suddenly exchanged for the school-room with its mechanism of letters and books, and other devices. That the child's mind develops at all under some of these processes is only to be explained perhaps by the fact that the human mind with its originality and wonderful powers will develop in spite of obstacles. How much more rational would be the process if instead of introducing the child to the meaningless characters of the primers, we helped him to translate into speech the living voices of the natural world. These delighted Oyvind, as they do every healthy, happy child who has been accustomed to a life out of doors. The songs of birds, the voices of the wind, the streams, the varied nature around him, the occupations of animals and people, would furnish themes which by pencil, paper and blackboard would soon be translated into the beginnings of literature,-a literature full of life and meaning. Surely a beginning like this with the doors and windows of the school-room wide open to admit the voices and sights of nature is a rational one, and as possible as it is rational. It calls for little apparatus besides crayons and blackboard, paper and pencil, but

it needs-the inspiring teacher. The lesson hearer, who is fast disappearing from our primary schools, cannot be counted on to make a successful experiment here. Throw away the too often senseless primers that are a hindrance to vigorous early life at school, and as soon as children can read, introduce them to wholesome, interesting literature in the shape of poetry, historical stories, simple books of natural history, books of travel, all carefully graded of course, and selected. It is wonderful what the dullest children will do for themselves if given the right start. And this right start in literature is the great thing in the life of every man or woman. Every learner acquires the habit and courage of independent attack. He becomes an investigator, in literature, in science, in mathematics. He lays siege to the questions of matter and mind as he advances, gets knowledge from its sources; he learns to make his own comparisons, and what is better, he gets faith in himself and his possibilities. All this may be done in a school-room where there is a teacher at the head. And this teacher must be a learner, and the school-room a ballground with keen, active players, and the teacher the keenest. Every unknown word, every problem, every fact gained from original work and observation, is the ball, tossed and caught and returned by keen players. Have you seen such a game in a school-room and have you been one of the players? It is genuine sport.

This appears to be a development along natural lines. We begin, as Ovvind began, in thorough communion with nature. We get a sympathy with nature's ways and there soon comes an eager desire to discover their meaning. This course, as I have endeavoured to show, forms the path, as fascinating as it is natural, to literature, and students trained thus will become lovers of good literature, with open hearts and enquiring minds, eager to question its inner significance. They will seek to become masters of the ripest thought of the ages, they will be led instinctively to choose what is pure and noble in life, to make society the better and richer for their training, and to have always the

habits and spirit of the student.

Much, very much, depends on the right start to secure all these. And the teacher who is to accomplish such results must gain knowledge not only from books, but by coming daily in contact with the living soul of the child.

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to secure all results must ning daily in And here a word on psychology—or what passes for it—as a requisite for those who would train children. This is studied the wrong way, if the book takes precedence of the living subject, and it does too often. This was very forcibly brought to my mind a few weeks ago when reading some of the answers of candidates for teachers' license. I will quote a single specimen: "The study of children objectively while it is the best way for becoming acquainted with child nature is impossible for young teachers to a large degree, and hence psychology, or the subjective study of child nature is of great advantage."

Surely words darken speech. Some robust common sense is required here instead of a diluted milk and water psychology.

It is so much easier to sit in an arm-chair and read a book on psychology and form theories therefrom than it is to read from the book of nature and the child, even though that book is always invitingly open before us. Some have been studying psychology all their days grubbing in the ground but still with the voices of nature and children in their ears. Others from their misty pulpits in the clouds have been launching psychological thunderbolts, for chattering from their noisy perches, hushing the songs of birds, frightening the children, and generally overaweing their brothers who are grubbing in the earth. Let the psychologist from the clouds come down and take his brother by the hand, even though that hand be grimed with earth, and let the two walk and work together, and they will soon gather a throng about them that no man can number.

The student of literature must be a student of nature, not in its narrow and specialized sense; but he must feel that mystic sympathy which exists between external nature and the soul of man. Christ the great teacher of mankind drew His illustrations from the nature around him, and from the visible world taught those great truths which form the basis of Christian life and character; and to the same source must preachers and teachers go if they would vitalize the education of the age. If preachers could see that it was their mission to bring our souls more in harmony with nature than to "combat extinct Satans," to use a phrase of Kingsley's, it would have a divine and humanizing influence, leading us to see in the beauties of earth an interpretation of the beauties of heaven.

And it is not sufficient to love nature. We must endeavour to understand her methods, to reach out and grasp those great truths that are printed in unmistakable characters on the pages of her great book. For instance: To one who has assimilated these truths, the lines from In Memoriam will unfold a whole history of our earth and the changes it has undergone:

There rolls the deep where grew the tree;
O Earth what changes thou has seen!
There where the long street roars hath been
The stillness of the central sea.

The hills like shadows melt, they flow
From form to form, and nothing stands;
They fade like mists, the solid lands;
Like clouds they shape themselves and go.

If the student of nature is able to grasp this truth that a great poet has embalmed in literature, the range of science and literature is well opened before him and he can roam at will. But you will say, few in our high schools are able to interpret such a passage or understand the scientific truth at the foundation of it. But the author of the above passage has told us, before he was out of his 'teens, who his teacher was and where he was taught. He wandered about the beach near the home of his childhood, and was nourished "with the fairy tales of science and the long result of time."

Here was one to whom it came by nature to see and to interpret what he saw. The most of us have to be told what to see; but it is marvellous what can be accomplished with a little effort and pains in this direction. "And the mountain talked to the stream" we have read in the little story about Oyvind, the Norwegian "Happy Boy." Now what did the mountain say to the stream, any questioning lad will ask. Did it not say:—I have pushed my cool head into the misty clouds, and gathered around it the drops of moisture which give you your joyous life—gurgling over with happiness. And the stream babbles its story to the river; but let Tennyson's "Brook" tell us that delightful story. And the river moves on with calm and easy motion, and gives up—no, it only lends—its waters to the sea. And the sea says:—Have I not enough and to spare. I will call upon the bright god of day, and this very night when he comes down to

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bathe and refresh himself in my depths we will think over a plan to pay back those givers who have poured their tribute without stint into my broad bosom. And the clouds alone shall be let into the secret. And the clouds blushing all over with joy and pride at the importance of their secret said:—To-morrow morning we will put on our wings and call the winds to help us and we will fill up the founts of those streams in the mountain side and we will make fresh the green grass and the leaves of the forest. And the leaves in a flutter of delight will whisper the secret to the mossy ground beneath them, and the moss will hoard up the crystal drops in cool retreats of forest and ravine, and yield them slowly to thirsty streams in the parching droughts of summer.

And so the stories might be multiplied, and these "fairy tales of science" with their generous substratum of scientific truth might "nourish" many a youth, give a joy and perennial freshness to his whole life, and make him the "heir of all the ages" of poetic literature.

Prof. A. H. Tolman, of the Department of English Literature, Chicago University, recently said in speaking of the importance of natural science in a literary education:

"Great forms of thought, mighty moulds which of necessity-give shape to our thinking and then to our very imaginings, these come to us from the study of things not from the study of language. Literature itself must largely find its raw material, its great metaphors and similes, its vivid pictures and mighty symbols within the domain of natural science and this increasingly as the years go by. * * * The laws of motion, the glaciers, and the process of earth sculpture of the geologist, the theories of animal evolution, the struggle for existence, the survival of the fittest, * * the nebular hypothesis of astronomy—these are/great forms of thought as well as facts and theories of science. A man who is unacquainted with modern science cannot well understand the language of educated men and he cannot interpret sympathetically and adequately the literature of his own day."

. How true this is; and it points out clearly, I think, that a liberal culture calls for an exact knowledge of at least one of the branches of natural science and a bowing acquaintance with the others. Literature represents the spirit of the age in which it is

written. The background of all this literature is life with its experiences, its activities, and its contact with the world of nature. These are evident in every book that belongs to literature. In the Rig Veda of the Hindoos, written 5000 years ago, we have the utterances of a universal worship, the experiences of a people brought into contact with the great facts and forces of life, a revelation of the sublime manifestations of nature before science had begun to observe or philosophy to speculate. Let me quote one passage:

"Varuna dwells in all worlds as sovereign. The wind which resounds through the firmament is his breath. He has placed the sun in the Heavens and opened a boundless path for it to traverse. He has hollowed out the channels of the rivers. It is by his wise contrivance that, though all the rivers pour out their waters into the sea, the sea is never filled. By his ordinance the moon shines in the sky, and the stars, which are visible by night, disappear on the approach of daylight. Neither the birds flying in air, nor the rivers in their ceaseless flow can attain a knowledge of his power or his wrath."

In the popular origin of the literature of modern races—Scandinavians, Germanic peoples, French and Spaniards—we find the same expression of the manifestations of nature, the same conceptions of an over-ruling deity. The Hebrew regarded nature as the garment of deity, and that is well portrayed in the 104th Psalm:

"Who coverest thyself with light as with a garment Who stretchest out the heavens like a curtain."

In this Psalm as well as in others, in the book of Job and Isaiah, we find the varied aspects and phenomena of nature brought before us with a vividness and power that have never been paralleled. In Hebrew literature nature is lost in God; and the distinction between this and the nature of other literature is so admirably set forth by a writer that I quote from his book.

"There are two ways of bringing the thought of God to the imagination: By making nature a transparent medium which is consumed in the vision of deity and rolled away like a curtain; and by dwelling upon and spreading out the glory of the visible world with all its phenomena, its forces, its laws, its majestic

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¹Short Studies in Literature, by Hamilton Wright Mabie.

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God to the m which is a curtain; the visible ts majestic harmony, and its perfect adjustment of parts so that a deep and beautiful sense of the infinity of divine resource and range and beauty is borne in upon the soul. The first method was that of the Hebrew poets * * There is another, and not less spiritual way which deepens and broadens the impression of nature until it is pervaded by the consciousness of an unseen presence. * * This is the poetry of nature; the Hebrew poetry, notwithstanding the glory with which it crowns nature for the moment, was the poetry of God. The idea of God shines through Hebrew literature and gives it its unique place. In the development and illustration of that idea it remains unapproached. It was left to other literature to conceive of nature as distinct from God, and yet instinct with divine force, radiant with divine beauty, and so charged with divine truth that it becomes a new revelation."

I have quoted this passage in full for two reasons: first, that we make a mistake if we fail to include the Bible in a liberal course in literature, if for no other reason than the enrichment of that literature; for what appreciation have our students of the grand literature of the bible? second, that God is present just as truly in the one literature as the other.

But how true it is that some minds scarcely see nature at all in the Hebrew literature, so near and so real is God to them; and some minds scarcely see God in nature literature so absorbed are they either in the complex processes of nature or in admiration of the artist's power.

If "we are what suns and winds and waters make us" then must we look to the natural features of a country, and the physical environment of its people for an explanation of their life and thought and feeling, for their progress and enlightenment. The Euphrates bringing fertility from its source in the Mountains of Armenia; the mysterious overflow of the Nile where Egypt was nursed with bread "cast upon the waters"; the vast monotonous steppes of Russia; the changing aspects of sky and sea and heaven-kissing mountains of Greece; the benumbing winters and gloomy fiords of Scandinavia; the verdant landscape, the misty skies and the sea-girt walls of England have all left their distinct marks on the literatures of these different lands. In Canada the influence of her grand natural scenery has begun already to find expression in her poetry; and when we reflect that the physical

environment of a people is first reflected in their literature we cannot wonder, as some do, that Canadian poetic literature has been content almost entirely to depict nature.

During the long blank of the Middle Ages nature ceased for a time to enter into the lives of people or to affect them with its meaning. At least we have no outward token of its power. But nature has always been revealing truth to men, and let us rather look upon the hush of the Middle Ages as the deep breathing spell, the time of preparation for that period of literary expansion which has found its completest development in our own dentury. If we look, too, at the history of any age or people, we find that their physical wants demand their attention for a long time. The acquisition of a certain degree of wealth brings leisure and the desire for intellectual pursuits. And from contact with nature and the experience gained from industrial pursuits there has come the accumulation of knowledge, which we call science, the inheritance which the past from its labour and experience has bequeathed to us. Thus our science and our civilization and literature are the "long result of time." And Tennyson from whom this phrase is borrowed, represents this progress perhaps better than any other writer. I have quoted from him in another part of this paper to show how he sums up in a few lines the conclusions of long ages of geological inquiry. In other departments of nature he was no less familiar. A close observation of the seasons with their endless changes, the motions of the heavenly bodies, and an exact knowledge of many of the sciences are clearly seen in his verse. With the plant world especially, he was intimately acquainted, and in his allusions there is a fidelity to nature and an exactness of description perhaps not found elsewhere in our literature. Who has not observed in looking over a broad landscape in early spring the faint indications of coming change in the bursting buds and How admirable is the life awakening in bark and twig. Tennyson's description:

"On such a time as goes before the leaf,
When all the wood stands in a mist of green,
And nothing perfect."

But I might go on and multiply instances from this and other poets of the debt of literature to nature, but time would not permit me to hint at even a few of the many references to it.

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Now what is our attitude toward Nature and Literature? 'Do we study them broadly enough in order to get the highest truths and a greater enjoyment of life? If we could make a genuine study of literature take the place of what is trivial and commonplace in the daily life of the pupils of our schools, especially in the country, we could accomplish much. Their home-life is too often a small round of common-place talk and events. Their little horizon needs to be broadened. In no way can it be done better than to make a wholesome study of literature and nature take the place of the small gossip and monotony that are too often accompaniments, and the weariness, of rural life. 'No life should be more productive of real happiness and appreciation of the beauties of nature and the treasures of literature than life in the country. But too often we find there not only a total lack of appreciation, but an utter ignorance of the commonest things in nature and literature.

Our school work should aim to broaden life, to make the study of nature and literature full of life and meaning. deeper must we go in laying a good foundation both in nature and literature study. We must not be content with admiring nature, or studying her from books in the superficial way that is altogether too common. We must seek to understand her processes, the rich life that is in her; to find out the laws that season after season are enforced with unfailing regularity, and to put ourselves in sympathy with that exquisite order and harmony that are expressed everywhere around us, from day to day, from year to year. Books will help us; but they will be blind guides, they will be very stupid things indeed, if we do not take nature at first hand. To observe the time of the first opening of the leaves of each kind of tree in Spring, the unfoldings of the Mayflower, the Violet, the Spring-beauty and other flowers, and to have students keep a record of these in note books from season to season; to have them observe what kinds of insects visit certain flowers, and what is the purpose of their visits; to teach the significance of color in flowers and plants; to train students to observe the wonderful adaptations of plants to secure food for themselves and their offspring, and to protect themselves from the visits of unwelcome insect visitors; to note the admirable and effective arrangement of foliage leaves on stems in order to get the greatest exposure to light ;-these and many other problems invite our attention and will be an unfailing

source of interest and instruction to young people when once they begin to observe intelligently.

I could not fail yesterday, in listening to Mr. Robertson's paper, to be impressed with the warning note that it contained in reading between the lines, viz.: that academic instruction is slowly and surely becoming a monotonous grind for the purpose of examination; that it is destined in the long run to deteriorate unless it is inspired by the consciousness of a widening knowledge and constantly refreshed from new avenues to thought, new aspects of truth. Are we not giving students too much of the husk and too little of the ripe grain in the hurry and worry of mere knowledge hunting, to which we and they are too frequently driven by the influence of impending examinations; - an exasperating, toilsome grind of words, when the ripest thoughts of the best literature of the world is not grasped at all except perhaps by the brightest and most intelligent students. The great majority of our students go out from school without any serious desire to read, for its own sake and for the culture that it brings, the best of our literature; they have failed to interpret even the commonest secrets of the nature around them. To dissect a masterpiece in literature and put down some tattered shreds for an examiner; to dissect a plant and throw the withered remnants into a waste-basket, is neither a study of literature or nature. To study the meaning and connection of words is good, but more than that is needed. The spirit as well as the words of literature and science must be grasped; and when we have the right attitude towards them-and not till then-shall we find the key to their interpretation.

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THE VALUE OF LATIN AS A SUBJECT OF A HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM.

By J. W. Logan, B. A.

[Halifax Academy.]

It is said of some eminent man (I think it is of Emerson) that, in reply to the question asked by his daughter, which subjects she should study in the school she was just entering, he answered: "Find out who are the best teachers and take their subjects." In marked contrast to this philosopher's estimate of the relative value of teacher and subject taught is the attitude of those who dispute at such undue length over school curricula, and who appear to think that, when once they have decided upon the one perfect curriculum out of the many contained in the pigeon-holes of their desks, they have at that very moment attained to the perfect school. Between these two extreme views-between that of the too paradoxical philosopher on the one hand and that of the too meddlesome experimenters in courses of study on the other, it is, I suppose, the part of a wise man to hold a middle course and to conclude that, while the character, the personality of the teacher is, indeed, though exercised it may be indirectly, the main influence in education considered in its higher meaning, yet the subject of study through the direct means of which he seeks to train the minds of his pupils is also a matter of very great importance : so that, if we imagine a school to exist where the teachers are of equal efficiency discussion might very properly be had, even with Emerson's consent, upon this: From which of the several subjects by means of which these teachers of equal ability are exercising their powers will the highest degree of mental discipline be secured for the pupils committed to their charge? and further, since it is not knowledge which we seek to impart so much as the means of gaining knowledge, and since it may be supposed that a course of study, if it resemble an ill-pruned tree in the multitude of its branches, will resemble it also in producing more leaves than fruit, discussion might also no less properly follow upon this; whether there are not a few subjects which experience has shown to be of such supreme importance in training to habits of study

that they must form the main part, if not the whole, of a wisely selected school curriculum.

The men who drew up the Association programme for this year seem to have been of the opinion that the last word had not been said upon the claims of Latin to be considered one of these important subjects. If the last word has not been said, it is certainly not because there has been any lack of discussion upon the subject, and, if my having to put together some ideas on this time-honored theme vexed with untimely inquietude too many precious days of summer vacation, it was a comfort to think that upon a topic, which was so old and upon which so many eminent teachers speaking with authority and not as the scribes had given their opinion, no very strikingly original arguments could be expected.

Goethe has said that the man who knows only his own language cannot truly be said to know even that. To no people can this saying be more justly applied than to those whose vernacular is the English tongue. This language, as far as its choice of words is concerned, is a mixed. language. Our vocabulary comes in the main, as is well known, partly from Teutonic sources, partly from Norman-French or Gallicised Latin, while a large proportion-an increasingly large proportion-is derived from Latin and Greek. There are twice as many words of Latin and Greek origin in our language as there are from all other sources combined. In order that we may have in any degree a scholar's appreciation of the meaning of the words we hear and speak, read and write, we must know something of their history. Philology, the science which concerns itself with this history, cannot be taught through the medium of one's own language alone. An English student, however, cannot help picking up some scraps of knowledge in this science through the medium of Latin, and to acquire this habit of word-study to however slight an extent is of some use. Let this last sentence be said particularly to those victims of "classicophobia" who never tire of reminding us that very few of those who take Latin as a High School subject ever continue it beyond that stage, and can therefore gain little or no advantage from such a slight knowledge of this very difficult study. Let those who urge this objection be

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asked to consider whether even a "bowing acquaintance" with Latin will not often be a great help to the right use of the words that have enriched our language from that ancient source. A certain poet, we believe, once said that a little learning was a dangerous thing. But it has since been said in answer to this oftquoted dictum (and the retort does not seem to miss the mark), that a little learning may indeed be a dangerous thing in the hands of full-grown fools, but that it cannot fail of being a very useful thing in the hands of persons, whether young or old, who know how to use it. The possession of no very vast amount of Latin, for instance, would have sufficed to show a man that his language was unpardonably redundant when he enquired the other day, "What are the given data?" and might have prevented him from saying a little later: "This conclusion, therefore, is inevitable and cannot be avoided." He need not have continued his study of Latin into the second conjugation, because do, which is Latin for I give, and from which the English language in its usual cool fashion has stolen the neat little participle datum, belongs to the first, as also does vito, I avoid, which is lurking, not beyond the recognition of the merest tyro in Latin, in the word "inevitable." One who had persevered in the study of that language until he finished the four conjugations would not have been so apt to say allude when he meant refer, and it would have been no burden to his memory to remember (if he wished to remember) that an exploded theory is not one which has burst, and so come to destruction, but one which has been clapped (we should say hissed) off the world's stage.

So much, then, briefly (lest we appear pedantic) for the value of Latin so far as the accurate use of words is concerned. Consider, further, if translation from Latin authors will not be a great aid to the very difficult art of putting words together skilfully so as to form good sentences. Never, surely, was there sorer need than there is now for some influence to be exerted in the direction of making the students who leave our schools and colleges write better English than is common now-a-days, or, which would be infinitely better still, in the direction of leading them to the study of such perfect models in composition that they would not wish to write at all. The hasty and careless writing of our newspapers does much to corrupt the standard of good English, and a High School

curriculum should certainly contain something which would go some way toward developing critical faculty enough to distinguish between the pure "gold and silver of a refined style"-to borrow a metaphor from DeQuincey-and the Brummagem ware of Journalese. "This list," one of our dailies informed us the other day, "contains the names and dates of the citizens who have died during the year." But examples are unnecessary. paragraph not containing some violation of the ordinary principles of English Composition is the exception and not the rule in many of our newspapers. Constant practice in original composition under the eye of a severe master might do a great deal to prevent such slovenly work. But I venture to maintain this, that under the same master the labor of translation, written and oral, from a language so scrupulously exact and logical in its syntax, so intolerant of ambiguity, so clear in its arrangement of related words as Latin is would do a great deal more. The Republic of Plato opens with four Greek words, which mean "I went down yesterday to the Piraeus." It is said that these four words containing this simple statement were found among Plato's manuscripts arranged in a great variety of orders. With such patient labor did Demosthenes strive for a mastery of a correct style that he transcribed the History of Thucydides eight times. But Latin authors, we know, were more exact in their style than the Greeks, and believed still less in "felicitous scribbling." There are many golden maxims of Horace upon this subject, and we know how severe Vergil was in revising his lines. He used to compare himself to a bear licking her cubs into shape. No one with any genius to admire that which is "fair and shapely" can pore over such perfect models of composition, as the Latin student if he is honest has to do, without finding that they are exerting some influence upon the way in which he will try to express his own thoughts. This influence coming from the study of Latin, and along with it other influences, more indirect indeed and inexplicit, but not the less powerful, are so well described by a French author-Marmontel-that I shall quote a few sentences. You will find them in Prof. Payne's translation of Compayre's History of Pedagogy, a text-book in the course on education in Dalhousie University. "The choice and use of words," says this author, "in translating from one language to another, and even

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then some degree of elegance in the construction of sentences began to interest me; and this work, which did not proceed without the analysis of ideas, fortified my memory. I perceived that it was the idea attached to the word which made it take root, and reflection soon made me feel that the study of the languages was also the study of the art of distinguishing shades of thought, of decomposing it, of forming its texture, of catching with precision its spirit aud its relations, and that along with words an equal number of new ideas were introduced and developed in the heads of the young, and that in this way the early classes were a course in elementary philosophy much more rich, more extended and of greater real utility than we think."

I must not dwell at any length upon the education through the study of Latin authors of the tastes and feelings of the pupils in the appreciation of high literary merit. These ripe fruits, of classical study must not be expected in pupils of High School age. The Secretary of the Association, better known and esteemed in this part of Canada as the "Supervisor," fearing that I might not stick to my text, gave me a friendly warning against soaring beyond the narrow bounds of our High School curriculum, but even there it is often the teacher's rich reward to see that the youthful learners are gaining real improvement from contact with the "soldierly simplicity" of the style of Cæsar, and as they linger in honest patience over the difficult lines of Vergil they may be feeling more deep and abiding influences than he thinks, more deep and abiding, indeed, than they themselves can ever tell. It is something to have touched, be it but the "garment's hem," of that great literature.

There are, then, these liberal and humanizing influences at work upon the susceptible mind of the youthful student as he cons even his earliest lessons; habits of perseverance and industry are acquired as he wrestles with the long periods of Cæsar's narrative or grasps the often recondite sense of Vergil's lines, and as I have tried briefly to point out, improvement in expressing his thought in accurate English as he tries under the eye of the teacher to express the idea as clearly in English as he sees it is expressed in Latin. But there is another part of Latin teaching which should go on side by side with translation, and upon which I should like to dwell at greater length, because there, I believe, the results in the gaining of

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a mastery of the essentials of good English are still greater; I mean the practice of Latin Prose Composition. Let me begin by quoting a sentence from Dean Bradley, an English Latin scholar to whom Canadian teachers, and I think teachers in all parts of the Empire, are indebted for his text-book on Latin Composition, nominally a revision of Arnold's but in reality an original In an introduction to a more advanced work on the same subject, after guarding against misconception by saying that the art of composing Latin sentences is not so much an end as a means, and that if not valuable as an educational process it can be of little value as an educational result, he goes on to say: "The task of reproducing in the form of an ancient language the thoughts and expressions of modern speech and literature is one that calls for the constant exercise not only of special linguistic and imitative gifts, but of the faculties of memory, observation, accuracy of thought and expression, concentrated attention, a clear perception of the precise meaning of language, a power of going below the surface, of grasping firmly its essence as distinguished from its accessories or its accidental form, a nice discrimination of the real and relative force of apparently synonymous expressions, and even some exertion of the higher qualities of reflection and imagination." Are not these, O guardians of courses of study, faculties which we should have your sanction for seeking to arouse and develop? Are you not afraid that in seeking to find a substitute for that difficult discipline which is fitted to accomplish these results you have been guilty of the folly of trying to find better bread than has been made of wheat?

But someone may say: "Cannot the same results be obtained through the means of French or German, where there will remain besides a more immediately useful end, viz., a knowledge of these languages?" It must always be borne in mind, as a partial answer to this question, that wherever the merits of other languages are held to be equal in educational value there may always be brought forward to incline the balance in favour of Latin that advantage which we claimed for it at the outset, viz., that it aids in giving a firmer grasp of the meaning of the large number of words which are derived directly or indirectly from Latin. Though doubtless we must admit that modern languages may have a certain value as a means of training in English, yet experience

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has clearly shown that they are far from being equal to Latin In this respect. The form of the Latin syntax is so different from that of any modern language, such an "exquisitely artificial mould" is it, as DeQuincey says, that the student is forced at the very beginning to think more deeply upon the real meaning of the English sentence the idea of which he is seeking to convey in so altered a form. The determination of the rich and copious inflexions of the Latin language of the classical period and the clear setting forth of its most subtle yet exact syntax have engaged the labours of the world's foremost scholars for two thousand years, more especially since the revival of learning in the fourteenth century, with the attaiment of as near perfection therein as has been reached in any branch of human knowledge. Here, now, there can be no shifting standard of authority, so that in no other language can less apparent progress be made with imperfect knowledge. No other language constitutes so true a touchstone upon application to which the pretensions of obscure thought and the elaborate trifling of superficial work are detected and put to shame.

An incidental benefit which will accrue from diligence in the practice of this exercise will be the freeing of the student's English from the use of mixed metaphors, that dangerous and deadly snare into which the writers of modern English are so apt to fall. The prose literature of no language is so rich in metaphor as English, and mixed metaphors result from the fact that the writer does not perceive that he is using metaphorical language at all. No form of writing is so simple and direct, more chary in the use of metaphors than Latin prose, between which and Latin poetry there is a much wider gulf fixed than there is between English poetry and English prose. Now the habit which the practice of doing English into Latin cannot but form will be that of a critical discernment between plain and figurative language and the desire always when studying a sentence to get a grip of the plain, unvarnished sense of the English words.

Another useful lesson which the practice of writing Latin sentences ought to teach is that of conciseness in writing English. The student finds often that the meaning of an English sentence can be put into a Latin sentence of half the number of words. This will tend to form the habit of conciseness in his original

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sentences. He will try, for example, not to say, "The individual proceeded to his residence," when he means "the man went home;" not to say "the electric fluid penetrated the body of the sutorial artist as he was pursuing his avocation," when he means

"the shoemaker while at work was struck by lightning."

A most hearty and unsolicited testimonial in favor of the value of Latin as a means of training in English was within the past year received from Dalhousie's Professor of English, Dr. McMechan. His knowledge of Latin literature had lain dormant for some time, when he was by a chance circumstance, he tells us, led again to the study of Vergil. Throughout a great part of his long summer vacation he lay beneath the strong spell of the Mantuan wizard, and the result was a pamphlet on Vergil, which appeared soon after the term began, and two interesting articles on the same subject in the Dalhousie Gazette. author, be it remembered, who evoked this most enthusiastic praise from the English Professor, is Vergil, of the delights of whose poetry I have ventured to think that even High School students may have some experience. I wish the limits of the present paper would permit my making a few quotations from the grand encomiums which he heaped upon this ancient writerquotations to which the emphasis of repetition might be given with all the more effect because they are not the words of a "pedantic schoolmaster whose stock-in-trade is a little knowledge of Latin and Greek and who seeks by advertisement to enhance the value of the wares which he possesses," a charge which opponents of classical training sometimes make against its The professor's words must be considered advocates. the confessions of a converted modern, who had in his early years the advantages of a classical reducation, who forsook the fold, "threw up his cap at college for the moderns," as he tells us, "with the impetuosity of the undergraduate," strayed widely over the fields of modern literature with the fullest appreciation of all the delights which they can yield, but now after his many wanderings returns in deep penitence to his first, best love. In the course of some reminiscences of his High School days he takes occasion to pay a debt gratitude to his old classical master, a very exacting and thorough teacher, who drilled his class preparatory

an examination in seventy exercises of Latin Composition, the result of which was, as the Professor besides other advantages, "a certain feeling for sentence structure." It is most gratifying to see one who has acquired such skill in writing English rise to pay a tardy, it may be, yet most hearty tribute to the faithful drill of his old teacher, and to the value of the subject through the means of which that drill was exercised.

Will you listen to one piece more of testimony on this point, this time from within the range of my own experience. Many of you will remember Prof. Johnson, who occupied the chair in classics at Dalhousie for so many years—a man whom fine scholarly instincts and a keen sense of justice, little tempered, we used to think with mercy, made very chary of his praises and also rendered any word of praise he might be able to give a thing of considerable value. On one occasion which I distinctly remember I saw a reflection of kindly light from the Professor's eyes overcome the usually cold glitter of his critical glasses. It was when he handed back to a student of my class an exercise in Latin Prose with the remark that "the reading of it had given him very great. pleasure." A few years afterward I heard that student say that to the increased study of Latin Composition to which those words of praise stimulated him he owed in a great measure, if not any very marked proficiency in the art of writing English, at least a correction of his previous slipshed manner and some appreciation for the prime quality of accuracy in style.

Another argument in fayor of studying Latin and of beginning that study at an early age is that with the vocabulary thereby acquired and the linguistic training gained by that severe discipline the acquisition of modern languages, especially of French, is made very easy. John Stuart Mill, in his rectorial address at the University of St. Andrew's in 1867, advocated this view very strongly. This address, I see, is set down as a recommended book in the education course at Dalhousie. Having the stamp of approval from that part of the University's curriculum, I shall quote from it with the greater bolders. The first twenty pages of it would form very wholesome reading for the opponents of the classical training. The classics men are sometimes accused of being unpractical enthusiasts. John Stuart Mill, speaking from

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the point of view of the higher utilitarianism which has kept itself singularly free from that accusation, argued most strongly on the great importance of the so-called dead languages both in school and college. "It by no means follows," he said, "that every branch of general as distinct from professional knowledge should be included in the curriculum of school or university studies. There are things which are better learnt out of school or when the school years and even those usually passed in a Scottish University are over. I do not agree with those reformers who would give a regular and prominent place in the school or university curriculum to modern languages. This is not because I attach small importance to the knowledge of them. No one can in our age be considered a well instructed person who is not familiar with the French language so as to read French books with ease, and there is great use in cultivating a familiarity with German. But living languages are so much more easily acquired by intercourse with those who use them in daily life. Universities do enough to facilitate the study of modern languages if they give a mastery over that ancient language which is the foundation of most of them, and the possession of which makes it easier to learn four or five of the continental languages than it is to learn one of them without it." Our adoption of the continental vowel sounds in teaching Latin has made the transition from Latin to the Romance languages still easier than it was in Mill's day. Into many of the High Schools in Canada as a concession to the modern spirit and in consideration of the fact that more enter mercantile life from the High School than from the college French and German have been admitted; but I think it has been clearly enough shown that these modern languages can never be made a substitute for Latin in a system of education making the slightest claim to be thorough or liberal, and that a careful "grounding" in Latin should precede all modern language study in the school course.

I should like to add to this testimony of John Stuart Mill another bit of still stronger evidence and of more recent date. It is from the Rev. J. M. Wilson, Head Master of Clifton College. This school is one of the foremost in England, enrolling over 600 boys, and including on its teaching staff such eminent men as Hall and Stevens, whose mathematical text books have justly attained so wide a celebrity. Mr. Wilson himself, it should be stated, gave his attention chiefly to mathematics and science at

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Cambridge, and graduated senior wrangler in those subjects at that University. In answer to the question why he put so much stress on Latin in the case of those not going up to the Universities and whose studies lay chiefly on the modern side of the course, he said: "As to your question about Latin, I am afraid I cannot give my reasons very briefly, but these are the chief: First of all, experience shows us here, and the observation is abundantly confirmed elsewhere, that boys who learn Latin acquire a faculty for learning other subjects. Some years ago Latin was very imperfectly taught on our modern side. More time was given to modern subjects. But the result was that the modern side was almost invariably beaten by the classical side even in their own For instance, a classical boy began German in the fifth form at sixteen and before he was eighteen he was far better than a modern boy who began at fourteen, and gave quite as long a time to it every week. Again, modern boys gave twice the time to science and considerably more to mathematics, and were almost invariably beaten by the classical boys. And in English, in which the modern boys got far more teaching, they could not compete with the classical boys for a moment." If there are any who think that English Classics, as they like to call them, can take the place of Latin in our Secondary Schools they should lay this last sentence well to heart. It must not for one moment be supposed that I am maintaining that the main part of a student's education in literary tastes and in the cultivation of his æsthetic perception comes to him from the study of any foreign language. Of course this culture comes to him mainly from his own-to the English student from the storing of his mind in early youth with the masterpieces, especially in poetry, of the English literature, which is his inalienable birthright. Let this, rather than the forcing of the mind in too difficult mathematical and scientific reasoning, be encouraged in the early years of public school and junior high school life when the memory is so retentive and the mind so open to the refining and ennobling influences of poetry. But here the teacher who considers scholarship worth anything is reminded of the saying of Goethe, which was quoted at the outset: "No man who knows only his own language can be truly said to know even that," and this is as true of the English language when looked upon from a purely literary point of view as it is when considered from the standpoint of the philologer-the student of

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the science of language. It is by the student's comparing his own language with another (and the more that other language differs in syntactical forms from his own, the more will he be compelled to do this), it is by noting similarities and contrasts that greater clearness, fulness and richness are given to his knowledge, and therefore to his appreciation of his own. Words are more clearly shown to him in their true character as thought-symbols. They become less his master, but he rather theirs.

To those, if there be any at this late day remaining, who think that any of the substantial advantages claimed for the study of Latin can be gained by the study of translations a few words will suffice. The thought in any really great and abiding work of literature is indissolubly joined to the style, the language, nay, to the very words themselves in which that thought was first There is this difference between a business letter and enshrined. an ode of Horace, that the former can be written equally well in any language, the latter never adequately in any other language than Latin. Those who from accident or design had missed the reading of the classics in the original might do a great deal if they were so disposed by the reading of translations to acquaint themselves with the substance of the wisdom of these "grand old heathen"-to borrow the vivid phrase of Dalhousie's Mathematics Professor, but to claim, as some "arid utilitarians" have claimed, that these translations have any place on a course of study, High School or other, is only to try to rescue the he salt which has lost its savour" from the due execution of the sentence long ago pronounced upon it.

It is nothing to the point to say, as we sometimes hear it said, that no lasting benefit can come from the study of a dead language, because not one in a hundred "keeps up" his Latin after his school or college days are over. M. Thiers once said that it was not so much advantage to a statesman to be as to have been a minister, and it has been said, adapting this maxim, that what a man wants is not to know Latin but to have known it. Prof. J. S. Blackie, speaking in the last year of his life of the mastery he attained over Latin in his school days, and of how his studies had lain afterwards more in Greek, said: "Although I have lost my hold upon Latin, Latin has never lost its hold upon me." A man's physical endurance at forty may be much the better for his having played cricket or football at school or college

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hear it said, of a dead " his Latin s once said e as to have naxim, that ve known it. life of the d of how his Although I ts hold upon be much the ol or college even though he may feel that he would be a doubtful source of strength to a team of players: even so a man at the same age may enjoy his reading more, have to refer to his dictionary less frequently, and when he does refer to it do it with more pleasure and profit, and feel himself in other ways a better man intellectually for having mastered Latin at school, even though the list of verbs which govern the dative be a part of his long-forgotten knowledge.

Many wise men in this age advocate the teaching of Latin in school as a corrective influence to the narrowing tendencies of exclusive minute scientific research caused often by an impatient haste to "specialize" before a good foundation in the elements of an arts education is "well and truly laid." Such specialists surely "draw a circle premature, heedless of far gain," and so it sometimes comes about that, as Tennyson says-

"The man of science himself is fonder of glory and vain, An eye well practised in Nature, a spirit bounded and poor."

The later years of Darwin's life furnish us with an example of this. Far be it from me to say a word in depreciation of this great man. No one has labored longer, with greater industry and patience, and with greater gain to the sum of human knowledge than he has done. I shall quote his own words. You will find them and something more to the same effect in the latter part of an autobiographical sketch prefixed to the Life of Darwin, written by his son Francis, now Lecturer in Botany at Cambridge. "Lately," he says, "I tried to read Shakespeare and found it nauseating to me. My mind seems to have become a kind of machine for grinding general laws out of large collections of facts."

Some men who have the cause of liberal education at heart are anxious to see Latin retained as a subject of study in our schools for the very reason which parents sometimes give us for wishing their boys and girls to have nothing to do with it. "My boy is going into my office," a father says to the Latin teacher, "after he has finished his academy course. It is all very well for one who intends to be a lawyer, a doctor, a minister or a teacher to learn Latin, but there is no use in my boy bothering his head with such useless stuff." "Just the very reason why your boy should study it as long as you can afford to keep him at it," say those who after all are taking the highest ground which can be taken in the defence of any subject in a High School or College Curriculum, viz.—that it is studied purely

for its own sake, not with any eye to its value as a ware in the world's market. Some of you may be reminded here of the arguments against the study of Greek which the Author of the Vicar of Wakefield puts into the mouth of the Principal of the University of Louvain; "You see, me young man," says the Principal, "I never learned Greek, and don't find that I have ever missed it. I have had a doctor's cap and gown without Greek. I have 10,000 florins a year without Greek. I eat heartily without Greek: and in short as I don't know Greek I don't believe there is any good in it." This is the reductio ad absurdum of a good many of the arguments we hear against Latin. Did you ever consider how utterly subversive of the very idea of the word "school" the bread and butter argument is? That word "school" may be traced back (and it might do us some good to dwell upon this) to the Greek word σχολή, which means Not leisure as opposed to work, for a school is no place for idlers, but leisure from business life, where the higher work of training the mind might be carried on. "There," as Plato said, "arithmetic may be studied, but not as a training for shopkeepers." Let us retain a few subjects which will justify us in applying this fine old word school in its true sense, even to what we call our secondary academic institutions. A boy may justly feel some pride in the fact that he is devoting his time with some exercise of self-denial to that which he knows will be of no use to him in the common acceptation of the word use after he has entered mercantile life. He may think that he is more truly at school than his teacher, who gets a little money for not forgetting his This feeling will help to keep from his free unbent neck for a little longer the "inevitable yoke" of custom and utility.

But in our province, however it may be in other provinces of the Dominion, the full benefit to be gained from the study of anything is hindered to a great extent by the dissipation of the student's energies on too great a variety of subjects. All of the subjects at present included are useful as knowledge, also to some extent as a training to the acquisition of knowledge, and we seem for this reason not to have had the courage to deny access to the curriculum to any of them. To justify this wide selection the mind has been compared to a room with windows opening in all directions, through all of which light should come streaming in. Accepting the justice of the metaphor, might we

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not suggest the propriety of drawing the curtains over some of these windows lest the mind be dazed by excess of light? Or to come down to safer, plainer English, we maintain that a great deal of wholesome ignorance would be no cause for shame on the part of our High School boys and girls so long as their minds were acquiring habits of thought and study which could be turned to account in any direction in which a healthy, live interest might lead. Such is the opinion held in the United States by their leading educationists, where a few years ago attention was specially directed to the subject of secondary education. At the annual meeting of the National Educational Association in 1892 a committee of ten was appointed to consider The question of High School study. Ninety leading men in the educational world were added by this committee to their number to widen still further the range of their observation. A year and a half was devoted to the receiving of reports aud to a thorough study of the whole question. The results of their labors are now accessible in their report issued by the United States Bureau of Education. This report contains a very important lesson for us if we would but heed it. Commissioner Harris pronounced it the "most important educational document ever published in the United States." By the teachers of Canada and by those whose duty it is to prescribe what they shall teach it ought to be considered of no less importance. With regard to the proper scope of a High School course of study the committee report: "Selection for the individual is necessary to thoroughness and to the imparting of power as distinguished from information, for any large subject whatever to yield its training value must be pursued through several years and be studied from three to five times a week, and if each subject studied is thus to claim a considerable fraction of the pupil's school time, thenclearly the individual pupil can give attention to only a moderate number of subjects. If, in a secondary school, Latin is steadily pursued for four years with four or five hours a week devoted to it, that subject will be worth more to the pupil than the sum of half a dozen other subjects, each of which has one-sixth of the time allotted to Latin." "Surely," one exclaims, there needs no ghost come from the grave to tell us that axiom of pedagogy!" Simple as the lesson seems, we do not appear to have learned it. Four model time-tables are included in this committee's report, a study of which will bring out clearly the two leading conclusions

to which the committee has been forced: First, that only a few subjects should be included, and, second, that the claims of Latin to a place of supremacy are admitted with the heartiest unanimity. One time-table is given including neither Latin nor Greek, and another in which these are optional; but with regard to these the committee says: "Although the committee 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 desire to affirm explicitly their unanimous opinion that under existing conditions the two programmes called respectively Modern Languages and English must in practice be distinctly inferior to the other two, the Classical and the Latin-Scientific, both for pupils going to college and for those whose education terminates with the High School." Could the most enthusiastic advocate of the advantages of concentrated study and the importance of Latin as a factor in education wish any more authoritative and emphatic judgment upon the subject than this?

In each of the four time-tables to which reference has been made five subjects are included in the first year of High School study. In our curriculum there are ten, and History and Geography are counted as one of these ten subjects, and Drawing and Bookkeeping another! Two of these ten subjects, Latin and French, are optional. In the larger schools, where the principle of the division of labor obtains to some extent, the greater part of the pupils take Latin the first year, though amid such distractions and under such grievous pressure from the other eight subjects that it cannot be called learning Latin at all. In the smaller High Schools, where there are fewer teachers, this subject is

being dropped altogether.

Such is the present position of Latin in the High Schools of the Province of Nova Scotia, from consideration of the causes of which as well as from consideration of other things not the business of this paper to discuss, it has for sometime been clear to many wise and thoughtful men in Halifax and elsewhere throughout the province that reform of our curriculum in the direction of fewer subjects of study and higher standards in these is imperatively demanded if our High Schools are to maintain their true position, and be, in the highest degree possible for such institutions, a source of intellectual and moral benefit to the young people of our country.

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EUCLID AND MODERN SCHOOL GEOMETRIES.

By D. A. MURRAY, PH. D.,

[Department of Mathematics, Cornell University.]

Historical research shows that we are indebted for a portion of the substance and of the form of the elementary geometry of to-day to those who lived on the banks of the Nile over five thousand years ago. Geometry was cultivated by the ancient Egyptians for practical purposes solely. It was concerned, for the most part, with the measurement of figures and solids, and consisted mainly of formulæ and sets of rules.

The subject was introduced to Greece by Thales of Miletuswho visited Egypt, and carried the learning of its priests to his own countrymen about 600 B. C. The four hundred years after Thales may be called the golden age of Greek geometry. The study was advanced by a long line extending from Pythagoras in the sixth century B. C. to Euclid, Archimedes and Apollonius.* Euclid, who lived about 300 B. C., brought back the highly developed Greek geometry to the land of its origin. He taught in the Alexandrian school, which had been recently established, and which was destined to become so celebrated in the history of learning. He compiled and systematized the geometrical knowledge of his own and preceding times, part of the result being his Elements of Geometry.

"This book," says the late Professor Clifford, "has been for nearly twenty-two centuries the encouragement and guide of that scientific thought which is one thing with progress of man from a worse to a better state,—the encouragement, for it contained a body of knowledge that was really known and could be relied on,

Association for the Improvement of Geometrical Teaching organized, 1871.

Association for the Improvement of Geometrical Teaching organized, 1871.

Report of Committee of the British Association for the Advancement of Science on the teaching of Geometry, 1873.

Association for the Improvement of Geometrical Teaching published its Syllabus, 1875.

Association for the Improvement of Geometrical Teaching published its Elements of Geometry, 1844.

United States: *
Report of the Committee of the National Educational Association on Secondary
Schools (The Committee of Ten), made, 1892, published, 1893.
Action of leading Universities and Preparatory Schools in the Eastern States, 1896.

^{*} The following dates will be found useful in reading this paper: Thales, 640–546 B. C.
Pythagoras, 590 1–590 f B. C.
Archimedes, 287 1–212 B. C.
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and that, moreover, was growing in extent and application,—the guide, for the aim of every scientific student of every subject was to bring his knowledge of that subject into a form as perfect as that which geometry had attained." Euclid's treatise has always commanded the highest admiration of the greatest minds. Among books, its history and position is unique. The Elements soon became the authority for geometers. It was translated its Arabic, and during the Dark Ages was studied in the Moorish Universities, whence it was restored to Europe. "As to writing another work on geometry," wrote Professor DeMorgan, "the Middle Ages would as soon have thought of writing a New Testament." At the present day it is the model followed more or less closely by writers on elementary geometry, and it is almost the only text book on geometry used in the schools of the widely spread British Empire,

Greek geometry continued to flourish for over five hundred years after the time of Euclid. Archimedes and Apollonius and others discovered principles which have borne fruit in some of the modern developments of pure geometry. The Greek school cultivated geometry solely for its own sake, without reference to practical ends, and the subject was regarded by them as one of the best means of discipline for the mind. You remember the inscription set by Plato over the entrance to his school, "Let no one who is unacquainted with geometry enter here." Two stories about Euclid will give an idea of the Greek way of looking at geometry. When King Ptolemy inquired with reference to a certain proof, "Is there no easier way?" Enclid replied, "There is no royal road to geometry." When a youth, after-learning the first proposition of the Elements, asked, "What do I get by learning these things?" Euclid called his slave and said, "Give him three pence, since he must gain out of what he learns."

The Grecian spirit completely controlled the study of geometry until the seventeenth century, when there was a revival of the Egyptian's spirit, which pursues the subject for practical ends. This paper will tell a little about the contest which has been waged over the question, "What purpose should be kept most prominently in view in the teaching of elementary school geometry—should this purpose be the discipline of the reasoning power, or the gain of geometrical knowledge, or the practical use which can be made of geometrical truths."

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of geometry rival of the ctical ends. been waged nost promigeometry g power, or e which can The first English translation of the *Elements* was made in 1570. Robert Simson, Professor of Mathematics in the University of Glasgow, published his edition in 1756. His design was to correct the errors which had crept into the ancient texts, and to restore the writings of Euclid to what he considered their original and perfect form. This version maintained the place of authority in geometrical teaching in Great Britain for one hundred and thirty years. The editions of Potts, Todhunter and many others are little more than reprints of Simson's. The slightest deviation from the latter was severely criticised, and Euclid to the Englishman meant Euclid as presented by Dr. Simson.

The French respected Euclid less than did the English. example, Clairant in the preface to a text prepared by him in 1741 says, "Euclid had to convince obstinate sophists who gloried in denying the most evident truths; . . . but in our day things have changed face; all reasoning about what mere good sense decides in advance is now a pure waste of time, and fitted only to obscure the truth and to disgust the reader." He thus condemns self-evident propositions, as did the ancient Epicureans, who blamed Euclid for proving that "any two sides of a triangle are together greater than the third side," as being something that every ass knows. Although Clairant's work was soon supplanted by others which were more rigorous, yet his ideas had a great influence on French geometry. In 1794 appeared Legendre's Elements of Geometry. This book has enjoyed so much success and has had such a great influence on the teaching of elementary geometry, particularly in France and in the United States, that its author is easily the greatest of Euclid's modern rivals.

On the board are the Tables of Contents of the works of Euclid (school edition) and Legendre, and of the average text book on geometry in the United States.*

* Following are the Tables referred to.		
Euclid's Elements (School Edition)	Legendre's Elements of Geometry.	Geometry in U. S. A. Book I. Rectilinear figures.
Book I. Lines and rectilinear figures. " II. Areas of rectangles	Part I. Plane figures. 1. Straight lines. 2. The circle.	" II. The circle. " III. Proportion, and similar
" III. The circle. " IV. Problems on inscribed	3. Proportions of figures. 4. Regular polygons and the measurement of the	" IV. Areas of polygons. " V. Regular polygons and the measurement of
and circumscribed polygons and circles. " V. Ratio and proportion. " VI. Similar figures, &c.	circle. Part II. Figures in space. 1. Planes and solid angles. 2. Polyhedrons.	" VI. Lines and planes in space. " VII. Polyhedrons.
" XI. Lines and planes in space.	3. The sphere. Spherical triangles.	" VIII. Geometry of cylinder, cone, and sphere.
	 Geometry and measure- ment of the cylinder, cone, and sphere. 	" IX. Measurement of the cylinder, cone, and sphere.

Legendre states in his preface that he adopts in his work the same method which is found in the writings of Euclid and Archimedes, but that while he follows closely these illustrious models he endeavours to improve certain portions of the elements which they left imperfect, and especially the theory of solids. He assumes the theory of proportion as explained in treatises on arithmetic and algebra, saying that since we have a knowledge of algebra which the ancients did not possess, it would be wrong not to make use of it.

The main differences* between Euclid's Elements on the one hand and the modern text books of Legendre and his followers on the other, consist in:—1. Definitions; 2. The treatment of Parallels; 3. The treatment of proportion; 4. Arrangement and the use of hypothetical constructions; 5. Additional matter in the later works.

Euclid defines a straight line as a line which lies evenly between its extreme points. The new definitions most commonly met are those which define a straight line as the shortest line between any two of its points, and as a line which always has the same direction., Euclid's definition expresses the primary idea which a straight line raises in the mind. The idea that a straight line is the shortest line between any two points comes later, and besides brings in a quantitative notion, that of measurement. The definition involving the term "direction" requires further The treatment of parallels is in many books the same as that of Euclid, and in others, is quite different. A very interesting and valuable discussion of these matters is contained in Euclid and his Modern Rivals by the late Rev. C. L. Dodgson, the ardent champion of the-faith-as-it-is-in-Euclid. His main life work was the teaching of elementary mathematics, but he is known to the outside world as the quaintly humorous and wellbeloved Lewis Carroll, the author of Alice in Wonderland.

Modern writers treat proportion by the algebraic method. The objection to this is that in arithmetic and algebra the theorems on proportion relate to numbers only and not to magnitudes in general. On the other hand Euclid's theory of proportion

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^{*} For a more extended discussion on these differences, see Cajori, History of Elementary Mathematics, p. 73; E. L. Richarda, "Old and New Methods in Elementary Geometry", The Educational Review, Vol. III, (Jan. 1882); G. B. Halsted, "The Old and New Geometry," The Educational Review, Vol. VI, (Sept. 1893).

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of Elementary Geometry," The Geometry," The includes all kinds of magnitudes. "There is hardly anything in mathematics more beautiful than Euclid's wondrous fifth book," said the late Professor Cayley. This book, however, is so exceedingly difficult for beginners, that it is often omitted from the course, and the pupil really draws upon his arithmetical ideas of proportion when he applies its theorems in the sixth book.

Modern elementary geometries have a much more systematic arrangement than the ancient work. This is possible because Legendre and his imitators employ what are called hypothetical constructions. Euclid never makes use of a construction without first showing its possibility and the manner of making it. first three propositions are problems. On the other hand, his modern rivals give theorems first and assume the necessary constructions, saying, for example, suppose that the angle is bisected by a certain line, and so on. The problems of construction are given at the end of the books. Very curious reasoning is sometimes exhibited; for, in some books, theorems occur, in the proof of which certain constructions are assumed, and later on these constructions are made by using the theorems already proved by their means. In one instance, in some modern books, a construction is supposed which is impossible with the straight-edge and compasses, which, as in Euclid, are the only instruments allowed. This construction is to inscribe a regular polygon of any number of sides in a given circle.

Another difference between the Elements of Euclid and the school geometries of the Legendrean type, is that the latter contain propositions on the mensuration of the circle and on the geometry and mensuration of the sphere, cylinder, cone, and like simple solids. Euclid's treatment of solid geometry is very slight. Although Euclid avoids any reference to mensuration, there does not appear to be good reason for objecting to these additions. They cannot be objected to on the ground of being too modern for they were discovered by Archimedes, the greatest geometer of antiquity, who was one of Euclid's early successors. One of the reasons of the success of Legendre's book is that it was the first attempt to blend Euclid and Archimedes together. Followers of Euclid and followers of Legendre agree as to the advisability of introducing into their text books theorems on harmonic section,

poles and polars, transversals, radical axis, and other subjects in

ancient and in later geometry. The remaining portion of this paper will give a brief account of some movements in geometrical education which have recently a taken place in England and in the United States, and will show how these movements have affected the teaching and text books

of geometry.

In England, the influence of the work of Legendre, an appreciation of the defects of Euclid's book, defects which were acknowledged and clearly set forth by one of its warmest admirers,* and, perhaps most of all, the existence of a considerable amount of unhappy-teaching of geometry, led to great dissatisfaction with the retention of Simson's edition of Euclid as a text book. resulted at last in the exciting and memorable conflict between the Euclideans and the anti-Euclideans. Anyone who believes that there cannot be anything exciting, and that all is cold and serene in which mathematics is concerned, will be convinced of his error if he reads English educational journals between, say, 1868 and The leading mathematicians took active parts in the con-Professors Sylvester and Cayley have been perhaps troversy. the two greatest mathematicians of England in this century. The former, in an address at the British Association, used these words, " I should rejoice to see . . . Euclid honorably shelved or buried ' deeper than did ever plummet sound' out of the school boy's reach." Professor Cayley, who was the greater geometer, strongly advocated the retention of Simson's Euclid. Professor Tait of Edinburgh, referred to "the insane delusion under which British mathematicians permit Euclid to be employed in elementary teaching." Professor DeMorgan, who was unrivalled as a teacher of mathematics, held by Euclid, saying, "We do not think short and easy geometry the best road even to mathematics; that it is not good education for the world we are quite sure."

On the one side it was urged that "Euclid wrote for men and not for children;" that "his book was too difficult for beginners, and that something easier would be better;" that "in a world in which there is so much to learn we must learn everything in the easiest way in which it can be learnt." It was also pointed out that "the book was not progressive as regards difficulty;" that

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^{*} The late Professor DeMorgan, of University College, London.

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for men and r beginners, n a world in thing in the pointed out culty;" that "its phraseology was pedantic and cumbrous," and that "it contained much superfluous matter which might profitably be discarded." Further, that "its tediousness and prolixity was a great hindrance to the learner in gaining a knowledge of geometry," and that "it took up so much time in proving so little, that a sound elementary knowledge of plane and solid geometry, besides trigonometry, might be easily got in the time required to master Euclid alone." Moreover, it was declared that "the inductive method was the natural way of acquiring knowledge," and that "the syllogistic method was damaging to the development of geometrical freedom and power;" that in Euclid's text "everything was sacrificed to logic;" that "it was unsuggestive;" and that "it had become fossilized by age, and something better suited to modern times, something more interesting and more useful should take its place:"

The advocates of Euclid replied that "his method was perfectly rigorous;" that 'some of the defects pointed out could be remedied without any alteration of the main part of the text;" that "even with his acknowledged faults (here an omission, there a redundance, here an obscurity, there an overlabored clearness, here a logical superfluity, there an illogical shortcoming), still the best exercise of thought was Euclid's Elements itself, with, the faults noted and commented;" that " his prolixity in recalling over and over again propositions which had gone before did much to fix them in the mind and to prevent looseness of reasoning;" that "the lesson that success in any pursuit demands serious toil must be learned eventually, and like most lessons was learned with least pain in early youth." It was further urged that "the schools did not exist for the purpose of making mathematicians;" that "there was no place for strict logical treatment in any other part of the modern mathematical course;" that "the training of youth to receive cautiously and to understand clearly was of greater importance than the rapid acquisition of mere geometrical knowledge," and that "Euclid's Elements was excellently adapted to the purpose of mental discipline." Reasons of expediency and convenience were at hand. It was pointed out that "an established order of propositions was necessary for reference and examination purposes," and that "Euclid must remain paramount in the schools until a very great consensus of opinion should be

obtained in favor of some one definite text book." Nor was a sentimental reason lacking. Friends of the ancient work pleaded that "the book which had been used in the schools of Alexandria and had gathered around it the associations of more than two thousand years, should not be lightly pushed aside."

The discussion on the faults and merits of Euclid's Elements as a text book, widened so as to include the general subject of geometrical teaching. The two ends of geometrical study, the disciplinary and the practical, its general educational value and the gain of geometrical knowledge, came to be clearly distinguished. The hope was expressed that geometrical teaching might be so improved as to help both these ends and make the one materially aid the other. The right and necessity of a practical, an experimental, in short, an inductive geometry in elementary education were finally acknowledged, and at the same time deductive geometry did not suffer any loss of honor.

The Association for the Improvement of Geometrical Teaching In 1873 a committee of the British had been formed in 1871. Association for the Advancement of Science, which had been appointed to consider the possibility of improving the methods of instruction in elementary geometry, reported that the difficulty of examinations was in the way of complete freedom being allowed to teachers in methods of demonstration and order of propositions. The committee thought that no single text book which had yet been produced was fit to succeed Euclid in the position of authority. It also recommended that the teaching of practical geometry should precede that of theoretical geometry in order that the mind of the learner might first be familiarized with the facts of the science, and afterwards led to see their connection, and that with this end, the constructions in practical geometry should be directed as much to the verification of theorems as to the solution of problems. A committee of the Geometrical Association completed a Syllabus of plane geometry which was published in 1875, and the committee of the British Association, already referred to, reported in favor of this Syllabus. A committee appointed in 1881 by the Geometrical Association prepared proofs of the propositions of the Syllabus. Part I of their Elements of Geometry corresponding to Euclid I, II, was published in 1884, and Part II, corresponding to Euclid III, IV, V, VI, appeared in 1886.

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The Geometrical Association now thought it a fit time to petition the Universities and the Civil Service Commissioners to make such changes in their examination regulations in elementary geometry as would admit of the subject being studied from text books other than editions of Euclid without students being thereby placed at a disadvantage in the examinations. The Oxford Board of the Faculty of Natural Science reported that a greater freedom of demonstration should be allowed, but that Euclid's method should be required, and that Euclid's axioms and order of propositions should be followed. The report of the Cambridge Special Board for Mathematics was in similar terms, and the Civil Service Commissioners signified their accordance with the Universities. These reports were made in 1887 and 1888.

The Association geometry did not come into general use, but several writers in England and the United States have acknow-Tedged their indebtedness to it for suggestions and material aid. In the freedom enjoyed under the new regulations, several geometries have been written, which, as a reviewer puts it, "while harmlessly masquerading as editions of Euclid are really excellent treatises on elementary geometry based upon the lines which Euclid has laid down." Such are those of Hall and Stevens, Langley and Phillips, Taylor, Nixon, and others. In the choice and in the use of these books there is room for the exercise of considerable freedom and judgment on the part of teachers. These books differ more or less in the use of contractions and symbols, in exercises, in notes, and in the additional matter introduced. Each work has good qualities peculiar to itself. The presence of historical notes in some of them is a highly commendable feature.* It would be well if, in addition to the text adopted for class use, the teacher or the school library possessed copies of other editions.

A number of introductory and practical geometries, suitable for beginners between the ages of eight and thirteen, have also appeared. In these introductory courses pupils easily become familiar with the simpler problems and truths in geometry, such

^{&#}x27;J. S. Mackay's Euclid (W. & R. Chambers), which closely follows Simson's text, also contains carefully prepared historical notes.

Among them may be mentioned: T. Sundara Row, Paper-folding, (Addison & Co. Madras); W G. Spencer, Inventional Geometry, (Williams and Norgate, London): Paul Bert, Experimental Geometry, (Cassell & Co., London): A. Mantl, Natural Geometry, (Macmilla & Co., London); A. J. Pressland, Geometrical Drawing, (Rivington, Percival & Co., London): G. M. Minchin, Geometry for Beginners, (Clarendon Press, Oxford), XII+102 pp. (1898). "The last named book has been very favorably reviewed."

as, that the sum of the angles of a triangle is equal to two right angles, that the square on the hypothenuse of a right angled triangle is equal to the sum of the squares described on the other two sides, that the angle in a semi-circle is a right angle, the conditions of equality and similarity of triangles, how to bisect lines and angles, how to divide a line into any number of equal parts, how to make a rectangle whose area shall be equal to that of a given polygon, and so on. This experimental, observational kind of geometry cultivates the inventive faculty of children and helps them to acquire the useful habit of seeing quickly the relations of things.

But boys and girls, like older people, are apt to trust too much and too readily to their impressions and intuition. A college professor who has made special tests with a class in geometry tells us * that " the tendency to accept as true statements resembling true ones is clearly marked." Therefore, it is advisable that the course in practical geometry be followed by a course in deductive geometry. To quote the remarks of Professor Miall in his charming little book, Thirty Years of Teaching: "Deductive geometry will teach him [the pupil] what strict proof means. It will teach him to follow out the consequences of an admitted statement. It will give him examples the most complete that that can be found, of constructive reasoning which builds up an elaborate structure of unconquerable solidity upon a few simple and self-evident propositions. Deductive geometry should also help him to throw his geometrical notions into the form of extremely general statements which can be easily remembered and applied."+ It may be added that the pupil will also find that in deductive geometry he has a new instrument for the discovery of truth.

Mr. Heppel, one of the most advanced of reformers, in an address; delivered at the College of Perceptors, in London, last year says: "Instead of contest there is now compromise. At present, with the continually increasing number of persons whose business has to do with applied science, there is little need

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^{*} E. W. Davis, "On the Teaching of Elementary Geometry," Bulletin of the New York Mathematical Society, Vol. III, No. 1. (Oct. 1893).

⁺ L. C. Miall. Professor of Biology in the Yorkshire College. It should be stated that Professor Miall is strongly in favor of adopting or devising some text other than that of Euclid.

Published in The Educational Times (London). April 1, 1897.

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to argue that geometry is extensively needed for its own sake. Still Euclid, in spite of every imperfection that can possibly be urged, is the grandest specimen of close sustained reasoning that we have, and we should try, if possible, to secure for school boys and school girls the advantages both of geometrical knowledge and of logical training. To do this effectually," continues Mr. Heppel, "I think we should separate the two." This principle of separation between instruction in geometrical truth and training in logical expression is the main recommendation of his paper. We will see that this separation is clearly marked in Germany, and to some extent in the United States, and also, though not necessarily on this account, that deductive geometry receives much less consideration in these countries than with us.

Before we consider elementary geometry in the United States, a few words may be allowed concerning elementary geometry on the Continent of Europe.

In France, in the latter half of this century, several great mathematicians have made comparisons between Legendre and Euclid, in favour of the latter, and they have expressed their regret that their country has gone so far from the ways of Euclid. The tendency of late has been toward greater rigor, and the leading geometry in France to-day, the elaborate work of over eleven hundred pages of Rouché and Comberusse is much more rigorous than that of Legendre.

In Italy, in 1867, a commission appointed by the government to inquire into the state of geometrical teaching, found "it so unsatisfactory and the number of bad text books so large and so much on the increase, as to compel them to recommend the adoption of Euclid pure and simple." The government issued a document of instruction for teaching mathematics in which the teacher was advised to adhere to the method of Euclid as the one best fitted to establish in the youthful mind the habit of thoroughly rigorous reasoning. Since then, Euclid's text has been replaced by other treatises which adhere closely to the method of Euclid and contain some modern developments.

In an article* on the "Teaching of Elementary Geometry in German Schools," it is stated that recent statistics have shown

By Professor Ziwet, of the University of Michigan, in Bulletin of the N. Y. Mathematical Society, Vol. I, No. 1, (1891-92).

that the most widely used text books on geometry in Germany to-day are far from being the best. The most popular book is an inferior one by Kambly, which reached its 74th edition in 1884, and is used in 217 schools. Next in order comes another rather inferior book used in 55 schools, then one used in 44, one in 29, and so on, while there are 55 books used in but one school each. Some excellent books have been written, most of them dominated by the Euclidean method, but they are not popular. Some of the texts are little more than syllabuses of axioms, definitions, and enunciations. The propositions are proved in school by what the Germans call the "heuristic" method, that is, the process which would naturally be adopted by anyone trying to find the proof for himself. The pupil is led to discover the proof. A synthetic reconstruction is sometimes added. Preparatory courses in "intuitive" geometry in connection with geometrical drawing are given in the elementary schools; and one of the chief objects of the course in geometry in the Gymnasia is to form and practise the power of mental intuition.

The power of mental intuition enables us to see that a thing is so before we can formally prove that it is so. "Mathematical intuition," says Professor Klein, "is always far in advance of logical reasoning and covers a wider field." In an address delivered at the Royal Academy of Sciences at Göttingen in 1895, Professor Klein, who is one of the foremost mathematicians of Germany, speaks as follows concerning the too exclusive prevalence of the intuitive method in German schools: "Among the teachers in our Gymnasia the need of mathematical instruction, based on intuitive methods, has now been so strongly and universally emphasized, that one is compelled to enter a protest, and vigorously insist on the necessity for strict logical treatment."

Nearly all of the text books on elementary geometry in the United States are written on Legendrean lines. Euclid, however, was taught in a few institutions until a recent date, and at the present time some professors and teachers recommend and adopt a course of one or two books for the sake of the logical training. The usual school course covers the whole of plane geometry in one year's work of five hours a week. (Perhaps this statement will give, better than any other, an idea of the "easiness" of their text books.) Algebra is usually given in the first year of

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the high school course, and geometry in the second. The average age of the pupil in geometry is about sixteen. Deductive geometry has been attacked and defended much as in England, but appears to have suffered much more than in the old country. German ideas have great influence, and the "inventional" or "constructive" method of teaching geometry is almost exclusively used in many schools. For example, the catalogue of a leading high school in the State of New York says. with respect to its course in plane geometry: "Only the theorems, axioms, and words to be defined are given to the students. This department uses its own little syllabus as a guide to the work. Much attention is given to mutiplying original demonstration of a single theorem." I am given to understand by those who know something of what goes on behind the scenes, that the boys in some schools, although they do not have a royal road to geometry, go on a riding path. For they make a "pony" of the teacher's favorite geometrical text, and the work in the class-room is not so intuitional as it appears. This much is certain: to conduct classes by this method must require teachers of far above average ability.

I am not acquainted with any statistics on the matter, but it may be said that the number of text books is large. Among the leading books are those of Chauvenet, Wentworth, Wells, Halsted, Beman and Smith, and Phillips and Fisher. Chauvenet's work was published in 1869 and is one of the most rigorous. The authors differ greatly in rigor of treatment. A student who can pass well in the work of one will fail miserably when judged by the standard of another. The leading principles of many instructors is "the easier and shorter the text the better." There is danger that the interests of sound geometrical teaching may be injured by this principle, and by the perpetuation of severely criticised books which publishers and careless teachers will not willingly let die.

You have heard about the influence of the Geometrical Association and the Universities on elementary geometry in England. In the United States the National Educational Association and certain universities have taken actions which affect the teaching and the text books of the subject. In 1892 the National Educational Association appointed a committee on secondary school studies. (Secondary schools correspond to high schools and

academies in Canada.) This famous committee, commonly known as The Committee of Ten, in its report published in 1893, made the following recommendations among others with respect to

geometry:-

That the child's geometrical training should begin as early as That, at the age of ten for the average child systematic instruction in concrete or experimental geometry should begin and should occupy one school hour a week for about three years. During this period the main facts of plane and solid geometry should be taught, not as an exercise in logical deduction and exact demonstration, but in as concrete and objective a form as possible. They recommended further that the study of systematic algebra should be begun at the age of fourteen and that the study of demonstrative geometry should begin at the end of the first year's study of algebra and be carried on by, the side of algebra for the next two years occupying about two and a-half hours a week. The report on the teaching of demonstrative geometry insists on the importance of elegance and finish in geometrical demonstration for the reason that the discipline for which geometrical demonstration is to be chiefly prized is a discipline in complete, exact, and logical statement."

There is an increasing number of introductory courses* framed in accordance with the recommendation on concrete geometry. The recommendation that geometry be extended over two years does not appear, as yet, to have had much effect.

At a conference on uniform requirements for admission to college, held in Feb., 1896, at Columbia College, and representing Harvard, Yale, Princeton, the University of Pennsylvania, Columbia and 'Cornell, and nearly all the larger preparatory schools in the East, the mathematical conference voted unanimously to recommend that arithmetic be dropped from the college entrance requirements, and that a knowledge of the metric system and the ability to solve numerical problems in plane geometry be This has been followed by the appearance of several required.

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^{*} Among the introductory geometries published in the United States are:

G. A. Hill. A Geometry for Regimers, (Ginn & Co.), 1889.
G. I. Hopkins, Plane Geometry on the Heuristic plan, (Heath & Co.), 1895.
A. R. Hornbrook, Concrete constructor for Beniners, (American Book Co.), 1896.
E. H. Nichols, Hemania, Constructive Geometry, (Longmans, Green & Co.).
W. Noething, Hemania of Constructive Geometry, from the German of K. H. Stöcker, (Silver, Burdott & Co.), 1897.

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), 1895. ok Co.), 1896. Freen & Co.) of K. H. Stöcker. books on geometry* which have good collections of numerical problems included in their exercises.

One thing which has been emphasized strongly on both sides of the Atlantic in the discussions on geometrical teaching is the importance of the teacher. Professor Christal of Edinburg in his address on 'The Diffusion of Scientific Knowledge' before the Mathematical and Physical section of the British Association in 1885, says, "No agency that I have ever seen can compare for efficiency with an intelligent teacher who has thoroughly made his subject his own. . . . In the future we must look more to men and to ideas and trust less to mere systems."

So far as Canadian schools are concerned, I think that attention should be given to the recommendations concerning an introductory course in practical and experimental geometry which were made by the Committee of the British Association in 1873, and by the Committee of Ten in the United States in 1893. It seems to me that reason and experience are rather on the side of those who wish to retain Euclid's plane geometry in our schools. I believe, if I may be permitted to say so, that it would be better not to follow Euclid's eleventh book, but in its stead to adopt for the solid geometry some one of the texts used in the United States. To one trained in Euclid's text (Books I., VI.), the proofs may seem rather condensed, perhaps little more than hints in some cases, but the pupils can easily expand them after the Euclidean style. A few moments ago I referred to the advantage of the teacher having access to several texts of Euclid. Allow me to lay stress upon that again and to recommend further that the teacher should have at least two of the texts of our neighbors. Beman and Smith's, and Phillips and Fisher's geometries will be found especially suggestive and useful, since each contains a large number of valuable historical notes and good collections of numerical exercises. Numerical problems would interest and help the pupils to understand and remember the propositions and see something of their practical application. Historical and biographical notes would enliven the class-room work. Moreover, the names of those who have advanced one of the most important and

^{*} For example, J. G. Estill. Numerical problems in Plane Geometry, Longmans, Green & Co., 1807. Beman & Smith. Plane and Solid Geometry, Ginn & Co., 1805, and Phillips and Fisher. Elements of Geometry, (Harpers), 1896, also contain numerical problems.

The teacher should not allow himself to fall asleep and to stiffen in any book or systems, time-honoured or prescribed by authority though it be. He should follow the advice of one of the mighty reasoners of the world, "Look not every man on his own things, but every man also on the things of others." He should be ready to do-something more. Mr. Kipling, also looking back to ancient Greece for a model, says, concerning Homer and himself:

"An' what he thought 'e might require,
'E went an' took—the same as me!"

Instructors in geometry as well as those in other subjects would do well to follow this example of the great poet and teacher of the people of the seven seas.

MATHEMATICAL DRAWING AND DESCRIPTIVE GEOMETRY—THEIR PLACE IN AN EDUCA-TIONAL SYSTEM.

By H. M. MACKAY, B. A. Sc., PICTOU ACADEMY.

A few years ago the mention of Drawing in the Public Schools, called up the idea of more or less crude attempts at picture-making. To the lay mind that is probably the case yet. Perhaps the courses prescribed, and in some cases the character of the instruction given, may have been responsible for this idea which made many of the public and some teachers regard drawing as a pleasant diversion from the more important work of the school-room, but as something which was hardly to be taken seriously.

We have improved in this respect, but we have not gone far enough. Our pupils are too often unable when they leave school, to apply what skill they may have acquired to practical problems; and in the absence of that ability their work is largely wasted. We must do more in order to profit by what we have already done.

All industrial drawing, whether for decorative or constructive purposes, is founded on geometry, and may to that extent be said to be mathematical. But it will be more convenient for our present purposes to consider *mathematical* as synonymous with *mechanical* drawing. In mechanical drawing lines and angles must be constructed accurately. A higher degree of precision is

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required than the unaided hand and eye can attain, however well they may be trained; hence the necessity for using mathematical instruments. Descriptive Geometry aims at representing solids on paper in such a way as to give full and accurate information with regard to the proportions and dimensions of every part. The information must be so full and so accurate as to enable any one with the necessary manual skill, to reproduce the object represented. For this purpose it is customary to imagine two planes at right angles to each other, upon each of which, every important point of the object is projected. The plan and elevation thus obtained constituting together a working drawing of the object. Descriptive Geometry also concerns itself with the solution of a vast number of problems which confront the mechanic at every turn; such as (to mention a homely one) the shape in which a piece of sheet iron must be cut, to form the elbow of a stovepipe.

In the public schools hitherto the greater portion of the time has been given to freehand drawing; less to instrumental work; while Descriptive Geometry has, for the most part, been relegated to technical schools. It would certainly be unfortunate if the time spent in well directed freehand work were curtailed in any way, for draughtsmen and teachers are agreed that all instrumental work should be preceded by as thorough a freehand course as possible. If one's first work is done with the aid of instruments, he learns to rely too much upon them. His hand becomes stiff and cramped, and he can seldom hope to attain the greatest facility as a freehand draughtsman. On the other hand, the training which the hand, eye, and head receive through sight drawing is an invaluable aid, towards good instrumental work. Still it is surely unwise to neglect a class of work which is of direct practical benefit to three-fourths of our people.

The cost of instruments is undoubtedly one of the most serious practical obstacles in the way of doing good work in the public schools. We cannot afford expensive instruments; still less can we afford bad ones, since the usefulness of many potentially excellent draughtsmen is spoiled for all time by their use. Most of the sets sold for school purposes are of very inferior quality and contain useless pieces, Our educational authorities have exerted themselves to provide good and cheap text-books, usually with success. The difficulties in the case of instruments are no doubt greater, since multiplication of sales does not reduce the cost of production in the same ratio. Still concerted action, following a careful enquiry as to what our needs really are, should do much towards reducing the cost and improving the quality.

Any attempts to estimate the place which a subject should occupy in an educational system, must take account of its efficacy as a mental and moral discipline, its relation to other studies, and the value which a knowledge of it may have as an instrument in attacking the practical problems of life. As to the disciplinary value of Mathematical Drawing, it would be superfluous to say much here. Most of what has been said and written with respect to Freehand Drawing applies with equal force in this case. Every one admits the value of drawing in stimulating the attention, adding to the powers of observation and expression, promoting habits of order and neatness, and developing the love of proportion and beauty. It is the form of manual training which is most universally available. It affords the first opportunity which most scholars have of putting their knowledge into practice, of realizing the extent to which theory is borne out by fact. Besides all this, drawing is unique among our ordinary school studies in the opportunity which it gives for the display and exercise of talents which might but for it remain hidden. Most tetchers will agree with the late Francis Walker, who was so eminently qualified to offer an opinion on this subject, when he says with reference to drawing in the public schools: "If the acquisition of this art were of no practical value, if the training of eye and hand and head were put out of account, I fully believe that in spite of the very shabby way in which this subject has been taught heretofore, drawing in the public schools has repaid its cost ten-fold, simply in the opportunity it has afforded a host of scholars to do something well."

These and similar considerations have been deemed sufficiently weighty to justify the introduction of drawing in practically all common and high school courses. For Descriptive Geometry we may claim all these and additional advantages, among the most important of which is its singular efficacy in developing a kind of mathematical imagination, the power of realizing form in space. For technical purposes, in the design and construction of machinery and structures of all kinds, this power is so essential that

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Descriptive Geometry would form a valuable part of a technical training, even if it were not so rich in its capabilities in solving problems. But even to the general student, the faculty of which I speak is of the highest value. It seems to give him a correct and lifelike idea of things, rather than of words; increasing a hundred fold his ability to understand and interpret a verbal description of any scientific or industrial process or appliance, and in just that ratio it makes him the quicker and more thorough student. When possible, of course, it is desirable to get our ideas from direct contact with things. But since art is long and life is short we frequently have to depend on what others tell us, and it is accordingly worth while to cultivate the hearing ear and understanding heart.

To what extent does Mathematical Drawing help the student in other studies? In Geometry? In Physics and kindred sciences? It is true that there is no road to Euclid, no other way by which we may attain to the mental vigour held up as the reward of the faithful, but the narrow and ill-paved way which leads across pons asniorum. Still the knowledge of geometrical truth is often useful for its own sake. In some pursuits for instance it is most desirable to know that the square on the hypotenuse of a right angled triangle is equal to the sum of the squares on the other two sides. The man who knows that has a distinct advantage over his fellows who are in ignorance, no matter whether he has learned it by the use of scale and protractor, or by a series of deductions from self-evident axioms. In either case, if he be normally minded, he will apply it with greater confidence and certainty, than if he had been simply assured of its truth without verifying it for himself. In either case it becomes a part of his stock-in-trade which he can call to his service at pleasure. If he has arrived at the truth in the Euclidean way, he has learned many other useful things besides; and, what is more important, he has made himself strong in overcoming obstacles by the way. But a thorough course in geometry is not open to every one who has occasion to make a practical application of geometrical truths. If we cannot have Euclid, I would venture to suggest that we avail ourselves more fully than we have done of the scale and protractor, as the best possible substitute for Euclid in gaining a practical, everyday, working knowledge of the truths of geometry.

To the young student of Euclid it is always interesting to verify a proposition by means of instruments. But it may be doubted whether the process helps him much with the Euclidean method. Perhaps it rather strengthens the tendency sometimes noticeable, to regard the proof as superfluous, and an invention of his Satanic Majesty. The most direct aid that we can expect drawing to give us in this direction, lies in the early formation of geometrical conceptions. Are we not safe in saying that the student will make most rapid progress in geometry, who can scarcely remember the time when he lacked a fairly correct idea of a right angle, of parallel straight lines and their like. It is difficult to handle newly formed conceptions and to reason about them with ease.

In Physics, the development of graphical methods, has opened up a new and extensive field for Mathematical Drawing. Particularly in the Laboratory, for the graphic representation of physical laws, and of the results of experiments. This is a most useful and time saving method, for when represented graphically we can often grasp in an instant the significance of a set of observations, which if exhibited as a mass of figures would require labored analysis to interpret. Besides in contemporary technical literature, so much information is thus set forth, that the reader is seriously handicapped, unless he has had considerable experience in this mode of expression. To the young and inexperienced observer this method is particularly valuable as an aid in correlating facts, in generalizing, and in detecting errors; since any irregularity in a curve shows itself far more readily than in a tabulated statement. The actual drawing in such cases is usually so simple, that it may be said that no preliminary training is necessary. Such is not the writer's experience. Students who know nothing of drawing show a hesitation and lack of confidence, not to say of accuracy, in the use of graphical methods, which seriously limits their success.

It will be impossible to do more than hint at the extent to which graphical methods can be used to attack that very large class of problems in mensuration and mechanics which involve the solution of triangles, finding the areas of curved and irregular figures, and so on; just the kind of problem that every mechanic must needs grapple with. Our text-books give us little help here.

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he extent to t very large involve the nd irregular y mechanic te help here. Such work is usually postponed until the pupil has some knowledge of trigonometry. And at that stage the means employed are very likely to distract his attention from the end in view. Difficulties in the way of trigonometrical formulas and logarithms crowd around him in such thick battalions, that his school days have not infrequently passed away before he knows how to employ the effective, but to him unwieldy implement, which has been put into his hand.

It is from its practical application to industrial purposes that Mathematical Drawing presents the strongest claims to a place in an educational system. Ability to draw lies at the foundations of success in many mechanical pursuits. It is hardly putting it too strongly to say that the skilled artizan is the mechanic who can draw. In the modern industrial world no feature is more remarkable than the pains taken to adapt every article or part of a structure that is produced to its own definite purpose. When a certain strength, for instance, is required in a member, we no longer turn it out in a haphazard way allowing an enormous factor of safety, so that we shall at least be sure to have it strong enough. . The keenness of competition would not permit of such waste. Every ounce of materal is scrutinized and distributed with mathematical precision, where it will be of most use. We are no longer content to travel along beaten paths, but we follow with increasing confidence where mathematical theory leads. The producers of the world are fast owning their allegiance to mathematical and physical law. It is an age of applied science. And in all the applications of science, drawing performs this important part, that it constitutes the connecting link between theory and practice, between the mathematical formula and the manufactured article; "the interpretation and application of mathematics to industry, bringing the abstract truths of science to the concrete form of service." We can hardly think of a product of human labor, from a railway spike to a cathedral, from a needle to a battleship, which can be efficiently produced without a drawing. The designer must draw to keep his ideas clear and communicate them to others. His only alternative is the laborious construction of a complete The mechanic must be able to understand and interpret the drawing, so as to reproduce the object represented without constant supervision. Drawing is thus the language of the

mechanic; a language superior to our ordinary spoken or written tongues in that it is universally intelligible, and tells its story with greater accuracy and in smaller compass than they do. Inability to interpret or to construct a drawing is from the industrial point of view, as serious a disadvantage as inability to read or write, and we trust will soon be looked upon as a like matter of reproach.

We sometimes go to considerable trouble and expense to give our pupils some amount of manual training in wood and metal And while this training is no doubt valuable, our success is perhaps limited from the more directly practical point of view. Employers complain of bad habits acquired in our school workshops as often as they give us a word of encouragement or approval. We can seldom come near enough realizing the conditions of the real workshops to make the training tell to the best advantage in actual work. In drawing the conditions are more favourable, and there is no insuperable difficulty in following in the school-room, so far as we go, the best practice of the draughting office. For this reason I venture to think that time and labour devoted to drawing, would give correspondingly better results. not do to have it counted, as in some provinces, but a fraction of a subject, a mere morsel to satisfy the robust appetite of the examination ogre. It must take its place along with the three R's of happy memory, and not the least of them.

If we admit that a knowledge of mechanical drawing is valuable in all walks of life, that it is of paramont importance in the mechanical pursuits which the bulk of our people must follow, we must surely feel dissatisfied with the important place which is now given to it. It may be said that it is no part of the function of the public school system to teach its pupils how to earn a living. But a wider intelligence among our workmen is surely most desirable at the present time, when the industrial struggle between nation and nation is growing constantly keener; when the rapid introduction of new machinery and new processes make the operative of to-day realize that to-morrow, his occupation may be gone unless he has sufficient resources to adapt himself to the changed conditions. We were warned a few hours ago, in eloquent language, by one of the most accomplished of our statesmen, to make less in our schools of things practical and material. But we may question whether the environment of the man, who for lack of practic best suite cultivate to doubt excelled among the

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of practical knowledge, fights a losing struggle for existence, is best suited for minding things spiritual. We were counselled to cultivate purity, truth, and charity. We still, I trust, have room to doubt whether the race to which we belong, and which has excelled all others in its triumphs over time and space, is least among the nations in the practice of those virtues.

THE ANCIENT CLASSICS AND THE MODERN CLASSICS IN OUR SCHOOLS.

By Rev A. H. REYNAR, M. A., LL. D., VICTORIA UNIVERSITY.

When I was first asked to address you, the title proposed for my subject was, "English Classics as a Substitute for Ancient Classics in our Schools." To this I objected, because it suggested, though it might not express, hostility to the ancient classics. It might be taken to mean the banishment of the ancient classics from our schools and the introduction of modern classics in their place. Your Secretary was good enough to tell me that I might modify the title to suit myself. What was wanted was an address in which the claims of the modern classics to a place in our schools would be presented in comparison with the claims of the ancient classics. I was so well satisfied with this that I gave no further thought to the title fill the programme of the Convention appeared, and then I found to my regret that I had left the title as at first proposed.

The real subject of this paper is a comparison of the place and use of the ancient classics, with the place and use of the modern classics in our schools. My task is not that of an antagonist but that of a friend and mediator. It shall be my endeavor to show that there is a place in our schools for the ancient classics, a place that they hold of right and that cannot be taken away by the modern classics, and that there is also a place for the modern classics, a place that they hold of right and that can not be taken by the ancient classics.

In dealing with this subject, which involves more than my own special department, I must ask the forbearance of my confreres of the ancient classics. I may say some things that will be mere

commonplace to them, and I may say other things that will show, what is indeed the fact, that my knowledge of the ancient classics is much less than my respect for them. Let me also forewarn you of another thing. In looking for a right adjustment, it will be necessary to consider many relations. We have to look not only at the things to be adjusted, but at the things to which they are to be adjusted, and it may not be till toward the close of our study that the relation of some of the parts will be seen.

The arrangement of studies, or the place and use of any particular study, has for its background the great general aim and purpose of education. The end remains unchanged from generation to generation, but the adaptation of means to the end changes with every change of circumstance and resource. The great end and aim, as I venture to define it, is, to bring out the possibilities of the child so as to enable him to make the best of himself and to

do his best in his environment, physical and moral.

The savage is careful to educate his child so as to give him a robust body, and to make him skilful in the use of the weapons of war and of the chase. The physical and economic basis of life is fundamental and permanent. It has always required and it will always require a first place in education. If a man is to live well, he must first learn to live. We must not carry our heads so high in the matter of education as to forget where our feet are. Now our feet are upon the earth, and, with all our lofty aspirations, we can never afford to neglect the physical basis on which we rest to-day as surely as in primeval times. I am glad therefore to see that in these last days we are returning wisely to first principles and making provision in our schools for instruction in industrial and domestic work.

But even the savage knows that there is a moral as well as a physical basis to human life, and he educates his child accordingly. He trains him to be a good son, a good neighbor, a good subject and citizen as well as a good hunter and fighter. The sense of duty and reverence, first stimulated and nourished in the family life, soon takes higher and wider range. Behind and above the forces of nature and of life, and in those very forces, men recognize a will and law to which they feel constrained to render a duty and reverence transcending all other reverence and duty. Hence comes the recognition and worship of the "infinite

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and eternal energy from which all things proceed". A main end of education from the earliest times has been the training of the young to a right observance of their duties to their fellowmen and to the Power above by whatever name he has been named.

I know there are many views on moral and religious questions amongst us now, but I think we all are of one mind as to the necessity of a moral element in education. The ideal we would set before our young people is not that of a strong man only, but that of a man strong, and at the same time good and true. Whatever may be our varying theories of morals, and whatever our dogmatic formularies, we want our young men to be so educated that in the supreme moments of life and of death, they will act like the men of the *Birkenhead*, not like the men of the *Bourgoyne*.

Associated with the sense of the good, but differentiating itself at an early stage, and taking on an independent growth, is the sense of the beautiful. Hence music, poetry, painting, statuary, and all the fine arts. As you all know, the culture of the beautiful has from time immemorial been an element in the education of the young. It is so still, and this brings us in sight of our particular study to-day, for herein lies much of the significance of the ancient classics and of the modern classics also.

But let us pass on for a moment to note the third great sense or appetency to be considered in education, the sense of the true, the desire of knowledge. This is not absent in the culture of the good and of the beautiful, far from it, but there it is a subordinate, a servant, and sometimes the service has been hard and cruel. Sooner or later, however, the sense of the true reaches its majority. It is no longer a child, much less a servant, in the economy of the human mind. It has rights as well as duties, and its voice must be heard in the great discussions. Fully developed, the outcome is philosophy and science. But, to impart some knowledge of the truths that have been gained, and to stimulate and direct the mind to the further pursuit and discovery of truth, is another prime object in education.

After physical culture and a training in the arts necessary to maintain our physical existence, come the task of education, as commonly understood, and this task seems to be comprised in the

culture of the good, and of the beautiful, and of the true. 'It is not a mere coincidence therefore but a necessary consequence of what we have been considering, that the course of education through the ages has been along the line I have indicated. In the first ages, the teaching of the good was chiefly emphasized; in the following ages a greater stress was laid upon the teaching of the beautiful, and in these last ages the teaching of the true receives the foremost place. I do not say that the primitive teaching, the teaching of the East, from China to the Holy Land, knows nothing of art and philosophy, but its great matter was the good, not the beautiful or the true. The Greeks too were not indifferent to the good and the true, but their pecuiar pursuit and achievement were in the realm of the beautiful. And of the age in which we live, the great characteristic is that, whilst we revere the good and admire the beautiful, we seek, and we will have, if possible, the truth, the whole truth and nothing but the truth.

Against this background, in which I have outlined the subjects and aims of education and its evolution, I would sketch the noble service done to all Christendom by the languages and literatures of ancient Greece and Rome. Much has been said on this subject but much remains to be said, or to be said over again, in order to remove a prevailing ignorance and ingratitude as to the debt of our modern civilization to the ancient classics. I have actually heard it said, and that too by persons who could read and write, that the use of the Latin language in the old time was due to a desire on the part of a jealous priesthood to keep the common people in ignorance and subjection. I can well imagine the indignation with which such things are heard, and the scorn that would sometimes prevent a reply. For it is hard to think that ignorance alone and without the spur of malice, could so misunderstand and misrepresent. It is better, however, and more charitable to suppose that the profundity of some men's ignorance will allow them to speak thus without malice aforethought.

We of this age glory in the printing press as the great helper of learning and of the truth, but the men of a former age had like cause to glory in the Latin language and literature. The Latin was not a secret hiding-place to conceal the riches of wisdom and knowledge from the people, but a treasure-house in which the learning of the old civilization of the great Roman Empire was

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Further, the Latin made a free course for learning from one end of Christendom to the other, at a time when there was no other open way. The modern languages, as we know them now, did not then exist, but in their place was a great variety of dialects, no one of which was widely spread. That was the time of need when the Latin conferred a great boon on the scholars of all Europe. A student from England or Scotland would find himself at home in the Universities of Paris or Bologna, or Prague, or Seville, more readily than do the students of our own day. This great benefit of the Latin language has only recently been lost. At the time of the French Revolution it still existed and for some time later. The following story, repeated by Dean Stanley, will illustrate this use of Latin and at the same time relieve the dryness of the subject: "Diderot, the great French Encyclopedist and atheist visited the famous Russian patriarch, Nikon of Moscow. Diderot could not speak Russian and I suppose the patriarch could not speak French, but they could both, as educated men, speak Latin. Accordingly Diderot began the conversation or disputation, as he would have it, by saying, 'Non est Deus,' but, thanks to his Latin, the patriarch was able to reply, 'Dixit stultus in corde suo non est Deus.'"

In the third place, the young vernaculars of Europe were as yet but rude tongues, quite unfit as instruments of thought, for scholastic use, and quite inadequate as receptacles of scholastic thought. They could not contain the abstractions and generalizations of learning, even as the rude cabins of the people could not hold the furniture and ornaments of palaces and cathedrals.

Another great advantage of the Latin, and the last I shall mention, was that it contained a literature, the richest for its substance and the most excellent for its literary form. Nowhere else could our forefathers find available such wealth of thought and such beauty and perfection of form to stimulate their own ideals.

These great services of the Latin language and literature are cause of abiding gratitude to all Christendom. We even feel a pardonable regret at the losses incurred in the change from the

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reat helper ge had like The Latin wisdom and which the Empire was old order to the new. We would secure the good things of the new and yet keep the good things of the old,-but that cannot be. When the log cabins of our early settlers pass away, there pass with them things we hanker after still,-the cheery glow of the burning logs in the big open fire place, the salmon and the speckled trout, the wild duck, the partridge, and the venison, the sweet wild flowers, and the tasty wild fruits. Yes, and sometimes more than for all the rest, we long for a return to the simple, hearty, social life and hospitality of the good old times. But we can not as a people go back to those things or bring them back to us, without risk of losing the good things of the new and yet not recovering the good things of the old. This, however, is what we would be attempting in our schools if we would ignore the changes that time has brought in our intellectual environment and resources, and persist in giving to the ancient, classics the place they very properly held in the times of our great grandfathers.

Look at those changes once again. The time was when the Latin language was practically the key to all the learning of the world. Now the learning contained in the Latin is for the most part out of date. The very history of ancient Greece and Rome can be better studied with the help of Grote and Gibbon, of Merivale and Arnold, without the classic authors, than by the help of the classic authors without the help of the moderns. The same may be said of law and medicine and philosophy. Many, though of course not all, would say the same of theology, and as for science, a man who would look for it in the ancient classics would be thought more lunatic than classic in his turn of mind.

At one time the Latin was the language of the republic of letters. All educated men spoke and wrote Latin as well as read it. The lectures in the universities were in Latin. All new and valuable books were published in Latin and in Latin only. Now Latin has practically disappeared as a spoken language amongst the learned themselves, and it is rarely used in writing.

In the third place, Latin was at one time incomparably superior to all modern languages as an instrument of thought, and as a receptacle or product of thought. Now the modern languages have been so enriched and cultivated that they have a scope and force and precision fully equal to the demands of the most advanced thought of the world.

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igs of the In the last place, Latin and Greek at one time alone contained masterpieces of literary form. This is no longer the case. modern languages, and especially our English in poetry and the French in prose, have masterpieces to give study for a life-time. No doubt the genius of our modern classics differs in some respects from that of the ancient classics, but it is not therefore inferior. Nay-for some reasons the study of the masterpieces of our own age and race is most profitable to us, inasmuch as they may teach us better how to use our own powers than can the masterpieces cf a genius more or less alien to us.

But there are changes of another kind, changes in the schools themselves, that must be considered before we can make the right adjustment of studies. In the old time the schools were mainly for the classes, now they are for the masses. Of old, education was to a great extent a luxury and ornament of life, now it is a necessity to the millions of bread-winners. Our modern ideal requires a common school education for every child, and a high school within easy reach of all aspiring students.

There is another particular in which our schools are the same as the old schools, but with a difference. In the old time the schools were for the ruling classes, and so they are to-day. The important difference is that the rule of our day rests on the ballots of the many, whilst the old rule rested on the rank and privilege of the few.

The last difference that I note between the old educational order and the new, is to be found in the range of study. In the old schools attention was directed almost exclusively to the ancient classics and to mathematics, whereas in our modern schools we have a great variety, and many of us think too great a variety of studies. But the narrow range of the old course was not a matter of choice on the part of the teachers-it was forced upon them by the poverty of their resources. Modern literature was then in its first beginnings, history worthy of the name did not exist, and the modern sciences were not yet born. No wonder, therefore, that Latin and Greek and mathematics filled the old schools and even the colleges. There was no other intellectual food and discipline for the scholars of the time. And yet, so excellent were the two noble studies at their command, that the simple, wholesome, intellectual fare and exercise of those old schools, was, on the

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whole, better than can be had in some of our modern schools where the little ones are crammed with all the ologies. A natural conservatism in educational affairs may have kept some old things when their usefulness had passed, but, on the whole, the people of the former age did the best that could be done under the conditions in which they found themselves. Later times have brought us privileges and duties that they never knew. If they travelled by stage coach and sailing ships, it was because there were no railroads and steamships in those days.

I have asked you to consider briefly the great end of education, the natural development and history of education; the help given by the ancient classics, especially by the Latin, in the education of Christendom; the greatly increased demands of modern popular education, and finally, the greatly increased resources of modern education. In view of, all these things, I venture to state what I take to be the right relation of the ancient classics to the modern classics in our schools.

In the first place, the ancient classic tongues still give the best training ground for the study of the principles of grammar. No worthy substitute has been found or is likely to be found to meet this demand in our schools. In the second place the study of the classics should be retained because of the enlarged knowledge of our own tongue secured, and I believe best secured, in this way. This reason is still stronger for those who would add some knowledge of the French to that of their English mother-tongue. In the third place, the study of the classic languages, or of one of them, is entitled to an important place because of the discipline it gives to the memory, and to certain powers of reasoning more helpful in real life than the strict, deductive reasoning of mathe-These reasons apply to all students advanced in our high schools. There is a fourth reason that applies to those who proceed to the Arts course in our universities. The school work in the classic languages is the necessary foundation for the university work in classic literature. For these reasons the ancient classics are entitled to a prominent place in our schools, and no modern classics could fully make up for their absence.

When we come, however, to a comparison of the ancient with the modern classics from the point of view of literary culture,

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there seems to be but little room for comparison. The literary advantages of Latin and Greek to school boys and school girls is comparatively nil, whilst the cultivation of the imagination and taste and of the noblest sentiments and sympathies is almost wholly through the masterpieces of our own literature. reason of this is not far to seek. A perception of excellence in the use of language can not be had without a good knowledge of the language itself. But it is impossible to gain such a knowledge of the ancient languages in our schools. In the schools of a former age it was possible to a few choice spirits. A boy with a natural appetitite for language might after years of exclusive attention to Latin and Greek become so familiar with those languages as to acquire a critical taste in them and appreciate their beauties. This was actually done by Melancthon, and Montaigne, by Coleridge, and DeQuincey and others. But the average boys of their times could not acquire such knowledge and taste, and it is doubtful if Montaigne and DeQuincey could gain a critical knowledge of Latin and Greek under the conditions imposed on our schools by the imperative demands of this age.

Lord Macaulay, one of the best classical scholars of modern times, used to say that we should give either three years or thirty years to the study of the ancient classics. The reason is that a study of three years will give a considerable linguistic advantage, but it takes many years to secure the literary advantage of the study. As Sidgwick put it in the Essays on a Liberal Education: "In many cases a boy (and even an undergraduate) never becomes able to extract and feed on the beauties of his authors. A mind exhausted with linguistic struggles is not in a state to receive delicate literary impressions; instead of being penetrated with the subtle and simple graces of form, it is filled to the brim with thoughts of gender, quantity, tertiary predicates, uses of the subjunctive mood."

It is worse than useless, therefore, it is mischievous and stultifying to impose barren labours on young minds in the vain hope of making classical scholars of them under conditions that make such a result impossible. Whereunto shall I liken it? There is a country rich and beautiful, a country of hills and valleys, lakes and rivers, forests and pastures, cornfields and vineyards. To the east of this country is a range of mountains.

A day's journey brings one to the heights from which may be seen the beauty and richness of the landscape. A three days' journey, however, brings one to the summit of the two highest peaks from which the view is broadest and grandest. So it is generally believed, because it is so declared by trustworthy persons who have made the ascent. The people are so much impressed by the glowing descriptions of the view from the great mountains that when they have a day to spare they spend it in climbing towards the highest peaks aforesaid. Of course they never reach the summit for they have only one day to spare and the journey demands three days: And so it comes to pass that they never see the widest prospect, for the right point of view is always beyond them, and they see but little of the fair land in which they live for their faces are turned away from it. Such or worse is the folly of those who would compel our children to spend their school years in toiling towards a height that cannot possibly be reached in the school, and that perhaps not one in ten can reach in a general college course. But the school time is the only time the vast majority of our people can give to study and instruction.

This is the conclusion to which I have come after careful inquiry and long observation, and I am encouraged to state it frankly because I find that better judges have come to the same conclusion. In the article already quoted our English university authority says: "I wish that statistics could be obtained of the amount of Latin and Greek read in any year (except for professional purposes) even by those who have gone through a complete classical curriculum. From information that I have been able privately to obtain, I incline to think that such statistics, when compared with the fervent admiration with which we all speak of the classics upon every opportunity, would be found rather startling." He further declares: "I feel sure that if the schoolmaster is ever to be, as I think he ought to be, a missionary of culture, if he is to develop to any extent, the æsthetic faculties of other boys than those who have been brought up in literary homes, and have acquired, before they came into his hands, a taste for English classics, he must make the study of modern literature a substantive and important part of his teaching."

Hitherto we have been considering studies from the point of view of their efficacy as means of intellectual and æsthetic culture.

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We should not forget to take into account the value of literature as a means of ethical culture. Great and apparently insuperable difficulties stand in the way of religious instruction from the teachers in our schools. In the first place instruction in dogma is not satisfactory to those who are not of the same creed as the But in our country it is seldom found that the teachers and the scholars are all of the same creed. Again it is sufficiently difficult at present to find good teachers in the ordinary or secular branches of instruction; but if the higher spiritual qualifications of good religious teachers should also be required, the difficulty of finding teachers would be vastly increased. A perfunctory and unsympathetic teaching of religious things may be had, but that is not what is wanted. Such teaching is feared by many thoughtful persons as much as the total absence of religious teaching from the school. Hence it comes that our parents generally prefer to leave the teaching of religion to the home and to the duly qualified and appointed teachers of the church and of the Sunday school. Under these circumstances we find in our English literature an invaluable means of moral culture. The genius of the Anglo-Saxon is second only to that of the Hebrew in moral earnestness and elevation, and in some respects it is not second even to the Hebrew genius. For whilst the Hebrew mind is ever concerned with the relations of our human spirits to the great Maker and Ruler of the universe, it is still marked by a narrowness of human sympathy such as characterizes all ethnic religions. The Hebrew literature is best to teach us the first or great commandment, "Thou shalt love the Lord thy God," but there is a second command which is like unto the first, "Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself," and nowhere is this better taught than in the best writings of the Anglo-Saxon race. What better reading, therefore, for the culture of the hearts as well as of the minds of our young people than a wise selection from the masterpieces of our English literature from our sage and serious Spenser to the latter day prophets, Carlyle and Tennyson and Browning! In fine, if æsthetic culture and moral culture are to be cared for in our schools, if the imaginations of our young people are to be quickened and chastened and their nobler feelings fostered, at the very time when ideals are most potent and the sentiments are most responsive, it must be chiefly by the study of our modern classics, and there is no other practical way.

Before I close I would make a plea for the study of the ancient classics, especially of the Greek masterpieces, apart from an accurate knowledge of the ancient languages. Do not suppose that I would discourage the ardent students of the ancient classics in the ancient tongues. Such scholars are to be encouraged in their noble enthusiasm and I would that we had more of such scholarship. But where this is not possible, and it is seldom possible, we may yet have a love of the ancient masterpieces and a development of true classic taste. Of our English poets perhaps none came nearer to the classic style than Keats. He could not read Greek, but his sonnet, "On First Looking into Chapman's Homer," is proof that he had a taste for Greek literature, such as many a graduate in classics might envy. Of the great German poets none had the classic taste and the classic style to such a degree as Goethe, but neither was he a Greek scholar. There is a seeming wisdom that scorns the use of translations. wiseacres who will read Homer in the original or not at all, and most of them do not read Homer at all. Some will have the original marble statues or nothing, and, as a rule, they have nothing, and so with those who will not have copies of great pictures but only the work of the old masters. They would also, I suppose, read Job and Isaiah too in the original, it is so much better than the English.

Our English Bible is only a collection of translations of ancient classics, and yet Huxley, who is not altogether a fanatic, declares that it is the noblest of English classics. Certain it is that the virtue has not escaped from them in the translation. For centuries the English speech has been ennobled and enriched, and the spirit of the English people, from court to cottage, has been exalted and purified and filled with moral energy by those writings. I would that, next to the inspired fountains of ethical teaching, we might find in the hands of all who can read in our land, the masterly translations made by English scholars of the best Greek writers. So might we have as a people more sweetness and light, and our spirits be better attuned to the classic simplicity and chasteness and serenity. For there is too often, -may I say it as a friend, and "faithful are the wounds of a friend,"-there is too often a certain harshness about our English godliness that will not let us call it the in lo strift that surprese then be s The exce wish not c He l

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In education we must remember and consider all the requirements of the nature to be educated. We cannot safely neglect some of the essential things so as to attend more carefully to others, and we are bound to use all the resources that we at any time possess. As we accept and use the highest inspirations of goodness that have come to us in all the ages, so should we accept and use the highest inspirations of beauty and of wisdom. We build securely only when we build on the foundations laid down by God and Nature.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION IN SCHOOLS.

By JAMES MILLS, M.A., LL.D.

[President of the Agricultural College, Guelph.]

In response to the utilitarian impulse of recent years, most of our Canadian Universities have done or attempted something in the way of technical education. Dalhousie and New Brunswick Universities, with their science faculties, and Queen's University, with its School of Mining and Agriculture, are looking in that direction. McGill University especially, with the aid of railway magnates and wealthy, public spirited manufacturers, has made splendid provision for instruction in applied science; and the Province of Ontario is maintaining a large and well equipped School of Practical Science in affiliation with the University of Toronto: but these schools and university departments are only for the select few who can afford the time and money necessary for long and difficult courses of study. They do not reach the rank and file of the people.

A number of private institutions give some attention to certain branches of practical work and instruction which may, I presume, be classed under the same head. In the Province of Quebec, half a dozen private or semi-private schools or colleges give instruction in agriculture. A few of the Protestant ladies' colleges or academies throughout the Dominion and a considerable number of conventual schools in Quebec, Nova Scotia, and other provinces teach knitting, sewing, embroidery, mending, cooking, &c., and give occasional lessons in the foundation principles and maxims The Baptist College at Woodstock, of domestic economy. Ontario, in a well equipped department of manual training, gives young men instruction and practice in the use of carpenters' tools, lathe work, and other operations likely to be of use in after life; the Manual Training School of Wolfville, Nova Scotia, furnishes , a valuable course in the simpler operations and processes of ironwork and woodwork; and a long list of commercial schools or colleges teach stenography, typewriting, book-keeping, and whatever else is considered specially helpful in the various branches or departments of mercantile life.

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Our legislatures, recognizing the fact that farming is the most important industry in the Dominion, have established a few schools to give specific instruction, with suitable training, in agriculture or some of its branches. Under this head come the Ontario Agricultural College and Experimental Farm, Guelph, Ontario; the School of Agriculture at Truro, Nova Scotia; the School of Horticulture at Wolfville, Nova Scotia; and six dairy schools-one at Sussex, New Brunswick; one at St. Hyacinthe, Quebec; three in Ontario (at Guelph, Kingston, and Strathroy); and one in Winnipeg, Manitoba. Some of the provinces, by special grants, have also established, or assisted private enterprise in establishing, art schools, hoping thereby to encourage the teaching and study of industrial art and design. Such are the Ontario School of Art in Toronto; the London School of Art and Design in London, Ontario; and the Victoria School of Art and Design in Halifax.

Our public systems of education also have done something in the same direction. Note the science teaching in high schools, collegiate institutes, and academies throughout the Dominion; the teaching of agriculture in the Provincial Normal School and Public Schools of Manitoba; sewing in the Toronto and Ottawa Normal Schools, drawing in the Public Schools of Ontario, and industrial courses in seven or eight art schools at different centres in the same province; sewing and woodwork in the model schools connected with the McGill Normal School, Montreal; educational sloyd at the Boys' High School in the same city; courses in sewing, industrial drawing, and cooking in some of the Montreal public schools; industrial drawing and elementary manual training in some of the Quebec city schools; sewing, knitting, embroidery, and the first principles of agriculture in all the Roman Catholic schools of the Province of Quebec; the manual training department of the Provincial Normal School at Truro, Nova Scotia; a manual training department in woodwork and a school of cookery in connection with the schools in Halifax; special grants to the public schools of Nova Scotia which teach agriculture in addition to the compulsory programme of studies; and last, but not least, the kindergarten work in our principal centres of population.

But taking all this at par and considering what other countries are doing, we must admit that we are only playing at technical

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education. We have done very little; and, viewing the Dominion as a whole, I do not hesitate to say that hitherto our education has been too bookish and not sufficiently practical. On intellectual lines, it is, perhaps, all that we would reasonably expect in a new country; but it has done very little—certainly much less than it should have done—to awaken, direct, and develop the powers of observation in our children and young people. The leaders of educational work among us, influenced by the earlier scholastic ideals of Great Britain, seem to have assumed that the storing of the memory with facts about language and numbers, with more or less development of the reasoning powers, is the chief, if not the sole, duty of teachers in primary and secondary schools. With but few exceptions, our programme of study, examinations, normal school training, and public school inspection, have all proceeded on this assumption.

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Now, we learn largely by observation. It is the chief source of our knowledge and of the pleasures of life; and that the cultivation of the powers of observation has a direct and important bearing on intellectual, aesthetic, and industrial progress, no one That the faculties included under this head are strongest and most active in children from four to ten years of age, is equally manifest; and, all the while, the great majority of Canadian boys and girls are allowed to pass through our public schools without a serious, well considered effort on the part of any one to direct and encourage them in the use of these faculties. They enter school at five and leave at fifteen or sixteen, drilled and catechised year after year in abstract truth and in what others have said and done, but not taught to observe what is in the world around them-books, books, and nothing but books. They are drawn into life's struggle without learning to use their eyes. Hence they travel from place to place without seeing anything. They notice neither earth nor sky. "The heavens declare" not "the glory of God" to them, nor does "the firmament show His handiwork." What a loss of pleasure and of the practical benefits which come from a knowledge of the objects and laws of nature!

And as regards the relation of our systems of education to the principal occupations of the Canadian people, I have felt for some time and venture now to assert that we are proceeding pretty much as if the boys and girls of this country were all, or nearly all, to

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be ladies and gentlemen of leisure, having servants to do their bidding, and not needing much to concern themselves about anything so vulgar as manual labor. Generally speaking, no manual or industrial training of any kind is provided or considered necessary for them. It is an educational heresy even to propose such a thing, except as a sort of experiment which may be tried here and there in a desultory way, just to quiet a few cranks who are always finding fault with the settled order of things. The rank and file of Canadian teachers, scholars, and inspectors must be left undisturbed in the higher altitudes and allowed, as heretofore, to breathe the pure atmosphere of general knowledge and intellectual abstractions. It is right to spend time and public money in teaching a girl arithmetic, grammar, geography, literature, history, algebra, Euclid, etc, -all the time you like on the beauties of poetry, the early Indian and French wars in North America, or the name and location of rivers, lakes, and mountains-but absurd to spend even an hour a week in teaching her needlework or domestic economy. Right to train a boy in everything necessary to make him a public school teacher or to fit him for entering upon the study of law, medicine, or dentistry, but ridiculous to think of showing him how to sharpen and use a handsaw or a plane; or to impress upon him the importance of planting a few trees about the homestead, keeping the right kind of animals in his herds and flocks, and guarding carefully against the spread of noxious weeds on the farm. Nothing so low or material in the schools of Canada with its unsurpassed systems of education.

One result is that very many of our young women enter upon the duties and responsibilities of life, fitted for almost anything rather than general housekeeping, sewing, cooking, and laundry work. They have not learned these things at home, as their mothers learned them, because their time has been taken up with school work; and the school has not deigned even to refer to such material considerations. This is true of thousands upon thousands who must do their own housework from the day of their marriage; and it means a great deal of discomfort and unhappiness to wife, husband, and children—dare I say that it sometimes means the most disgusting filth and untidiness? Another result is that many of our farmers are still careless, shiftless, unprogressive, and unsuccessful, living from hand to mouth, and satisfied to do pretty much as their fathers did.

Further, it is to be observed that we have no system of apprenticeship for mechanics in this country, and nothing approaching to a system of technical education to fit them for the trades in which they engage. Every one is a law unto himself, left to pick up his trade as best he can; and the result is that altogether too large a proportion of our masons, bricklayers, carpenters, painters, plumbers, &c., are inferior workmen, not one out of five being a first-class mechanic to whom one can safely entrust a particular or difficult piece of work.

It is time for a change. I think it was said of Socrates that he brought philosophy down from the clouds. It is time some leader among us would bring our education down into closer touch with the realities and needs of every day life in this young, hardworking country—not less general education, not a narrower or less scholarly culture, but more specialized instruction and training adapted to the wants of the people at large.

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Within the last twenty or twenty-five years, great changes have taken place in the educational methods of Germany, Switzerland, Holland, Belgium, and other continental countries of the old world. They are no longer confining their attention to the old scholastic routine, but are spending large sums of money on technical education, and taking the greatest pains to adapt their systems and methods to the peculiar circumstances and industrial needs of their respective peoples, with a view to assist the individual in his struggle for a living and enable the nation to win or hold its own in the markets of the world. England and the United States are laying the foundation for rapid strides in the same direction; and we must wake up and follow suit if we are to be a people among the nations of the earth.

Having thus briefly expressed my opinion as to the need of a change, I presume it devolves upon me to indicate in some way the change or changes which I would recommend. These are as follows:

1st. The introduction of elementary science teaching into all Public Schools—lessons in chemistry, illustrated by simple experiments, with the use of the cheapest possible apparatus; an outline of geology, with emphasis on soil formation and the geology of the province, illustrated by walks through the fields with ham-

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hing into all simple expetus; an outthe geology ds with hammer in hand; popular lectures on botany, with special attention to the collection and mounting of noxious weeds, and the drawing of the different parts of plants—the leaf, flower, &c.; and simple talks on entomology, dwelling specially on those insects which are most troublesome to farmers and fruit growers, and illustrating lectures by collections made by the pupils. The chemistry and portions of the geology could be taken in the winter months; the botany, entomology, and practical part of geology, in autumn, spring, and summer. I think that work of this kind, in the hands of a competent teacher, could be made very interesting to children; and there is no doubt that it would be a great benefit to them in after life. The study of nature at first hand is one of the things wanted in our Public Schools.

and. Special grants to those rural schools which teach agriculture, and to all schools that teach needlework and domestic economy—grants sufficiently large to be a real encouragement to trustees and teachers. I would make agriculture compulsory in rural schools, if they were all in charge of male teachers; and needlework and domestic economy compulsory in all Public Schools, if there was a lady teacher in each. But as we have, and are likely to have, male teachers in some schools and female teachers in others, it appears that our efforts under this head must be confined to prescribing clear and specific courses of instruction, as in the Scotch schools, offering liberal grants, and insisting on careful and thorough inspection of the work done.

Practical talks by a competent teacher on the cultivation of the soil, the eradication of weeds, the planting of trees, the distinctive points and peculiarities of profitable as compared with unprofitable stock on the farm, and the care, feeding, and management of animals for the production of flesh, milk, &c., would undoubtedly be a great help and inspiration to an intelligent boy commencing life on the farm; and no one will question the statement that our girls would be greatly benefited by instruction and practice in knitting, sewing, darning, mending, &c.; with repeated talks by a qualified teacher on heating and ventilation of houses, food for rich and poor, cooking, setting a table, washing, care of beds and bedding, &c., dwelling often and strongly on the necessity of cleanliness and tidiness, especially in houses which have but little in the way of carpets, furniture, and pictures to conceal their bare and uninviting appearance.

3rd. A technical or semi-technical High School in each county, equipped with teachers and appliances to give thorough courses of instruction, with the necessary practice, in English, mathematics, physics (including mechanics), the natural sciences, drawing, agriculture, carpentry, political economy, domestic science and art, including needlework, &c., with the addition of history, Latin, French, and German for those who intend to be teachers,—allowing considerable latitude in the way of options, in order that the needs of different localities and of pupils engaged in or aiming at different vocations, may be met as far as possible.

There is no doubt that at the present time we have in nearly every county more High Schools or Academies than are necessary to prepare students for the universities and the professions, including high school teaching and the clerical profession, if we may speak of it as a profession. For every other purpose, a semitechnical school, such as I speak of, would answer very much Those aiming at a university course or university matriculation, with a view to law, medicine, dentistry, &c., or a life of leisure, could go from the public school to the ordinary professional high school; while those intending to be teachers and all who think of engaging in agriculture or any of the mechanical industries of the country, should go to one of the Technical High Schools,—candidates for public school certificates proceding therefrom to the Normal School, and those who intend to be public school inspectors or high school teachers, going from the Technical High School to the Professional High School, to do additional work for first-class certificates, or with a view to a university degree, and a course in a normal college or school of pedagogy for high school certificates.

4th. A trade school in each of the principal cities, giving the best possible instruction and practical training in mechanical drawing, machine and building construction, architectural design and decoration, freehand drawing and industrial design, clay-modeling, physics, mechanics, and the natural sciences in their application to the industries of the country, with mathematics where necessary,—all in the evening from 7.45 or 8 to 10 o'clock; such a school as the Toronto Technical School, with the addition of trade practice under the best obtainable instructors, and the

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proviso that none but apprentices and bona fide workmen in the trades be admitted to the practical work.

5th. Raising the age limit, increasing the educational qualifications, and extending the time of normal training for public school teachers all over the Dominion.

There are more teachers than are needed in almost every province, and too many schools in the hands of inexperienced boys and girls of very meagre education. Why, then, should not the age limit be made twenty-one, the standard of qualification be considerably raised, and the time of normal training be extended to two years? Let the standard be raised, and it will have a threefold effect: it will improve the public schools; it will increase the remuneration of public school teachers; it will cause people to respect this very worthy and all-important class of teachers much more highly than at present. The granting of third class certificates should be discontinued, and to the present programme of work for second class certificates, considerable additions should be made, say agriculture for men, domestic science and art for women, and for both, a liberal course in physics and the natural sciences-chemistry, geology, botany, and entomology-and one foreign language, either Latin, French, or German. some such addition is made, it is useless to think of introducing domestic economy and elementary science teaching into the public schools of the Dominion. The whole problem rests right here. The teacher makes the school; and the teacher must be lifted to a higher level or the schools left where they are, and all hope of proceeding in the direction of systematic technical education in our schools abandoned. Hence, I think a vigorous effort should be made to improve the normal schools. The best men that the country can produce or find, should be placed in these schools; and I am inclined to the belief that they should do something more than lecture on psychology and methods of teaching. best way to show the value of lectures on method is not by sample demonstrations, but by the continuous systematic treatment of a subject. They should, I think, not only explain and demonstrate the best methods of instruction, but review and supplement portions of the work done in the high schools; and the same statement may be made with equal emphasis regarding the work in normal colleges. As things now go in some of these schools and colleges,

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giving the mechanical iral design ign, clayes in their athematics to o'clock; the addition s, and the so much time is spent on the technique of teaching that it not unfrequently results in something like an idolatry of method, which shows itself in various devices and fads that tend to exclude original thought, and interfere with healthy common sense development.

In a word, then, I would say:—Let us, as a beginning, change one of the ordinary high schools in each county of the more populous provinces into a technical high school similar to that herein described, and establish, say, three or more such schools at convenient centres in each of the other provinces.

Let us have broader and longer courses of training in our normal schools.

Let us require all candidates for teachers' certificates, of every class and rank, to take a full and thorough course of instruction and training in a technical high school.

Let us raise, to a considerable extent, the standard of qualification for public school teachers; require all candidates for public school certificates to spend two years, or at least two full sessions, at a normal school; and not allow any one to teach under twentyone years of age.

Then let us introduce elementary science teaching into all the public schools; establish trade schools in the chief centres of population; and do what we can to encourage the teaching of agriculture and domestic economy by special grants and otherwise.

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QUELQUES REFLEXIONS RELATIVES A L'ENSEIGNEMENT PRIMAIRE.

RESUME D'UNE CONFERENCE PAR M. O. CASSEGRAIN,
De l'Ecole Normale Jacques-Cartier, Montreal.

Au commencement de sa conférence, M. Cassegrain s'est exprimé ainsi :

"Permettez-moi, avant d'entamer mon sujet, de remercier bien sincèrement ceux qui m'ont prié de prendre la parole devant un auditoire aussi distingué. Cest un honneur auquel j'étais loin de m'attendre, et qui serait bien propre à me causer quelque embarras, si je ne parlais à des personnes qui suivent la même carrière que moi. Mais, dans de semblables circonstances, je sens que je suis au milieu d'amis, et que je puis compter d'avance sur votre sympathie."

Puis il est entré dans son sujet :

"La question de l'éducation est une de celles qui ont le singulier privilège d'être toujours actuelles; c'est un hamp dont les limites semblent reculer à mesure qu'on l'explore davantage. Aussi, voyons-nous, en parcourant l'histoire, que les hommes sérieux de tous les pays et de tous les temps s'en sont occupés. Vous trouverez donc tout naturel que devant une association du genre de celle-ci, je vous parle d'enseignment. N'allez pas croire, cependant, que je veuille vous faire subir un cours régulier de pédagogie. Non, mes intentions sont beaucoup plus modestes: je ne vous ferai part que de quelques réflexions relatives à l'enseignement primaire, car je suis convaincu que, dans une occasion comme celle qui nous réunit en ce moment, les études les plus courtes sont, sinon les mieux faites, du moins les plus gouteés.

"Importance de l'enseignement primaire — nécessité de s'y préparer.—L'enseignement primaire, comme chacun le sait, est à la base de tout système d'éducation, et par cela même son importance est capitale. Si cet enseignement s'appuie sur un principe faux, ou s'il renferme quelque defectuosité, les suites en sont plus ou moins désastreuses; car si l'esprit de l'enfant est mal dirigé dès le commencement, il devient extrêmement difficile de rectifier

son jugement et de lui faire prendre une direction rationnelle. Au contraire, si cet enseignement repose sur un fondement solide, si celui qui le donne possède une connaissance suffisante de la pédagogie, alors les premières notions que l'enfant acquiert sont adaptées à son degré d'intelligence, il y a harmonie entre l'instruction qu'il reçoit et l'état de ses facultés. De là, la necessité pour l'instituteur d'être bien renseigné sur les méthodes d'enseignement, et de connaître la marche de la nature dans le développment organique de l'enfant.

"Qu'on me permette de citer ici mon expérience personnelle. Je suis professeur dans une école normale, et, de plus, c'est moi que l'on a chargé de faire subir l'examen d'admission à ceux qui désirent suivre les cours de l'institution. Eh bien, j'ai toujours constaté que ceux des candidats dont l'examen est faible—par suite de l'absence de méthode dans leurs études préalables—éprouvent beaucoup de difficultés à faire leurs classes, en dépit des soins spéciaux qu'ils reçoivent de leurs nouveaux professeurs. La raison de tout cela, c'est que la base fait défaut chez ces jeunes gens. Puis, à moins de grands talents soutenus par un travail persévérant, la plupart d'entre eux finissent par se décourager, ou ne font que des études tronquées, et sont inhabiles à diriger une école.

"Il en est tout autrement des élèves qui ont reçu un enseignement rationnel dès le début : leur jugement est droit, ils procèdent avec méthode et poursuivent leurs études avec succès. De tels sujets deviennent des maîtres précieux, qui font honneur à leur carrière ainsi qu'à la maison qui les a formés.

"De la nécessité de recevoir un entraînement rationnel, complet avant de se livrer à l'enseignement, découle naturellément la nécessité des écoles normales. C'est dans ces institutions que les futurs instituteurs vont puiser le savoir qu'ils doivent posséder; c'est la, surtout, qu'ils s'initient à la science si difficile d'enseigner, que leurs aptitudes sont étudiées et développées avec soin. Car, dans la collation d'un diplôme, les qualités que doit avoir un bon maître sont spécialement prises en considération. C'est avec raison qu'on agit ainsi, puisqu'il ne suffit pas de savoir pour devenir instituteur, il faut avant tout savoir communiquer les connaissances que l'on a acquises. Quoi qu'en disent certaines gens, qui ont même reçu une certaine culture intellectuelle, toute

personne sachant lire et terire n'est pas apte à enseigner : c'est là un préjugé qui, malheureusement, prendra encore du temps à disparaître.

"Cependant, si nous jetons un coup d'œil sur ce que l'on

"Cependant, si nous jetons un coup d'œil sur ce que l'on exige des candidats à d'autres carrières, qu'y voyous-nous?—
Tout le contraire: la médecine et le droit obligent les aspirants à suivre un cours professionnel de plusieurs années; les arts mécaniques mêmes demandent un apprentissage long et laborieux. Seul, l'enseignement ne requerrait aucune préparation? C'est là, dans mon opinion, le renversement de toute logique. Car la sphère d'action du médecin et de l'avocat est, la plupart du temps, limitée à des intérêts d'un ordre matériel, tandis que les fonctions de l'instituteur ont pour objet l'homme tout entier: son intelligence, son coeur et son corps. Aussi, l'influence de l'instituteur, considérée au point de vue social, est bien plus considérable que celle de l'homme de profession.

"Mgr. Dupanloup, disait que personne ne devait embrasser la carrière de l'enseignement sans s'y être sérieusement préparé, et que les ecclésiastiques mêmes chargés d'enseigner dans les petits séminaires n'étaient pas exempts de cette préparation.

"Cette opinion est grave, sérieuse, et mérite d'autant plus d'être méditée qu'elle émane d'une autorité qui ne saurait être contestée.

"Nous devons donc admettre qu'une préparation spéciale, complète, est nécessaire à quiconque desire devenir instituteur, et que cet entraînement, pour être vraiment efficace, dont se faire dans une école normale."

[M. Cassegrain parle ici des efforts que fait M. de La Bruère pour fonder de nouvelles écoles normales de filles dans la province de Québec. Comme membre du corps enseignant, il applaudit vivement à ce projet de l'hon. Surintendant. "C'est une mesure, dit-il, qui, une fois adoptée, fera époque dans les annales pèdagogiques de notre province."]

"Mais, me dira-t-on, il n'y a, selon vous, que ceux qui ont reçu une formation spéciale qui soient aptes à l'enseignement; il y a des instituteurs qui ont très bien réussi dans leurs classes, et qui, cependant, n'avaient point suivi les cours d'une école normale.

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"C'est un fait, et je ne le conteste pas. Il est des personnes si heureusement douées, qu'elles réussissent partout, quelle que soit la carrière qu'elles embrassent, et cela sans s'y être préparées. Mais ces personnes sont d'assez rares exceptions, et ne sauraient être comparées qu'à elles-mêmes. De plus, on pourrait se demander avec raison si, ayant reçu une formation spéciale, elles n'auraient pas encore obtenu de plus grands résultats. Non, ces succès isolés n'infirment en rien la proposition que j'ai émise plus haut: Nécessité de se préparer à l'enseignement: elle subsiste,

au contraire, dans toute son intégrité."

Des Lecons de choses à l'école primaire. Le deuxième point qu'a traité M. Cassegrain est celui des Leçons de choses. Il regarde ce moyen d'enseignement comme l'un des plus efficaces que possède l'instituteur. D'un autre côté, il en fait voir les inconvénients, si le maître qui a recours à ce procédé n'a pas assez de connaissances, s'il manque de tact, ou s'il aime un peu trop à parler. Il veut aussi que les leçons soient préparées avec soin, et qu'elles offrent un certain enchaînement. Il demande que rien ne soit abandonné au hasard, et que l'instituteur se trace un plan qu'il devra suivre scrupuleusement. Dans ces conditions, l'emploi des leçons de choses sera vraiment fructueux : car il contribuera dans une large mesure à développer chez les enfants. l'esprit d'observation et de réflexion, à corriger leur langage et augmenter leur vocabulaire, à fournir au maître l'occasion de faire certaines réflexions qui élevent le coeur des enfants et concourent à leur formation morale.

Des jeux ou de la cour de récréation.—Le troisième et dernier point qu'a développé M: Cassegrain se rapporte aux jeux ou à la cour de récréation. Le conférencier parle de l'influence des jeux sur le moral et le physique des enfants, influence dont un maître sérieux et attentif sait tenir compte et tirer parti. Il fait voir que la cour de récréation est une puissance éducatrice, qu'il s'y exerce sur les enfants une action résiproque qui façonne leur caractère, et dont les suites se font sentir pendant toute leur vie.

"Telles sont, dit M. Cassegrain en terminant, les quelques ideés que j'avais à soumettre à votre considération. Je regrette que le temps ne m'ait pas permis de les développer davantage, et surtout de vous les présenter sous une forme digne de l'institution que je représente, digne de l'attention avec laquelle vous m'avez écouté."

éparées.

DENOMINATIONALISM IN EDUCATION.

REV. D. MACRAE, D. D., QUEBEC.

"J. J. Jacotot used to aver that one may teach what he knows nothing about. Let me shield myself under the wing of the inventor of a universal method of education,"—so universal that it comprehended, thus, both what he did and what he did not understand. And if at the close, you should feel disposed to accuse me of arriving at a 'conclusion in which nothing is concluded,' let me remind you that that is the title of the final chapter in a classic of some repute, the tale of 'Rasselas' by Dr. Johnson, and that even Sir W. Hamilton allowed an important treatise—his edition of Reid's works—to go forth to the world ending with an uncompleted sentence."

Pleading that the subject had been prescribed to him, by way of apology, and that his own aim in life had been to be as undenominational as possible, the speaker proceeded:—

"Denominational, one way or other, we one and all must be. The universal philanthropist, as in Canning's famous satire, will usually be the first and the most vigorous to 'kick the needy knife-grinder.' Good old-fashioned preachers, who invariably, no matter what the text, begin with, 'when man fell,' would readily demonstrate that denominationalism entered upon the arena of humanity as soon as the first of families included two grown-up sons: denominationalism, and a murderous disposition to persecute. What, they would ask, actuated Cain? Why did Jacob justify his name? And they would pursue the theme, under this aspect, from point to point, through history sacred and profane, at each in succession clinching the argument with an ever louder explosive utterance of the word, DenomiLationalism. Need the subject be followed into other departments?"

Here the speaker gave from Funk and Wagnall's their definition of Denomination, "as specifically the process of embodying and fixing concepts and classes in language,"—"a business seemingly harmless enough, and not only harmless but necessary." "Ah, but they proceed," he continued, "to define denominationalism in terms importing into our concepts a variety

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quelques rette que ntage, et astitution s m'avez of other less innocent references. For this, they tell us, is 'a disposition to uphold denominational differences,—adherence to a sect.' Whereupon, if not wary, our skiff shall come into collision with snags of all sorts. Let me steer cautiously."

"Denominationalism, it has been hinted, is inveterate, an inevitable proclivity of our race. It could be avoided only could truth be compressed into parcels duly labelled, their contents accepted by all, and intelligible to all, let me add, as precisely what they professed to be. And truth refuses to be thus handled. All gases, it is averred, have been liquified and even solidified. Shall science succeed in solidifying or liquifying, or otherwise compressing Spirit into unchanging forms? The attempt has been made over and over. The results have not been encouraging or conducive to the peace and welfare of humanity."

"But since, to think at all to any purpose, we must denominate, and since, to do so is, by defining to limit, and since limitation necessitates incompleteness, and since every human being must needs be content to occupy his own little portion of space, however consciously he strives to keep sensible that his modicum thereof is, for him, the centre of an illimitable,—one hardly dares say sphere, for that is to limit,—for these and countless other sinces and whereases, denominational we must be, or merge into the indefiniteness of the universe. Socially and politically in Rome of old, one had to be known as Patrician or Plebeian,—in Florence and elsewhere, later, as Ghibelline or Guelf,—in Britain, as Tory or Whig,—in the States as Republican or Democrat,—in Canada,—but let me tread softly. Not far away may be nests of various kinds of hornets."

"Enough has been said to prove that, in a comprehensive, and, it seems, perfectly just way of speaking, the politicians can throw no stones, that may not be thrown back, at the parsons. How is it with the educationists? Do they pose as philosophers? Who then can enumerate even the leading schools, to say nothing of their ramifications, under which the votaries of philosophy range themselves? Have not the best modes of formulating, and even the very fundamental principles of mathematics furnished, as to Hobbes and J. S. Mill, material for no little amount of furious or caustic wrangling? What branch of science has been completely exempt from the intrusion of what, in the religious realm, the

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scientific denounce as sectarianism? And in the very process of education, is not room found for discussion as to how most effectually to instil knowledge into youthful minds,—whether, predomnantly, by methods analytic or synthetic, or in what proportions of these com- or sup-plementary processes?"

"But enough to sustain the truism, that of denominationalism, in one form or other, ridding ourselves is impossible. While the earth remaineth, this shadow will continue to be cast,—the fact, and more or less, the disposition accompanying the fact. What, then, the question of common sense is, shall we do with it? Wisdom would seem to dictate two efforts. To utilize the inevitable fact, and to restrain the inseparable, not to say, the irrepressible disposition, which, also, thereby, may perchance be utilized."

"As to the first, the utilization, it has been remarked that Truth cannot be packed into labelled parcels, on each of which may also be inscribed the word, Finality. But none the less, the world, or given sections thereof,-churches in one direction, political parties, social castes, philosophic schools, scientific coteries, educational bureaus, literary academies,-humanity in short, according to its lantern-lights, and so far as "dressed in a little brief authority," incessantly aims at finality, and, portions of it, persuades itself of the attainment of finality. Whence creeds, platforms, irrefragable principles, infallible methods, in religion, in politics, in education respectively. Stoics at war with Epicureans,-Thomists with Scotists,-Nominalists with Realists,-the Naturalist with the Idealist,-the Physicist with the Psychologist,-and so on, so on, with, as before, all manner of shadings, blendings, more or less congruous, and interweavings more or less akin to thickets, largely constituted of thorns. Those happening to be in authority at any given period or place, scornfully repudiate the title, Denominational. They are the orthodox, -- "the people, and wisdom will die with them." Whereupon instantly springs up, in one or other direction, man's spirit, spirit of resistance to authority thus asserted; explodes, rather,-the attempt to solidify being unavailing, yea, intensifying the tendency to explode. Imagine this earth with its atmosphere all reduced to solid pellets, or spirit, under any aspect, bound up in unalterable formulæ. And so "lest one good custom should corrupt the world," what authority, in any of its guises, stigma-

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tises as denominationalism bursts into activity. What does it mean? Some aspect of truth that has been overlooked or belittled or falsified—some defect of method in education that has been discovered—some political lack that may be amended. For otherwise,

"I might my theory rehearse
As might a silk-worm self-commune,
And fondly deem its own cocoon
The model of the universe."

My reverence for Comte is not profound, though my respect is considerable. And he surely did somewhat of permanent value in asking his fellows to try to look at things that are, and as they are. My humble conviction is that no denomination in any department of being has ever sprung into existence causelessly, or, therefore, without having some facet of truth to present to the world,—some point, or phrase, or relation that had dropped out of sight, for that had not received due prominence, or that had heretofore escaped notice. If there be "Sermons in stones, and good in everything," some element of instructiveness may surely be gathered from all human conduct,—from even the wildest vagaries of the most fantastic denominationalism."

"Analogies are useful servants, but dangerous dictators of And analogies illustrative of human progress derived from mechanical comparisons are necessarily defective, -fall short of the truth by all the wide or even incongruous expanses separating the organic, and, much more, the spiritual, from the purely physical. But a mechanical illustration may be permitted or tolerated as imperfectly helpful. Progress, then, I humbly conceive, takes place in no fixed rectilineal direction, nor under the impulse of a-priori determinable and definitely prescribed forces. Its movement is zig-zag, or in a variously curving spiral, so that what is really in advance may appear from some points of view to be in the background. And all attempts rigidly to map out its course beforehand, or to keep it within despoticallyindicated limits are sooner or later nullified, or stultified, or perforce modified, as Mediævalism was by the Renaissance. The older universities, many of them, insisted upon conditions of entry into their privileges such as, prominently, the profession of faith in given articles of a religious creed. The day inevitably arises when these are felt to be a strait-jacket, and one or other

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gifted mind rebels, in obedience to the dictates of its apprehensions, against the constraint thus imposed,—the fettering of progress involved in the prescribed conditions. That rebellion is the impelling motive or outcome of Denominationalism. general, thus, it is the mind's manner of protesting that its movement ought to be left absolutely free, unshackled by any pretences to dictate on the part of external authority. Denominationalism in its turn almost invariably, to be sure, assumes more or fewer of the discarded fetters of the orthodoxy of its day, under some guise of changed names,-wears them as helpful trappings or becoming ornaments,-its narrowness ofttimes exceeding the narrowness protested against,—the pride of Diogenes surpassing the sneered-at pride of Plato. Nevertheless, the Cynic had somewhat to teach to the Idealist, as the Stoic to the Epicurean, or the Evolutionist to the Intuitional schools of Ethics. The use of Denominationalism, thus regarded, is, then, to indicate, from time to time, that in the movement of thought, Religious, Political, Educational, Scientific, and so forth, some respect of its truth has been overlooked, some undue restraint has been imposed, some vista into the universe of being has been neglected."

"Not to weary your patience by reiteration of general reflections, let me venture upon one or two practical considerations. What of a Denominational School or College? What purpose, in the interests of humanity, has the obnoxious disposition so designated promoted? Beyond all other motive impulses, then, perhaps, Denominationalism has opened the purse-strings of the wealthy to contribute to those interests. It gives temporary definiteness of aim, wise or otherwise. It stimulates to effort to gain the goal proposed. It lets loose the floodgates of liberality. The rivalry it involves provokes the energies and provides the means for the prosecution, ultimately, of quite other ends, it may be, than those originally contemplated. Slowly, for example, the great English Universities are opening their doors to recognise branches of learning and classes of learners,-learning at which their founders would shudder as sorcery, learners of whom these founders would have made short work with fire and faggot. But, save for the impulse furnished, in the first instance, by Denominationalism, the splendid endowments in question would not have sprung into being. It is a rough illustration of what is continually occurring,

in one form, department, direction, and another. The waters of the ocean of truth, in short, are kept from stagnating by the gales and tempests emanating from this Æolian cave in human being,—those sauntering along the shores of that ocean have their powers of attention quickened in one direction, even if blinded as to others; and if, through that blindness, they pass by many a precious object unregarded, they, also, here and there, pick up

many a prettier pebble or shell than ordinary."

"But what of Denominationalism in the actual pursuit of studies in any given School or Seminary of learning? Here, I conceive, the severest restraint ought to be laid upon the manifestation or recognition of this indispensable but dangerous spirit. At the same time, that occasion for the utmost freedom of discussion ought to exist and be expressly provided for, especially in Universities, seems to have been dimly discerned and even acknowledged in by-gone days. Is not this implied in the fact that successive candidates for the honours of scholarship were, and still are termed wranglers in some institutions? and that another distinguished connection, when the rank of Canonization is proposed, the unseen intended recipient of that Degree is duly provided with a Devil's Advocate?"

"But upon the whole, large regions of human pursuit or investigation have been rescued from the necessity of despotism of the influence of Denominationalism, and can be regarded dis-There is, e. g., no special Presbyterian method of passionately. construing Greek verbs or interpreting Assyrian inscriptions. Our views as to the perseverance of the saints cannot directly affect our solution of a problem in infinite series, nor our beliefs as to "fixed fate, freewill, foreknowledge absolute," aid us in squaring the circle. And so all around the greater number of the subjects included in what is usually known as a course in Arts, and nearly the whole of those embraced by the course in Science. The greater number, I say, of those included in the common Arts' course. For there are exceptions, or branches in following which exception may be taken to the allowance of unrestricted liberty,philosophy, for example, ethics, history, and possibly, literature generally. Large exceptions. Society in many, not to say in most places, has not hitherto reached the stage at which those interested or directly concerned in education, are prepared to tolerate an absolution Practice press. of un problem retain it bees string

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absolute liberty of prophesying, in relation to these departments. Practically, the university of humanity in these directions, is the press. And how soon its influence may compel a reconsideration of university organization,—that question I leave untouched as problematical. Meanwhile, more or less, Denominationalism will retain its grasp upon all the departments mentioned, even as, had it been able, it would have retained science also in its leading-strings."

"How about the common schools? Without intruding into what might lead to a fiery discussion, let me merely state my own humble opinion. It is, that from these, denominationalism, in any of its usual connotations, should be excluded as absolutely as It is not the business of the common school to train up children to be either Liberals or Conservatives in the realms of party politics; Calvinists or Armenians in the sphere of religious belief; but to impart what shall tend to make our youth useful, patriotic and cooperative citizens. At the same time, speaking exclusively for myself, and also, if this can be credited, desiring to be undenominational,—to be understood as meaning to be such in what I am about to say, -I should rejoice did our publicists discern the wisdom of imparting to our children the knowledge of a not unknown tractate called the Shorter Catechism,-not because of the religious-doctrinal view it propounds, though even a Carlyle recognised in its opening words the grandest utterance of human lips, -but because, upon the whole, it affords the best training in Logic in the briefest compass, known to me, in the English language. Similarly, and for reasons other than, though in the nature of the case, not inseparable from, religious considerations, I would desiderate a large measure of reading from that treasury of Hebrew literature known as the Scriptures. For I conceive that our modern civilization rests mainly, though by no means exclusively, and certainly not sufficiently, upon what that literature contains,—that to be ignorant of its contents is to lack the key to the intelligent comprehension of well nigh all of largest worth in the institutions of those lands where freedom has her home,—is to be shut out, so for as the English language is concerned, from access to its purest fountain,-is, in relation to Belles-Lettres, to be excluded from familiarity with a host of its most priceless gems,-is, in relation to history, to be in ignorance

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of much of vital importance, obtainable from no other source,—
is, in relation to thought in general, in its highest aspects, ethical,
and philosophical, to say nothing of the religious, to be debarred
from participating in, from filling our intellects with the treasures
of the ages, the silver, gold, and precious jewels that have
survived, that, because of their worth, have been preserved from
the wreckage of the past."

"And here let me pause, lest you should accuse me, justly

or unjustly, of degenerating into preaching."

"To sum up. Of denominationalism, comprehensively regarded, it is impossible, according to my judgment, to rid ourselves, and therefore, we must agree, I think, that to rid ourselves is undesirable. The stronger a man's nature is, the more firmly he grasps what to him appears to be truth, the more completely will he be under the influence of what may be so designated. that very reason, according to the clearness, and, to himself, the certainty of his convictions, it is open to him, and possible for him to be truly on a footing of vital sympathy with those from whom he differs most widely. From the loose-thinking, from the halfhearted thinking, from the cloudy, indefinite, uneducated thinking, what sympathy can be forthcoming? What would it be worth? Since it is open to a man, precisely in proportion to the clearness of his perception of his own side of the shield, to make allowance for his brother-man who sees only the other, denominationalism can be utilized. It furnishes, it is a name for, one of the strongest human impulses to action. Striking this rock aright with the rod of a Moses, there gush out living streams, and these follow the generations in their pilgrimage, and they drink therefrom, while, in time, the rock is left behind and forgotten."

"As an obnoxious influence or obstructive spirit, denominationalism is being slowly subdued. Large departments of human pursuit are now liberated from its attempts at thraldom,—the three R's, with all that they cover in current speech,—geography, the fine arts generally, &c. The day may come when history shall be as unaffected prejudicially by denominationalism as by the multiplication table,—ethics as grammar,—and even religion,—rather let me say, theology,—for I do not think that religion can be taught in the technical sense of the word,—theology may yet be restored to her ancient place as the queen of the sciences.

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Meanwhile, the world is not in any hurry to part with several of its skilfully laid-out fields of battle. It is some evidence of secured progress that any of these have been redeemed for the ploughshare and pruning-hook. Not again in human history, we may hope, will a Bruno be burned or a Galileo imprisoned. Yet since ugly, obstructive passions can be aroused over some departments, let these be kept out of the common schools, not because peace ought to be purchased at any price, but because "half a loaf is better than no bread." The day may come when, because of their literary merits, historical importance, mentally elevating tendency, and indispensableness to the rightful comprehension of our own institutions, quite apart from their distinctively religious bearings, large portions of the Scriptures shall hold a duly recognised place among the studies of all common schools. Meanwhile, in the absence as yet, of a sufficient amount of enlightened public opinion to command and compel this recognition, more vitality, say I, with all humility, to denominationalism in its currently accepted connotation. More, not less. The more intensely it burns, the more precisely and less vaguely it indicates on all hands its distinctive positions in philosopy, in ethics, in education, in theology, the more swiftly and clearly shall the consistence or inconsistence of this and that position with the welfare and progress of humanity be made apparent. Chaos, darkness, twilight, alias, confusion, denseness, crassness or dulness,-these, in almost equal degree, are the real obstructives. Let in the light of free and even fierce discussion, so long as the combatants "from words do not arrive at blows." The more quickly shall it be discovered that the shield has two sides,-that the chameleon is not always either green or blue, but sometimes even white, on the evidence of the eyes of both of the rival observers."

"Denominationalism will exist, I persuade myself, to the end of time. But we may reap its advantages without being too seriously confronted by its drawbacks. And to this end I know of no means more conducive than gatherings such as the present."

THE DEVELOPMENT OF CHARACTER.

By Professor E. M. Keirstead, D. D.,

[Acadia College, Wolfville, N. S.]

The thoughts presented on this subject will be given as answers, necessarily brief and imperfect, to four questions:

(1.) What is character, and what is its value as seen by the Educationist?

(2.) What is meant by the Development of Character?

(3.) What is the office of the teacher in this development of his pupils?

(4.) What equipment should the teacher seek for this part of his service?

First, then, what is character? Briefly it is in its most general sense, the sum of all the intellectual and moral qualities which make one human being different from another. Emerson, with his deep insight, says character is the moral order seen through the medium of an individual nature. Thus defined the character resulting from his work must be of greatest concern to the educationist. For as character is what a man is himself it will determine very largely what the man will possess, what he will do, what relations he will hold to others, and what he will become. The worker reveals himself by his work. So Tennyson says:

"Flower in the crannied wall
I pluck you out of crannies;—
Hold you here, root and all in my hand,
Little flower—but if I could understand
What you are, root and all, and all in all,
I should know what God and man is."

That is to say, the poet regards every work of God, even the flower, as expressing the divine nature, and the action of man's mind in studying the flower as revealing man to himself. So also Tennyson's great predecessor sings:

"To me the meanest flower that blows can give Thoughts that do often lie too deep for tears."

So also a Hebrew poet declares: "The Lord is righteous in all his ways and holy in all his works." Indeed so closely related are thought and expression, character and action, that one writer says there are only two things in the universe, namely, thought

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and its expression,-God's thought as expressed in the material universe and in man, and man's thought and its expression in his art and civilization. We may at least be sure that the material elements in the midst of which we live are the result of mental work and that they bear the impress of moral character. Some have sought to show that civilization is only man's body extended; that our houses are only the body, the posts being set a little farther out; the engine is only a man's arm made strong and the telegraph is only a man's arm lengthened; the telescope is only man's eye with a full range of vision, and the telephone is only the human voice at its full strength. Whatever we may say of this view, it is clear that civilization is a general embodiment of the intellectual and moral qualities of the age. ages and the nations be judged by character—the sum of being and so also will the well-being of a people be dependent on what they are in the truest sense. Luther is credited with saying: "The prosperity of a country depends, not on the abundance of its revenues, nor on the strength of its fortifications, nor on the beauty of its public buildings; but it consists in the number of its cultivated citizens, in its men of education, enlightenment, and character; here are to be found its true interest, its chief strength, its real power." In a similar manner Phillips Brooks declares: "In our modern thought the nation is the making place of men. Not by the traditions of its history, nor by the splendor of its corporate achievements, nor by the abstract excellencies of its constitution; but by its fitness to make men, to beget and educate human character, to contribute to the complete humanity, the 'perfect man' that is to be,-by this alone each nation must be judged to-day."

It follows from these statements that to discuss character is to discuss man himself in his being, interests, destiny.

Secondly. What is meant by development of character? That there is such growth we need not stop to prove—

"The world advances, and in time outgrows
The laws that in our father's days were best;
And doubtless after us, some purer scheme
Will be shaped out by wiser men than we,
Made wiser by the steady growth of truth."

But this progress of mankind is only the sum of the gain and growth of individuals of the race, and the opening life of the

child suggests this general advancement as the particular suggests the universal. "The development of entire humanity is figured and summarized in the growth of each child." The character is given in germ only and is expanded in the midst of conditions of the most varied kinds. The mind is not merely a sheet of white paper; rather does it bear from the first the image and superscription of the Most High and has therein the promise and potency of endless growth. As the type of life and character to be attained by the child is gradually revealed by the opening of mind in nature, and in the life of men, and by the ever-present informing Spirit of the Universe, the child's mind opens and enlarges to the new outlook and receives new power by obedience to the laws that apply to all mankind, perhaps to all intelligent The development sought is then only the "writing large" of what is already written within the pupil's soul. It should be understood, however, that development is a process and not a coming to finality. There is not a fixed type and standard up to which the mind is to be brought. The object is to establish it in the way of eternal progress giving direction, purpose, and, as far as possible, impulse.

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Thirdly. What is the office of the teacher in the development of character? It must be said that the power of the teacher to influence the pupil is limited in many ways. It is well for you to magnify your office, but you have not all the responsibility of the child's character. The pupil's special endowments, his inherited tendencies, his early training are largely beyond the teacher's control. It is the function of thought to mediate, and so the teacher takes the child's birthright of intelligence, power, ideal, and shows it to his pupil, guiding him into what he is already fitted for. The teacher is to reveal to the pupil's mind things which the child would not otherwise see—the office of the prophet. And this is glory enough for any one.

If Carlyle could say: "Two men I honor and no third,—one the man who wins from the earth the bread for man's body; the other the man who wins from the Word of God the bread for men's souls," surely the teacher may take honor enough to himself, for he draws from the word of God, wherever written, the truth his country's youth so keenly need, and he breathes into his receptive audience the spirit of that word.

Into the Psychological laws involved in giving instruction we will not enter now, but we may take courage as to the strength of the teacher's work, by remembering that all study into the nature of mind reveals the power of one mind over another as exerted through the medium of knowledge.

Fourthly. What special equipment must the teacher have? The first need is that he should have a character of his own; that he should be a personality; that he should have a distinct individuality. Nothing but fire kindles fire. Paul exhorts Timothy in words like these: "Take heed to thyself, and to thy teaching. Continue in these things; for in doing this thou shalt save both thyself and them that hear thee." One philosopher says it matters more with whom you study than what you study. Seely says that Education in England is practically what Oxford and Cambridge choose to make it; that the way the professors work will largely determine the methods of college men; that the success of a schoolmaster depends mainly upon his force of character." And so potent is this element of personality that a great teacher is credited with leaving his impress on centuries; thus Paul is said by some to be the Maker of Western Civilization. As Personality is the deepest reality in the universe, so the personality of the teacher is the greatest force in the school. In making knowledge and virtue so nearly identical, Socrates bears testimony to the power of the teacher, for knowledge is ultimately knowledge of mind. So Christ says: "This is life eternal that they might know thee, the only true God, and Jesus Christ whom thou hast sent." The teacher must, therefore, be always growing himself if he would help his pupils to grow. He must take heed to himself and see that he is ever in the closest relation possible to all the expanding and uplifting forces that can touch human life. Secondly, the teacher needs abundance of knowledge. things qualify all things, and so he needs almost to know everything that he may really teach anything. He will teach the alphabet in a more inspiring way if he knows the history of alphabets, the use of symbolic figures, and has studied the significance of language. Let him learn forever more and more, especially of what relates to the laws or mind, of the unity of all mental operations. To teach arithmetic well is next thing to religious work. To give a child the idea of absolute correctness

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ord,—one ody; the oread for to himtten, the other into is ethical service of the highest order. To impart a sense of responsibility for trinking as well as for action is to give form and strength to character. To show that all action, mental or other, has an ethical bearing is of consequence indeed. A noted Professor of Philosophy said, to me recently that he thought the metaphysicians would soon go out of business, that everything would be ethical. And, other things being equal, he who has most knowledge will have most power to give the sense of the value of knowledge. This idea is sometimes expressed by saying "The knowledge of the priest is the eighth sacrament."

I shall never forget the work of my first Professor of Classics. He was a Cambridge man, and every inch a scholar. We were required to translate our author, to explain all peculiarities of diction, construction and figures, all geographical and historical allusions. The day following the Professor would himself translate the passage into strong idiomatic English that imbued the mind with a taste for good literature. Then, he would read with literary grace and fervor from some metrical translation that gave the spirit as well as the sense of the writer. Thus, the language, the thought, the very genius of the author, and the spirit of the old life, the literature conveyed seemed transmitted to us. Homer was no longer mythical; he was not even dead; he had only joined the choir invisible and sang to us so sweetly that we believed "from harmony, from heavenly harmony this universal frame began." The knowledge of the past our Professor had gained did not come over him as it might pass over to us from a printing press; it came through his personality with the accumulated strength of his abundant knowledge. The word of God had not only come unto him; it had come out from him winged with earnestness and power. It was a genuine transmission of life. Have faith in knowledge.

The third qualification of the teacher is sympathy, not, of course, a weak sentimentalism that paralyzes all severity of requirement, but the love of truth, and the love of truth for human souls that sets the heart on fire when children are before one and truth is in the Teacher's soul. He needs a confidence in the ideal to be reached, in the methods followed and in the responsiveness of the pupil. With his own mind aglow he can teach meekness, gentleness, truthfulness, honesty, justice, kindness, self-control, self-

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restraint, self-reliance, self-direction. These qualities cannot be so effectively taught by mere instruction as by a skilful use of occurrences in the school itself. It is said that the laws by which the physical universe is held together are also the laws by which the minute particles of a drop of water are bound together; in like manner the laws of society and of conduct, which Arnold says is three-fourths of life, will be found in operation in every school. It is in this direction of using concrete examples as a basis for sound inductions that a teacher's strength lies. He thus makes the school teach itself. To thus construct character out of the materials before you requires ability of course. You need almost the ability Gladstone displayed as Chancellor of the Exchequer to manage your finances, and the constructive power displayed by Bismarck in creating the German Empire to succeed; but the same forces that made them strong for their service are ready to clothe you with power for yours. And a genuine sympathy with the work, the purpose and the pupil is a condition of the health of mind that consists in the perception of law and of the dignity of mind that consists in being under law.

Fourthly. The teacher needs to recognize the strength and value of his office as a representative of the parent, of all organized society as expressed in the state, whose servant he is, and of the Spirit of Truth who speaks through him.

The teacher stands to some extent in loco parentis. If Paul could call Timothy his son in the faith, the teachers can surely look upon the pupils who receive the best of his own life as in a sense his own, and he will then have no greater joy than to know that his children walk in the truth. This honor no one can take to himself; he must be called to it by the highest motives. He cannot fill the office worthily merely on the basis of dollars and cents, though I feel the more dollars and cents he gets the more worthily he will fill it.

The teacher must also value his office as a representative of the state,

Whatever his theory of government may be, he will, if he really sees into the purpose of organized society and legislation, give to his school a sense of the value of law that will be a fortress against the anarchist and his teachings. This is always desirable, especially in our day when democracy is in some respects still on

its trial. "Of law," says Hooker, "no less can be said than that her seat is the bosom of God, and her voice the harmony of the world." In giving a perception of law, therefore, especially under our form of government, the teacher serves his country well. He helps to

Fi Save the one true seed of freedom sown
Betwixt a people and their ancient throne,
That sober freedom out of which there springs
Our loyal passion for our temperate Kings;
For, saving that, ye help to save mankind
Till public wrong be crumbled into dust,
And drill the raw world for the march of mind,
Till crowds at length be sane and crowns be just."

There is also a sense in which the teacher is a representative to the school of all truth; he is the prophet of his day; the wisdom of the past and the glimpses of the future must reach the pupils through him. So he must have a reverence for the past, a love for the present, and a hope for the future founded in reason. Truth, as Carlyle would say, must be his divinity, and he must become a good conductor of that divinity.

The teacher needs a profound faith in the recuperative upbuilding forces working with him in his beneficent efforts to awaken enthusiasm so that he shall from the first expect success. The Canadian teacher in these days may well rejoice in his opportunity. The regenerating forces are operating everywhere, and as he blends his efforts with those of his brethren in the various departments of helpful service, he will find a conviction growing that behind all is one informing spirit, a power without us and within us too, that makes for righteousness.

"The eternal step of Progress beats
To that great anthem, calm and slow,
Which God repeats.

Take heart! The master builds again.
A charmed life old Goodness hath;
The tares may perish, but the grain
Is not for death.
God works in all things: all obey
His first propulsion from the night;
Wake thou and watch: the world is gray
With morning light."

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THE PARENT AND THE SCHOOL.

By MISS ELEANOR ROBINSON.

[St. John, N. B.]

Years ago, an enthusiastic and doubtless long-suffering teacher laid down as the first condition of a perfect school, that all parents should be put to death. The frame of mind which drew forth this saying has probably been experienced by all teachers, at one time or another, and we recognize in such an attitude of teacher to parent the limitations of both, and the incompleteness of the ideal of a school which would antagonize the teacher on the one hand, or exclude the parent on the other.

Broadly speaking, this antagonism arises from the parent's refusing to fit into the theory or system of the teacher, for the teacher starts with an ideal child and a theory of education, and the parents with the child as he is and their love for him. It is idle to talk about theories and principles of education, a science still in a chaotic condition, and concerning which a bewildering amount of nonsense is written and talked, but we may at least observe the changes which take place in our schools, and note the tendencies they seem to record.

Compare the school of thirty or forty years ago with one of to-day and note the most important differences. There is the appeal to reason rather than to memory, to sense of right rather than to fear, the change in schoolmaster or mistress, from a hearer of lessons to a teacher, and all of these go to make up the difference well expressed in the report of the ideal of the great headmaster of Rugby:—

"The ideal ever before Dr. Arnold's mind was not that of a school in which it was the business of some to teach and others to learn, and in which the functions of the various members were clearly separated and defined, but an organized community for mutual help in the business both of teaching and learning."

It would be as untrue to say that this ideal is striven after by all teachers of our own day, as it would be to say that it has been striven after by none before our time, but it is our recognized

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standard, as never before, that the school is to be "an organized community for the mutual help in the business both of teaching and learning." The teacher is no longer to be an awful being armed with all authority, with aims, interests and powers quite other from those of ordinary mortals, but a fellow student, wiser and more patient and stronger than the children, helping them to grow wiser and stronger too. Said the mother of a ten-year-old boy to me last year: "I am going home next week for Douglas is so anxious to get back to school. I had to be driven to school when I was a child, and he has to be held to keep him at home. I don't know what the children of to-day are made of, they are so different from the children of my day." "Don't you think the schools are different?" I suggested. "Well, perhaps they are." But we, who have been continuously in school rooms, first as pupils, then as teachers, know that they are different, and that however slowly, and with whatever failures and mistakes and backslidings, we are coming to our work more and more in the spirit of one of the great teachers-" Come, let us live with our children." And what is this but drawing nearer to and including as far as that is possible the standpoint of the parent. You remember what Pestalozzi says :--"The mother is qualified, and qualified by the Creator Himself, to become the principal agent in the development of her child, and what is demanded of her is a thinking love." A thinking love! Does the teacher too often have the thought without the love, and the parent the love without the thought?

Other words of Pestalozzi's we teachers would do well to lay " Maternal love is the first agent in education. It was my first word to the mothers of the country, and to the mother heart which God gave them that they might be towards their own what no creature on earth can be in their stead."

Let us face the fact that any scheme that refuses to recognize this first agent in education, that seeks to ignore or belittle the parents' influence, carries its failure in itself.

We think that the teacher has drawn nearer to the parents' standpoint. Has the parent advanced to meet him?

Our training as teachers is nothing to be very proud of: we are still buying our experience dearly at the expense of the child;

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but what about the training of parents? We are still open to Herbert Spencer's reproach, made years ago:—

"If by some strange chance not a vestige of us descended to the remote future save a pile of our school books or some college examination papers, we may imagine how puzzled an antiquary of the period would be on finding in them no indication that the learners were ever likely to be parents. 'This must have been the curriculum for their celibates,' we may fancy him concluding, 'I perceive here an elaborate preparation for many things . . . but I find no reference whatever to the bringing up of children. They could not have been so absurd as to omit all training for this gravest of responsibilities. Evidently, then, this was the school course of one of their monastic orders.'

Seriously, is it not an astonishing fact, that though on the treatment of offspring depend their lives or deaths, and their moral welfare or ruin, yet not one word of instruction on the treatment of offspring is ever given to those who will hereafter be parents? Is it not monstrous that the fate of a new generation should be left to the chances of unreasoning custom, impulse, fancy, joined with the suggestions of ignorant nurses and the prejudiced counsel of grandmothers?

If a merchant commenced business without any knowledge of arithmetic and bookkeeping, we should exclaim at his folly and look for disastrous consequences. Or if, before studying anatomy, a man set up as a surgical operator, we should wonder at his audacity and pity his patients. But that parents should begin the difficult task of rearing children without ever having given a thought to the principles—physical, moral, or intellectual—which ought to guide them, excites neither suprise at the actors nor pity for the victims." (Education.)

What is the attitude of these untrained parents toward our schools? In a large school for girls in a Canadian city, some years ago, a discovery was made which was very distressing to the teachers. Systematic clearly planned cheating had been carried on, though the honor system had prevailed, as was thought, successfully, for years. Careful investigation was made, the ringleaders expelled, the other culprits severely reprimanded, and the teachers took counsel together and with the parents of the offenders.

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One of the teachers said afterwards, "The worst feature of it all was that with one or two exceptions, the parents did not care," she repeated sorrowfully, "and we were breaking our hearts over it."

Is it too severe to say that these words, "They do not care," would, in too many instances, be the true answer to our question.

It may be said, "Caring is relative. They may not take as deep an interest in our schools as we could wish, but they do care something about them." How much? How much do they know about these schools that they care about. Let us put the average parent through a simple examination. What do you know of the room in which your child spends five or six hours of every school day? Has he plenty of fresh air? Does he sit facing the light? Does he have to work from the blackboard, while in his seat? If so, at what distance? What do you know about his teacher, from the child or from others? Do you know her personally? Does she understand her business? How does she deal with your child? Has she reached what is best in him? Does she trust him? Does he trust her? If not, why not?

You do not know! to all these questions. Why do you not

know? You do not care or you would know.

Every teacher could multiply instances of indifference on the part of parents. Every teacher too, perhaps, could testify gratefully to having received intelligent, kindly sympathy and co-operation from the parents of some pupils, but these exceptions only emphasize the general lack of interest. The general feeling among the parents seems to be that all matters relating to their children's education is the business, solely, of those who are paid to attend to it.

This shifting of parental responsibility to the shoulders of teachers and school trustees is the *other side* of the teacher's condition, quoted above, that all parents should be put to death. It is perhaps, unavoidable, that our school system should, for a time at least, produce some such effect. The whole tendency has been to put the task of teaching more and more into the hands of professionals, and fathers and mothers have felt the gulf between them and the schools grow wider. New methods of instruction prevail, the text books are strange, the aims of the teacher are misunderstood, and it is easier to leave the whole matter in other

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hands than to try to follow it intelligently. Sunday School teachers know to their sorrow how much responsibility is shirked by parents. There is a general outcry over the ignorance of the Bible shown by our boys and girls. Unquestionably, one great cause of it is that parents leave all Bible teaching to the one hour a week of the Sunday School, and so the Bible, instead being a delightful storehouse of stories, the first history and biography, poetry and travel, learned at the mother's knees, becomes merely a sort of encyclopædia of texts.

In the same way, even well read and cultivated people leave the direction of their children's reading to the school. English literature is on the programme, and so the Waverley novels and Shakespeare's plays are no longer a treat, read aloud in the family circle, or pored over on wet holidays, but tasks to be got up with elaborate notes, and crammed for examinations.

Nor are studies the only things in which responsibility is delegated to the teacher.

"I came to see you," said the mother of one of my girls to me, "to ask you not to let my daughter sit beside so and so in school. I'm sure the influence is not good for her?"

"But, my dear madam," said I, aghast, "they are together most of their time out of school." "Oh, I know it," was the answer, "and it worries me dreadfully, but how can I help it? You know I can't refuse her anything."

But if the parent's danger is that of evading responsibility, the teacher is often tempted to assume too much. How easy it is to regard the child solely as a pupil,—not as a member of a family, nor as having any place to fill but just the one in our schoolroom, and on our register. "But," you say, "that is all that the child is to me,—my pupil—that is all of his life that I am concerned with." No—that is not all—not if you want to reach the child's individuality, and come into sympathy with him; not if you want to come to the mother-standpoint.

There is a sermon by a famous preacher on the text, "The length and the breadth and the height of it are equal," and applied to the life of man, which is a good lesson for teachers.

The length of a man's life, the preacher says, is his consistency of aim, steadiness of purpose. The breadth is the extent of his interests and sympathies, and the number of influences that go

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And all of these go to make up the perfect cube.

Now, the teacher may be said to see more clearly the length of the child's life, and the parent its breadth. It is surprising to find how few parents look distinctly into their children's future. A teacher of many years experience told me that it had become her habit to question the parents who came to place their children under her charge. "What are your plans for your daughter?" and that it was the exception to receive an intelligent answer; a blank and rather foolish look generally explained the situation. I want my son to do so and so, or my daughter to do such a thing -and while they are thinking of it, the years slip by, all sorts of influences are at work unreckoned with, and suddenly they awake to realize a grown up son or daughter, perhaps very different from the one they had expected.

But the teacher's work emphasizes the value of each year, and the importance of the changes it brings. She sees and marks each stage of development, notes the working out of cause and effect, knows when and where new conditions have to be met, new opportunities seized, new helps given. Her difficulty is to keep in view the other sides of the child's life, to be mindful of its breadth, to realize that influences outside of the school, interests apart from the lessons are to be taken into account.

Here come in the faults of impatience with what interferes with our plans, jealousy of distractions, and generally a want of

sense of proportion.

A paper without a single tardy mark is a good thing to aim for, and a pleasant thing to see, and it is very provoking to have a boy come in half an hour late, even if you know there is sickness in his home, and he was needed; but do you realize that there may be a discipline in helpfulness and unselfishness that is of far more importance to that boy than to be able to say that he never was late? You will if you are looking at his life from all sides. You must often stand aside and see clearly that your responsibility does not cover all the ground.

Vigorous efforts are being made in some places to bring about a closer understanding and co-operation between parents and teachers. In England there has been established for ten years the Parents' National Educational Union, whose objects are formally : aim natu them ciple room their actio educ and

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ally stated thus:—"To assist all parents to understand the true aim of education—the harmonious development of children's natural faculties, moral, mental, and physical—thereby fitting them for life; to supply parents with a knowledge of the principles and right methods of Education in Nursery and Schoolroom; to encourage co-operation among parents, stimulating their enthusiasm through the sympathy that arises from the united action of numbers; and to secure greater unity and continuity of education by bringing home and school training into connection and harmony."

In 1891 the Union opened at Ambleside, "The House of Education," where women may receive special training for the duties of motherhood and for the professions of governess and nurse. It is to provide for women a special training in the knowledge and the principles which belong to their peculiar work—namely, the bringing up of children.

The Parents' and Teachers' League of New York City was organized in 1886 by Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, for the avowed purpose of bringing about a spirit of co-operation between the private school teachers of the city and the parents of girls attending these schools. The league meets monthly, usually at Barnard College, as the Dean is an enthusiastic member. A committee of management decides upon subjects for lecture and discussion, and sends out notices to members, asking them to advertise the subject and to bring in more teachers and parents. At each meeting some definite subject is treated by one or more speakers, and then there is free discussion. The discussions where parents and teachers compare their difficulties form by the far the most important part of the work.

There is, at least, one other such association in New York, and mothers clubs and societies for the consideration of Educational subjects are to be found in most large cities. It is plain that such co-operative effort must be confined to parents who have some leisure and cultivation. An experiment was tried some years ago in Detroit in connection with the primary and grammar grades of the schools of that city. It was on a very large scale and practically amounted, as far as I cculd judge from the report sent me, to classes for the instruction of parents. The results, I believe, were very gratifying to the originators of the scheme, but

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about ts and years formit was discontinued, owing to misunderstanding and friction between the officers and the school board. It is easy to see how such friction could arise, and it seems hard that teachers should be called upon to instruct parents as well as children.

There may be organized efforts towards co-operation in Canada of which I know nothing, but it seems to me that individual effort on the part of parent and teacher is what is needed. It is encouraging to see how many young mothers are earnestly giving time and thought to reading and study on educational topics, to talks with teachers of experience, and to systematized observation of their children. A good educational magazine or paper will bring to every parent some knowledge of modern educational principles and tendencies, and lead to a better understanding of school methods and aims and be a check on unintelligent and unfriendly criticism. Above all things, every parent should know his or her children's teachers.

A thoughtful and loving mother said once when her son was yet at school, "The most interesting woman in the world to me just now is the one who is bringing up my boy's wife." But who should be of more interest than the man or woman who is helping

to bring up your own child.

And let us, as teachers, try as far as possible to know something of the child's own life, of his inheritance, of his daily surroundings. To the teacher who has thirty or forty children passing into and out of her charge each year, this is a counsel of perfection; but all, at least, try to know some children in their homes as well as at school; entrance into the life of even one child outside the schoolroom will help you.

A danger of detachment from family life, making us less complete human beings threatens the unmarried women, not living in their own homes, who form so large a proportion of our teachers. Let me read a few pertinent words from an English magazine in an article called "Snares for Spinsters," by one of them:—
"First of all, there is the Snare of the Solitary Life. What I mean is that there is danger lest the Spinster's full life and interests should so far remove her from the elementary aspects of humanity, that she loses touch with women in other positions, and forgets how to feel in sympathy with the girl in love, with the wife, with the mother. I believe that nothing impoverishes the Spinster's

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life like this. The old-fashioned suppressed Spinster of our own youth, if there was anything in her, kept up her sympathy with other women. Her life was one of reflected interest, and she took her share in the world, as one may say, by proxy. Now, the modern Spinster has a real share in the world as far as it goes; she has real interests, and her work is too important and too regular to allow her to drop it and fly off to Exeter or Newcastle because her second cousin's little Charlie has the scarlatina and wants her to nurse him.

But, if she so absorbs herself in her own first hand interests as to leave no space for the great elementary interests of humanity, which she can only know at second hand, to enter into her soul, she will not be a true woman, but a hard, business like Spinster. Unless you do keep yourself in touch with the experience of mothers, wives and young girls, by personal sympathy and study, you are no longer a channel for the full beneficent currents of humanity. No philanthropy, no religion even, can make your nature as rich as it is meant to be, unless you open it to the vibrations of the elementary forces of human nature. They may not have been sent to you first hand, as they are to some, but any one can get them at second hand, through sympathy and imagination, if they will only open the door which looks their way."

Wise advice, I think, and needful for us who are so easily absorbed in the schoolroom side of our work. Intimate, sympathetic acquaintance with the ins and outs of home life will help us to patience, to tolerance, to humility, to that larger, freer outlook, which we all need, and give us more assured power, deeper influence.

Finally, let us remember that it is to the sympathy and co-operation of the parents and teachers of to-day that we must look for the training of the parents of the future.

We look forward to the time when Herbert Spencer's reproach shall be no longer just; when, not only with minds trained to know the sacred laws of physical, mental and spiritual life, but with hearts and wills set to obey them, our children shall grow up to that self-reverence, self-knowledge, self-control which lead life to sovereign power.

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THE VALUE OF POETRY FOR CHILDREN.

By S. W. DYDE, M. A., D. Sc.,

[Queen's University, Kingston.]

Poefry, or at least rhymes and jingles, should be the first intellectual nourishment of children, and poetry should be one of the chief intellectual nourishments all through life. The average child delights in nursery rhymes, and to deprive him of this delight would be to do him a life-long injury: when the boy is old enough to appreciate poetry of a higher kind, he should be taught from the works of real poets. While there is in real poetry much that will not be appreciated by the school-boy, there will be also much that he will appreciate, and there is a great deal which he cannot obtain from any other source. I shall try to make clear what I mean by these remarks, and hope to show you by means of illustrations how much there is of great value for children in even simple verse. We may perhaps reach the conviction that for children nothing is so valuable in all that they are taught in school as what they may receive from real poetry.

First of all we must distinguish between real poetry and unreal poetry. Unreal poetry has many forms, but for the benefit, or rather the misery, of children it most frequently tries to teach some duty, or impart some useful information. Here is a so-called poem which aims to teach charity.

Though but a trifle something give,
To help the poor along;
Tis not how much, it is the will
That makes the virtue strong.

You have but little? Never say "Tis of no use to give";
A penny if you give to-day,
May make the dying live.

It is the motive not the gold,
Upon the water cast,
That will return a hundred fold,
To cheer and bless at last.

Then give a trifle cheerfully,
From out thy boundless store,
And it will all return to thee
When thou wilt need it more.

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In these verses it would be hard to tell what a motive is, and how it can be cast on water, and how it can return to bless and cheer us. But the whole verse is a weak paraphrase of the truly great utterance, "Cast thy bread upon the waters, for thou shalt find it after many days." Poetry is not wrong, however, because it contains a moral. On the contrary the greatest poetry must not only help us to do what is right, but give us larger and more vivid ideas of what is right. But great poetry will not take a moral rule by itself, and put it into rhyme. Its moral teaching will be infinitely more profound. The well-known verses, "The Spider and the Fly," may be cited as an illustration of the simple verse, which conveys a moral in a quiet and unobtrusive way.

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Another specimen of the false poetry, which seeks to inculcate a moral, is the verse answering the question, "Who is my neighbour?"

Thy neighbour? Pass no mourner by,
Perhaps thou canst redeem
A breaking heart from misery;
Go share thy lot with him.

When you desire to stir up the child's interest in unselfish behaviour read to him, instead of such a stanza, the parable of the Good Samaritan. That, then, is one kind of untrue poetry, the poetry which takes a moral rule and versifies it. Indeed not even a prose lesson, which sets before itself such a task, can be recommended as truly educational. The daily life of a teacher, as we all know, is a much more powerful stimulus to good behaviour in a pupil than any number of moral rules, In the same way prose or verse, if it is to succeed in rousing the pupil's desire, must set before him some interesting and worthy object, a noble deed or a well-spent life, to which he will be encouraged in his child-like way to aspire.

The foregoing examples of false poetry are taken from a series of readers now no longer in use. But verse of the same type is to be found in Part II. of the First Reader, now in use in Ontario, in the verses called "Do your Best," "Is it You?" and "Suppose." I do not remember ever having seen in any reading book four verses less desirable than the following:

Suppose the world doesn't please you, Nor the way some people do, Do you think the whole creation Will be altered just for you? The whole piece is objectionable on the ground that it imperfectly represents the real trials of children; but the lines I have quoted have the additional defects of failure in rhythm in the first verse, more than questionable English in the second verse, and a sug-

gestion of vulgarity in the third and fourth.

A second kind of uniteal verse is the verse which seeks to impart information. Here, too, a misunderstanding may arise. All poetry is in some way based on fact, and must contain information; but no poetry should be written merely for the purpose of conveying information. This kind of verse is not so frequently found in school-books, since the compilers of our school-books have rightly taken prose as the vehicle for conveying useful facts; but there is at least one poem to be found in Part II. of the First Reader which illustrates this point. It is called "How the Corn Grows," and is as follows:

When the corn begins to sprout, Two wee leaves come peeping out.

When the leaves are fresh and green, A siender stalk shoots up between.

When the stalk keeps on to grow, The tiny ears begin to show.

When the ears are long and thin, The pretty silk begins to spin.

When the pretty silk is spun, It turns the colour of the sun.

When the summer sun is gone, It's time to gather in the corn.

It would be unfair to condemn these verses entirely, although the versifier, in order to rhyme, has had to use a phrase "keeps on to grow," which is neither prose nor poetry. The weak point, however, is that the verses are made subservient to the information they contain. It is better to give information through it's proper channel, plain prose, and not through monotonous rhyme. But further when a writer without any imagination seeks to convey information by means of verse, he is apt to do violence to his facts, even if he knows them well. But in this case it is more than probable that the writer did not know the facts. Indian Corn is a plant whose leaves grow one by one, or one at a time. Hence the first verses,

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These li long aft poem w time to which in point or are wrong, as only one leaf appears, when the corn begins to sprout. In the next place a slender stalk does not shoot up between the leaves, since the only stalk which corn has is the second leaf coming up in the clasp of the first. And once more, the lines

When the ears are long and thin, The pretty silk begins to spin,

carry a false idea, since the silk is a portion of the flower, and is, therefore, formed before and not after the ears are developed. It is no matter of surprise that the person, who seeks to put his observations into verse, should not be a close observer. However let not the blunders to be found in this rhyme obscure the contention, that, even if the information be accurate, it should be conveyed in prose. He who seeks to utilize the special qualities of poetry in order to teach facts will make false poetry; and there should be no false or bad poetry in our school-readers. How a flower may be truly spoken of in poetry I shall illustrate in a moment.

These two kinds of unreal poetry, then, are to be avoided. Their effect, in the long run, upon children would be to make them despise poetry as trivial and foolish, as a vehicle for remarks which it would be ridiculous to make in prose. This false poetry ought not to be called poetry, since it lacks what is essential to all true poetry, namely, a sense of delight or joy in the presence of a beautiful object. This sense of delight or joy is not confined to high and difficult poetry at all. On the contrary, it is the attribute of the simplest nursery rhymes. It meets you in the very first stanza of

Twinkle, twinkle little star, How I wonder what you are, Up above the world so high, Like a diamond in the sky.

It is the most prominent feature of the verse-

Lady Moon, Lady Moon, where are you roving?

These little poems it will be a pleasure for the children to recall, long after they have ceased to be children, while the other kind of poem will survive only as the memory of a bad dream. But it is time to turn to some of the features of true poetry, the features which it is well to look for in poetry, and well, also, for us to point out to our pupils. I have already suggested that nursery

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jingles are a splendid mine. Some of these jingles, it is true, are a survival of a ruder age with more primitive manners, such for example as

Snail, snail, come out of your hole, Or else I'll beat you as black as a coal;

but the popular rhymes are not of this character, and have for generations been repeated and sung to children, until they have become a part of our individual and national existence. These rhymes have stood the most severe test to which the work of man can be put, the test of time, and therefore belong to universal childhood. Whether they be grave or gay—"Who killed Cock Robin?" or "Hey diddle diddle"—the child loves them. What is there, we may ask, in these verses which makes them perennially interesting to children? Why is it that children never tire of "Little Boy Blue," "The Three Little Kittens," "Jack Horner," "Tom Tucker," and the rest? Why is it that the children do not say "O what nonsense" when they read Bryan O'Lin?

Bryan O'Lin, and his wife, and wife's mother, All went over a bridge together, The bridge was loose, and they all tumbled in, What a precious concern, cried Bryan O'Lin.

The one answer to all these questions is that these poems picture a true child's world, in which everything is possible. The dogs and cats all talk, and laugh and cry. Even mere objects are endowed with human faculties. Nonsense and sense flourish side The child has no idea of limit, no feeling of defeat, no sense that the world can be against him. All is good and fair and "All's right with the world." The feeling that the possible. world presents obstacles comes soon enough to all children, and indeed must come to them, if their minds are to grow-but it is a matter for sorrow that so many human beings never regain, as they ought to regain, the belief that all's right with the world, and think, till they grow old, that the world is a place of woe. The great beauty of nursery jingles is that they take the children the right way at the beginning, and lead them along the path of understanding that the world is beautiful and joyous, and the Creator of the world wise and good. Therefore, when we repeat "Hey diddle diddle," we should not try to make sense of it, and say that the cow should jump under the moon, and not over the the cir the lig these s them l edited good i

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Kee more ca moon, and that the little dog must have barked and not laughed at the circumstance. If you do, you take away from this lovely jingle the light that never was on sea or land. There is much more in these simple rhymes than there is time to discuss. Before leaving them let me refer you to a series of reading books for children, edited by Professor Norton of Harvard University. There is much good material in these books.

Leaving behind the youngest children, and coming to those who have already a distinct desire to understand, we may consider the value of poetry by briefly examining two short poems, Wordsworth's Daffodils and Browning's Incident of the French Camp, both of them easily within reach of children in the Public School. The first of these poems may be regarded as a contrast to the verses about the growth of the corn, and the second as a contrast to the moral rhymes. Wordsworth's Daffodils is only twenty-four verses long,

I wandered lonely as a cloud,
That floats on high o'er vale and hills,
When all at once I saw a crowd,
A host of golden daffodils,
Beside the lake beneath the trees
Fluttering and dancing in the breeze.

Continuous as the stars that shine, And twinkle on the milky way, They stretched in never-ending line, Along the margin of a bay; Ten thousand saw I at a glance, Tossing their heads in sprightly dance.

The waves beside them danced, but they Outdid the sparkling waves in glee. A poet could not but be gay, In such a jocund company:
I gazed and gazed, but little thought What wealth the show to me had brought:

For oft when on my couch I lie, In vacant or in pensive mood, They flash upon that inward eye, Which is the bliss of solitude, And then my heart with pleasure fills, And dances with the daffodils.

Keeping the poem before us for general reference, we may ask more carefully what are the chief merits of poetry for children.

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it, and ver the I. As to words. (a) The choice of words. In poetry we find a keen sense for the right word, and the careful study of a true poem will cultivate in the child an appreciation of the value of the right word. Wordsworth's "Daffodils" is a simple and modest poem, yet observe the appropriateness of the words "fluttering" and "jocund."

(b) Again notice the use of common words in an unusual sense. The poem supplies three striking examples of this use in the single verse, "They flash upon that inward eye." We speak ordinarily of reviewing mentally an event, or passing a thing in review; and so Wordsworth might have said "When I review in my mind the pretty flowers." But no, to the poet it comes differently, and he says "They flash upon that inward eye." "Inward eye" is a phrase never to be forgotten. In Browning's "The Ride from Ghent to Aix," there are two phrases, which are similar to Wordsworth's use of the word "flash." He says, "At Aerschot up leaped of a sudden the sun," and again, "Till over by Dahem a dome-spire sprang white." The words "up leaped" and "sprang white" illustrate vividly the rapidity with which the riders were travelling. So Wordsworth's "flashed" illustrates the continual freshness even in memory, and the bright changing beauty, of the crowd of daffodils.

(c) Poetry often adjusts the sound of a word or phrase to the meaning-a reason for reading poetry aloud. Before taking up the detailed explanation of a poem, you should always read aloud the whole of it to your class. This poem does not furnish any conspicuous examples of this use of words, but it is worth noting that Wordsworth uses the two longest words in it "continuous" and "never-ending" to give an idea of the splendid stretch of tossing gold. There are, however, numberless instances of this use of words with which you are no doubt familiar, such as Shelley's "Like a glow-worm golden in a dell of dew," to indicate the wonderfully soft and liquid light of the glow-worm; or Milton's "Bellow through the vast and boundless deep" to represent the sound of thunder, or "Grate on their scrannel pipes of wretched straw" to suggest a horrid discord; or Gray's "one longing, lingering look behind," intensifying the deep reluctance of the human spirit to depart from the earth. Of course real p

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course this use of words may degenerate into a device, but with real poets it gives point and delicacy to the child's imagination.

II. The position of words. It would be easy to show that living prose takes great liberty with the order of words, and that a tame and monotonous repetition of subject, verb, object, springs from the writer's lack of interest. But poetry more than prose can vary the place of words. This poem, gentle as it is, supplies two good examples in the words "continuous" and "ten thousand," not so much in their standing at the beginning of the verse, though that is to be noted, as in their occupying an unusual place towards the other words with which they are connected. Read these lines in this way, "I saw ten thousand of them stretched in never-ending line continuously along the margin of a bay," and you have destroyed the sense. You destroy the sense of a poem by transposing the words. Here again I may be permitted to offer a word of advice. While it is necessary that the child should know the meaning of every word in a poem, it is unwise to ask him as an exercise to convert, as it is called, the poetry into prose, unless indeed you wish to show him that the subtle fragrance and beauty of the words have departed in the process. You can no more discover the beauty of a poem by such a transposition, than you can detect the beauty of a rose by plucking out all its petals, and trying to rearrange them. In another poem of Wordsworth's, "Yarrow Unvisited," the emphatic position of the adjectives "green" and "sweet" reveals the beauty of the scene :-

> O green, said I, are Yarrow's holms And sweet is Yarrow's flowing,

Place "green" and "sweet" in their customary position and you have done an injury to the loveliness of Yarrow. In the lines

What's Yarrow but a river bare That glides the dark hills under?

an unusual grace is thrown around the gliding river and the dark hills by the unusual place of the preposition. You can find numberless examples of this use of words in good poetry, and in every case you will see some reason for the sequence.

(b) While much can be said about the words of poetry, much also can be said about rhyme and metre. I shall say almost nothing about rhyme, since one of the highest kinds of poetry,

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Yet in many cases, especially in blank verse, does not rhyme. lyrical poems, rhyme is essential. Nor do I venture to make any extended remarks upon metre. The one point which seems most valuable for us in connection with rhyme and metre, is that they make the child acquainted with the music and melody of words. Cultivate the pupil's ear by reading aloud good poetry, and he will grow up to avoid harsh combinations of words, or, at least, if he uses a harsh combination, he will do so with express intention.

The beauty of an object cannot be revealed except by a form which is itself beautiful, so that measure of some kind is essential to poetry. The child, therefore, should be taught to scan, and thus place the proper accent upon the words. He will then at once detect for himself imperfect rhythm. If he is brought up on Wordsworth, he will know where the fault is in the verse-

Suppose that some boys have a horse,

or the blunder in the verse

Suppose the world doesn't please you.

He will himself know that the writer of such lines could not have a harmonious soul,

When the pupil has learned the rhythm of a true poem, he will quickly ask for the reason of any irregularity, which may occur in it. Wordsworth's "Daffodils," sweet and gentle in its subject, is unusually regular in its cadences. But the few irregularities, slight though they are, are all the more significant. In the verse "Fluttering and dancing in the breeze," the first foot contains three sylables which must be pronounced as quickly as the ordinary two syllables. This gives a quickness of motion, which suggests, so Wordsworth means to tell us, the varied movement of the flowers. Again in the verse, "Tossing their heads in sprightly dance," the first foot is irregular, and vividly represents the random, up and down, side to side motion of the flowers in a breeze. These small breaks in the flow of the words are all that is required, since the emotions excited by the poem, though fresh and vivacious, are not violent. Browning's "Incident of the French camp" furnishes a greater number of examples, some of them deeply significant. In the first stanza and seventh verse, the sharpest accent falls on the word "prone," which would in a regular verse be unaccented; and in order to make the verse

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rhythmical, the accent is taken away altogether from the foot pre-"As if to balance the prone brow." By this bold and abrupt alteration of the rhythm, Browning brings out the face and figure of Napoleon in a startling vivid way. Again in the fourth stanza, seventh verse, the word "perched" by forcibly seizing upon the accent, embodies all the pride and agony of the dying boy. There are in this poem several other noteworthy illustrations of the fact that in good peotry every departure from the basal measure has a meaning; whereas in false poetry irregularities are due to a failure to master the rhythm. Even at the risk of wearing out your patience I must call your attention to a supreme example of irregularity, which naturally goes along with an expression of the most powerful feeling. Lady Macbeth has just received news that her husband has been hailed "King" by the witches, and also that the actual king, Duncan, intends to lodge at her castle that very night. Immediately the terrible possibilities of the occasion flash upon her mind, and she utters the awful, half-prophetic, words-

The raven himself is hoarse,

That croaks the fatal entrance of Duncan Under my battlements.

the complete abandonment of the metre revealing her chaotic, almost diabolical, exultation of soul. The words read like prose, but they are at the opposite side of the universe from prose. They have passed through and beyond the region of harmony and music, into the region of moral lawlessness.

(c) But I must hasten to notice other qualities of poetry, which make it of value to children. Although poetry is not a mere vehicle for information, yet the poet does not do violence to reality. Indeed the poet is a poet for this among other reasons, that he takes in everything. That is what Shakespeare meant when he said that the poet's eye in fine frenzy rolling, glances from heaven to earth, from earth to heaven. The true poet sees not only the object with which he is directly concerned, but he sees everything that is needed to set forth this object. Wordsworth, therefore, sees not only a daffodil, but the whole glorious assemblage of them, the trees also, the lake, the dancing waves. More than that, when the poem is examined with some care, it is surprising what information it contains about the flower. The

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would we verse daffodils are yellow, they grow in great masses, frequent moist places, are not averse to shade, and their flowers stand out conspicuously upon long and slender stalks. Information gained in this indirect way is likely to abide. No teacher needs to be told that a child will retain information, which he receives unconsciously, when his interest has been aroused, but will quickly forget what he is compelled to learn. In saying that a poet is true to fact, I am aware that Shakespeare, for example, sometimes violates historical fact in his dramas. Still he is true to the great facts of human nature, and it is with men and women that Shakespeare primarily deals. It is impossible, however, to enter into a discussion of that subject.

(d) The most important point of all I have left to the last. Through poetry we are enabled to recognize and enter into the beauty of the world to which we belong. For the poet nothing is common. As to the man without imaginative vision

A primrose by a river's brim A yellow primrose was to him, And it was nothing more,

just as to the man without religious insight, a prophet or saint is simply one more man. But the true worshipper sees the halo which encircles the heads of God's chosen instruments, and the Along with true poet sees the halo which glorifies every object. this deeper insight, imparted to us by the poet's magic wand, goes the delightful sense that we also belong to the same beauteous world. This is the joy which is felt by every poet, and imparted by him more or less to every reader. There is thus a feeling of secure possession of a great treasure. There is also the feeling that life itself is beautiful and good. Nothing which the child can do in school, is better fitted to awaken him to the real grandeur of life, to enable him to see the difference between the high aim and the low aim, than true poetry. Observe how Wordsworth conveys the impression that nature is in close touch with human The daffodils feelings by his choice of words and phrases. "dance in the breeze," their dance is "sprightly," they are filled The distinctive with "glee," they are a "jocund company." feature of the nursery rhymes, the fact that in them things animate and inanimate speak the language and thoughts of children, and make a child's world of innocence and delight, is here subtly

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carried on by Wordsworth; the daffodils are a tribe of beings sharing in the general delight of life. Notice, too, how Wordsworth, in the next place, connects himself with this giddy throng. A poet's heart, he says, at once responds to the daffodils' invitation to be happy. "A poet could not but be gay, in such a jocund company," and every time that his mind turns back to the bright spectacle, his heart beats with renewed pleasure.

Then my heart with pleasure fills, And dances with the daffodils.

In a child's education beauty is just as essential a thing as truth, I believe. He must be given a sense of the beauty of the world, and the gladness of a life, which shares in this beauty. Real paintings are of great value in this discipline, but they are not available. Music is of value, but unfortunately the child's training in music ceases in the lower grades of our schools. Poetry is the implement which can be placed in the hands of all, and can be used without stint. A duty rests upon us not to be niggardly in its employment.

I have left myself time, merely to call your attention again to Browning's poem, "Incident of the French Camp", as one which presents to children a noble idea of life, without any direct moral instruction.

INCIDENT OF OF THE FRENCH CAMP.

You know, we French stormed Ratisbon:
A mile or so away,
On a little mound, Napoleon
Stood on our storming-day;
With neck out-thrust, you fancy how,
Legs wide, arms locked behind,
As if to balance the prone brow
Oppressive with its mind.

Just as perhaps he mused, "My plans
That soar, to earth may fall,
Let once my army leader Lannes,
Waver at yonder wall,"—
Out 'twixt the battery-smokes there flew
A rider, bound on bound
Full-galloping; nor bridle drew
Until he reached the mound.

Then off there flung in smiling joy, And held himself erect By just his horse's mane, a boy: You hardly could suspect(So tight he kept his lips compressed, Scarce any blood came through) You looked twice ere you saw his breast Was all but shot in two.

"Well," cried he, "Emperor, by God's grace,

"We've got you Ratisbon!

- "The Marshall 's in the market place,
 "And you'll be there anon,
- "To see your flag-bird flap his vans

"Where I, to heart's desire,

"Perched him!" The chief's eye flashed; his plans Soared up again like fire.

The chief's eye flashed; but presently Softened itself, as sheathes

- A film the mother-eagle's eye, When her bruised eaglet breathes:
- "You're wounded!" "Nay," the soldier's pride
 Touched to the quick, he said;
- "I'm killed, Sire!" And his chief beside, Smiling the boy fell dead.

The more frequently a poem of this kind is read to the boys and girls, the less need there will be of discipline, and we will be able to do without the little moral rhymes, which now disfigure our elementary reading-books.

SCIENCE TEACHING IN THE PRIMARY OR COMMON SCHOOLS.

BY HENRY MONTGOMERY, M. A., B. Sc., Ph. B.,

[Trinity University, Toronto.]

Many years' continuous service as a teacher of young men and women, in a measure, unfits one for acting as an instructor of children. I do not say that a teacher of children requires greater or higher qualifications than a teacher of college students; but the qualifications must be different. One who aspires to be a teacher and leader of students of advanced subjects as taught in colleges and universities ought to have good mental faculties, and these ought to be in a high state of cultivation. With the increasing intricacy and complexity of the studies come increasing difficulties for the students. These difficulties must be recognized

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and dealt with by the instructor. Hence the successful university teacher must be possessed of teaching powers suited to the minds of students of the advanced branches in which he undertakes instruction. Both the character of the studies and the mental condition of the students of the university differ widely from those of the pupils of the common school. Consequently the teachers of these two classes of pupils must differ widely as to qualifications. Between the primary or common school, on the one hand, and the university on the other, comes the secondary or high school, which, of necessity, must be supplied with teachers of somewhat different qualifications. The high-school teachers must be adapted to the work of instructing pupils of certain attainments and generally of a certain average age, which stand between the common school and the university. A still more satisfactory grading is effected by classifying all pupils in five divisions, viz., the kindergarten, the common school, the high school, the college, and the university; and in these, especially in the common school, a further grading often proves beneficial. Object teaching and kindergarten methods generally should be continued through the common school and high school, but, with the necessary modifications and adaptations. It has many times been found that one who has succeeded well teaching a class in some branch in the common school, has not succeeded as a teacher of a lower class or a higher class in the same branch and in the same school. We all know that a child will voluntarily leave other children that may be older or younger than himself, and seek out those of his own age, or, rather, of his own mental attainments; and, again, on reading a story to a child of nine years no interest is awakened, while on reading the same to another two or three years older or younger the most lively interest and appreciation of it are immediately manifested. The first thing, then to be considered in the teaching of science is the stage of the development of the faculties of the child. Let this be first diagnosed, and then let no mistake be made in prescribing the kind of material suited to his condition, and the character of the methods of instruction to be employed in this particular case.

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asing gnized To the question, "Should science be taught in the public or common school?" I answer in the affirmative. Most decidedly, yes. Which of the sciences? Should it be chemistry, or physics,

or zoology, or mineralogy, or botany, or physiology, or geology? I answer, all of them as one subject, the study of nature. Specialization, differentiation, or the division of labor, characterizes civilization. It is forced upon us in the higher studies. simply a matter of necessity, due to the vastness of the fields of higher learning, the shortness of life, and the limits of the human mind. But, it is possible to specialize only in the maturity of manhood and womanhood. It is not possible in childhood. The youthful mind is not capable of such work. The young mind is not able to fix attention or concentrate thought upon a subject, and particularly if the subject be studied in an isolated and disconnected manner. Add to this a method that is both systematic and abstract, and the avenues to learning are completely closed. In very early years, say, before the age of eleven or twelve, the average child cannot readily or profitably study anything in an isolated, a systematic, and an abstract manner, and he can do it but very feebly at this age. The study of a subject systematically by classification, the study of the abstract, and the cultivation of the reasoning faculty should not be attempted early. Nature rebels against it. It is the acculty of perception which appears first. This is the faculty which should receive the attention of the teacher of children. To the cultivation of observation, expression, and memory, along with the full physical development of the child, all the best energies of the teacher should be given.

It is not a question, then, of dividing and classifying the natural and physical sciences, and choosing one or more of them to be placed on the curriculum of schools. In a measure this is necessary and proper in the later years of the high school courses, and in the higher institutions, but not in the common school or to any great extent even in the high school. System, method, and classification in study are exceedingly important for matured persons; but, they do not belong to early life. As soon as the mind is prepared to undertake such work, it should be begun; and it should be increased very slowly, gradually, and almost imperceptibly. I repeat it, common school pupils ought not to be taught zoology as a distinct science, nor botany, nor physics, nor geology as such. All systems of classification, even to the division of these sciences, are artificial. Chemistry, physics, mineralogy, botany, zoology; physiology, and geology should not

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These sciences come naturally together; and, be separated. therefore, they are most readily understood when studied in this way. Let the child see the fish swim in the water, the bird fly through the air, the duck swim and sail on the pond, the river erode its banks, the waves beat and grind the pebbles against one another on the beach. Let him be led to use his senses in observing the soil, clay, sand, gravel, grasses, trees, flowers, butterflies, beetles, worms, crops, streams, hills, ravines, bees, squirrels, ants, crickets, birds, snow, rain, stones, rocks, and fossils, just as they occur in nature. In any case, even to adult persons, the associations are of vital significance. Many a time it happens that a mineral sample, a bit of rock, or a fossil, by itself is of but little use in helping us to understand some question of moment. Again, an extract from a book may be unintelligible or ambiguous. But, in the one instance, permit us to see the associated minerals and rocks in position, and, in the other, to read the context, and, what a flood of light is let in upon us! The relations that objects of the three kingdoms of nature bear towards one another are of the utmost importance. But, in addition to the importance of the associations and relations, the ease with which children are enabled to comprehend the characteristic structure, habits, and uses of anything when studied as it occurs in nature, is something the teacher and parent cannot afford to ignore. An old-fashioned method of teaching orthography consisted in compelling the pupil to learn a column or a page of isolated words chosen with reference to the number of syllables they contained. Some of these words are extremely rare; many of them would not be used by the pupil in speaking of writing, or met with in reading, for several years afterwards, and all of them were completely separated from the other words requisite to constitute any sentence. This was an unnatural method, and, it is needless to say, an unscientific method. By exercises in composition, and also by means of dictation exercises, i. e., a careful selection from an interesting story or history, suited to the capacity of the pupils, and with just enough new words and idioms in it to ensure progress, orthography is taught scientifically. By this means the child sees the relations of the words, understands their uses, and so more easily remembers and uses them. Thus it is, in the teaching of science to children. It is not true that natural and

physical science is even now taught in many of the schools in very much the same manner as spelling was wont to be taught in olden times, -in a disconnected, detailed, and unnatural way? But, it may be objected that the curriculum is already loaded with studies, and, therefore, there is not room for all the sciences on the common school programme. My reply is, that in place of increasing the load I would actually lighten it. elementary, practical, concrete object-instruction in nature does not imply an increased amount of work. The sum total does not need to be greater. If demanded in the interest of health, the total amount should be lessened. But the work should be natural; and, being more natural, it will, of course, be lighter and more accept-The study of nature is pre-eminently that which cultivates observancy, and accordingly comes first. Yet, it cannot be taught without a language; and the language in this country must be the English. Writing, spelling, reading, grammar, composition, drawing, geography, and arithmetic can all be taught while giving instruction in the natural and physical sciences. In fact, the teaching of science to children implies practice in drawing, writing, oral composition, written composition, and a certain amount of arithmetic. An afternoon's, or, better still, a forenoon's ramble over the fields, up a canyon, upon the side of a mountain, or along the shore of a lake or bank of a river, or a visit to a good museum, will ordinarily afford abundance of material and opportunity for penmanship, letter-writing, drawing, measurement, calculation, and oral and written language lessons.

Hence, it is plain that it is not a specialist in any particular branch of the sciences who is needed to teach children. The teachers should be chosen with reference to their fitness for teaching children of a certain stage of mental development. This is the natural standard. It is not really necessary that the teacher have a college education, or a knowledge of the advanced studies. But, it is absolutely necessary that the teacher be possessed of good common sense, be able to see clearly the things around him, be accurate as far as his work extends, and be full of love for that work. There is a little book entitled "Directions for Teaching Geology," by Dr. N. S. Shaler, professor of Geology in Harvard University, which ought to be in the hands of every common

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school teacher. After an experience of twenty years, teaching all grades of students, Dr. Shaler expressed himself as follows:

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"It seems to me very desirable that the first steps of the child in the study of the physical world should be given by teachers who give the beginnings of the other branches of learning. Although it is held by some students of the problem of science-teaching, that the work must be done by special teachers of science, I am inclined to believe that the view is a mistaken one. The special teacher will have to divide the intellectual life of the student, and in the infantile stages of this education it is difficult to make this division."

-As to methods of instruction in elementary science, the judicious use of books, pictures, charts, maps and models is proper. But the instruction should be largely by open-air excursions of two or three hours each, and taken twice or thrice a week. It can easily be accomplished in most places throughout the greater portion of the year. Of course, in inclement weather, the instruction must be given in the schoolroom. It is there the material collected by the teacher and pupils in their rambles may be examined and studied. The schoolroom may serve the good purpose of a shelter, and a place for exercises in description of the excursions and of the specimens gathered. It should also be used for the inspection and study of manufactured articles, which are, of course, the products of scientific industry. These exercises should be varied. Oral questioning is useful. Written descriptions are still more useful. Drawing is of great service as an exact form of expression; but much care should be taken to prevent it from becoming merely a mechanical exercise and thus interfering with true instruction. This indoor work is especially useful for In reviews the memory becomes trained and strengthened. Memory is an important faculty. I have no sympathy with the modern tendency to despise memorizing. I believe strongly in the cultivation of the memory. What would man be without a memory? As a matter of fact, I know of nothing that hinders and cramps my teaching more than the lack of a strong, full, retentive memory on the part of the student. Often it is with difficulty he can recall the meaning of words in his text-books. He cannot follow me because he has forgotten the significance of many of the words, English as well as technical, used in the lectures or explanation. For the same reason, many times he omits taking notes, or else he causes delay by stopping the instruction in order that whole sentences may be repeated for his benefit, his memory not being strong and active enough to grasp and retain more than a very few words at any one time. Why should so many young people enter college at the age of sixteen or seventeen with weak and leaky memories? If the question had reference to the reasoning faculty, it could be satisfactorily answered, inasmuch as reason appears later than memory, and has not had time for development. But, the memory can and should be developed in the primary and secondary schools, and the study or nature is eminently adapted to this development, as it is also to that of comparison.

I am disposed to think the high schools might do much more in this direction by wisely conducted examinations upon large portions of the work. I say "wisely conducted," for I know there are examinations that are not wisely conducted, and such would not produce the desired result. It is not enough for a young man to tell me that he knew a subject one or two years ago. If I wish to engage him to do a certain kind of work in which a knowledge of that subject is required, I wish to ascertain what he knows about it now, and whether he can use it now. Discipline of the mind is one thing, and practical knowledge is another. True education must include both. A student may shine in the class-room day by day, yet he may not be able to pass a good examination, or even a fair examination on the whole year's work. He does not possess that particular kind of power which will enable him to hold a year's work. This faculty should be recognized and improved.

With reference to the mode of instruction by frequent excursions, that, the young people may, under a competent guide, get a first-hand knowledge of nature for themselves, allow me to call attention to an article from the pen of Dr. J. M. Rice, which appeared in the Forum a few years ago. In the article referred to Dr. Rice sketches the work he saw done in primary schools in Germany and New York during his visits to both. He commends the German method by field-excursions as being scientific, and condemns the method which he witnessed in New York city as being unscientific. The contrast between the two systems is very forcibly brought out. Dr. Rice concludes his interesting article

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in these words: "If life be made a burden instead of a pleasure to the child, the blame falls upon those persons who fail to place their children in the hands of individuals who know how to educate them without destroying their happiness." This I take to be an appeal from Dr. Rice, not to a few persons, but to the people at large, to free their children from the evils of a close-confining, hot-house, mechanical system of primary education. Doubtless in many instances the teachers are to be pitied rather than blamed. Assuming them to be qualified and reliable teachers, desirous of taking the little ones out for study, the principal, if there be one, or the superintendent, may possibly object; perhaps some members of the board may object, or the children's parents may offer Under these circumstances, what are the teachers to do? Simply stay shut up in the school-house during the finest weather, and be obliged, four to six hours a day, to teach, as best they can, perhaps without maps, globes, charts, models, pictures, or any other appliances of a proper sort. This would be somewhat bearable, aye, even profitable, were the pupils sixteen to twenty years old. But it is a terrible thing for children, and a terrible thing for their teacher, to be expected to endure. Such teachers and children have my sympathy. I sincerely pity them. Think of trying to hold in quietness and attention in a schoolroom, for hours at a time, forty or fifty children, whose tender, growing bodies and minds call loudly for air, for sunshine, for exercise and freedom! What is the use of talking about teaching science so long as in our very attempts to teach it we continue to act in opposition to the laws of nature? A striking example of this inconsistency occurred some years ago in a well-known eastern university. While the professor was lecturing on hygiene, one of his students fainted for want of pure air, the room being closed up and utterly destitute of ventilation. A short time ago an Ontario teacher said to me, that, it would not be practicable for a teacher to take forty or fifty pupils out for a field excursion, and, that, very little good could or can come of it. My reply was, and is, that, little, very little good could or can come of trying to teach forty or fifty children in a school room for five or six hours a day, during five days of every week; that, I have had experience of this both as a pupil and a teacher; and, that, I know such attempts to teach, train and educate the young fall very far short

of the mark; and, also, that, the natural system has been tried for many years and it has far surpassed the old hot-house system in its noble results, physical, intellectual and moral. With the view of enlarging and improving the facilities for elementary science instruction, permanent collections might be made in every school. But, really good collections, kept in proper order, cost a great deal, and, consequently, must be few in number. Good museums in cities might be made highly useful to all the common school children within easy reach of them. They would be a relief to all in winter, and they would at all times be useful to those whose school buildings might chance to be situated near the centre of a large city and at an inconvenient distance from the fields and hills of the open country. Especially should we expect the university and college museums to be made convenient, attractive and instructive to all grades of young and old students. All parts of our public educational system should be consistent and in harmony. If a university can be equipped in such a manner, that, visits to its museum and inspections of its collections may be a source of pleasure and instruction to the pupils of the primary and secondary schools, and it will surely be so much the better. Well arranged, well labelled, and well lighted museums may and should serve as great educators of common school pupils, as well as of the general public. who may visit them from time to time. In California, and at least one or two other States, the express companies carry specimens for the State universities free of charge. In New York State and some other places, the students in training at the State normal schools are required to pay only half the railroad fare to and from these schools, although many of them travel several hundred miles to reach them. A number of the eastern and northern United States have for some time been furnishing free text-books for the public schools; and, in Ohio, not only are free text-books provided for the school children, but the State legislature has also taken measures for the supply of clothing for the pupils where it may be necessary. Now, as before stated, museums of any great value or importance must be few. They are too expensive to be numerous. They cannot be transported from town to town. Why should not some arrangement be effected by which pupils of school age, and in regular attendance and full standing in the schools, and their teachers might receive

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free railway transportation at least once a year to and from some university or college or other public museum. Knowing what is done for public schools by a few large museums, I am of opinion that greater efforts should be made in this direction in Canada, and also that strong efforts should be made to better the collections, keeping in mind the necessities of the public or common and high schools.

Were I asked for other advice regarding methods of teaching elementary science, I would say, that, the pupils should be started with the study of the familiar, that which is most readily observed and best known. The subject matter should consist of common things, and the language of the teacher should be simple and intelligible to the pupil. Some twenty years ago the distinguished scientist, Professor Huxley, published a book on practical biology, in which he adopted and advocated the system of study by which the student begins with the lowest and simplest forms of life and proceeds to the higher and more complex organisms. Owing to the fact that the lowest living beings are microscopic and obscure, this was altogether unnatural and unscientific. Huxley adopted it, almost every teacher of biology in Englishspeaking countries adopted it too. Within a few years it became evident, that, (except with advanced and well trained students), the results were far from satisfactary; and, accordingly, in the preface of a later edition of the book, Professor Huxley writes, that, experience has shown, that, the order ought to be reversed, and, that, henceforth the student should begin with those forms of life which are somewhat familiar, and proceed to those less known.

In the next place, I would warn the primary teacher against teaching the details of any subject to very young children. Unwise choice of material, and the forcing of a heap of details upon children, correspond closely to the old system of teaching spelling by selecting long and very rare words. This far-fetched material should never be used in primary teaching. Only the more conspicuous and general characters, uses, etc., should be dwelt upon, unless, in very exceptional cases, where, for some good reason, the child may appear to be profited by a minute account of any animal, plant or mineral. In all cases, the details are most out of place when there is no object or specimen of the kind present. As far as possible, the teacher should keep close to

the wishes and inclinations of the child in the choice of subject matter, and should work along these lines, so long as there seems no good objection to his wishes. With high school pupils, I would recommend the frequent use of the misroscope. In the hands of an intelligent teacher, this instrument may be used to advantage with small classes of pupils, say, above thirteen years of age. A stereopticon or projecting lantern should often be used in all grades of schools. Certainly for a high school, no better investment can be made, and the common schools of any city might, by arrangement with the high school teacher, who operated the lantern, become recipients of the benefits to be derived from the possession of this piece of apparatus.

A word or two with regard to physiology, and hygiene. sider that the teaching in these subjects should be greatly improved. I would not have a great amount taught; but, in several respects, it needs to be made more practical. Why is it that more than half the bicycle riders breath through their mouths instead of their nostrils? Why is it that so few young people appear to ventilate their rooms, and that so few appear to have been taught anything about ventilation? The vast majority of them never open their windows at the top and the atmosphere of their rooms is laden with poisonous matters from the human body. They have never been trained by frequent review and action to make a habit of carefully and properly ventilating their rooms in such a manner as to provide for a constant, uninterrupted supply of good air. Is it any wonder that catarrh, asthma, bronchitis, and consumption of the lungs are so prevalent? Time will not allow me to expatiate upon these matters here. Yet, I cannot refrain from directing attention to the fact, that, for reasons of delicacy, three systems of organs of the human body, either partially or entirely, are invariably omitted from the course of instruction in all our schools. For both moral and sanitary reasons, I am inclined to think something should be done, and, that, something will yet be done to provide for a wholesome, intelligent, and practical course in these subjects. It may be, that, at present little can be done; but, I venture to suggest, that, where it is altogether practicable to do so, perhaps in some city high schools, the sexes receive instruction in these studies in separate class-rooms, and from capable and proper instructors. It would prope and d their It mu

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would, of course, be absolutely essential that the instructors have properly constituted minds, and be especially qualified to speak to and deal with young persons, in order that good might come of their instruction. This is undoubtedly a difficult problem to solve. It must, however, be admitted that it is a very important one.

Again, the science teachers themselves must have interest in the studies. I have not much faith in the common, little, artificial devices for exciting the interest of the pupil. They are but the nostrums of quack doctors. They remind one of the application of ointment or salve to the external surface of the body to cure a disease which has its seat in impure blood or in a weak nervous system. They are not born of sympathy or interest in the study. The teacher should be interested in the studies as well as in the pupils. It is all right to desire to do good to the children, but there must in addition be a pleasureable enjoyment felt by the teacher in the prosecution of the study itself. In fact, interest in the study-a spirit of inquiry, of enthusiasm, if you will-is of the utmost importance. Teachers and pupils alike need it. Teaching must not be done merely for money; it must not be done in order to show one's knowledge. The pupil must not ask questions with the view of puzzling the teacher, or of showing his own learning or smartness. Too often do we get students who have been so praised and flattered by their previous teachers, that, it is exceedingly difficult and sometimes impossible ever to do anything for them. They are keenly disappointed at not being acknowledged as perfect in their studies, and are ever anxious to show their learning. It takes a long time to work them down to their proper level. Teacher and pupil should ever seek truth. must come to their work in a spirit of earnestness, absolute honesty, candor, and sincerity, otherwise the work will be a failure. The really true teacher is an inspired man. He draws the public around him, because he is himself interested in his studies. Such were the great teachers of old, and, if any of us now succeed in any measure as teachers, it is only so far as we possess interest and enthusiasm in our studies.

Frederic Harrison, with forty years' active experience in educational work, in writing of late, said: "I have for years past joined in the discussions and conferences on this question; and now I feel at times that we are further off the right path than ever, as if

our whole system were a failure. There are hours when I feel about education nothing but this,-wipe it out, and let us begin it all afresh." This was written with reference to education in England; but, it was in relation to some of the very matters that are engaging our attention in this country at the present time. There is too much forced work and too much mechanical work in the Canadian schools, at least in the schools of the province of Ontario. I cannot go so far as Harrison does in this expression of I know the schools of this country have done and his opinion. are doing a useful work. The nation cannot do without them, nor can it afford to permit their usefulness to be impaired through lack of support and sympathy. Give them the support and encouragement they need and deserve, and they will be improved, and the country profited thereby. Honest and intelligent interest in the schools should lead to improvements in their condition. Undoubtedly changes in the system are needed, and they should be effected without delay. Let these changes be made. Let neither prejudice nor individual selfishness nor political influence stand in the way. It has more than once been stated by educators of experience and high standing, that, science-teaching is difficult, and, that, there are few, very few, teachers capable of engaging in it. I feel there is much truth in this statement. Science, like any other object of education, must be taught by a competent person. It is folly to expect proper results from persons who have not both the natural and the acquired qualifications of a true teacher, and it is much greater folly to expect them from those who have neither of these two qualifications. Teachers possessed of both are indeed rare; and, how can we expect them to be plentiful so long as the trustees and boards of education, and the people behind the trustees and boards, remain satisfied with so low a standard. When the public come to realize that a higher, a less artificial, and a more scientific standard of qualifications, mental and moral, on the part of the teacher, is absolutely necessary for the welfare of our country, when they come to have a heartier appreciation of high-class attainments, they will be willing to make adequate compensation for the teacher's labors and influence, they will seek teachers of longer and better training and experience, teachers who carry with them an atmosphere of a higher and more inspiring character.

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ON THE DUTIES OF UNIVERSITIES TOWARDS THE COMMUNITY AND TOWARDS OTHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS.

BY THE REV. CANON ADAMS, D. C. L.,

(Principal of Bishop's College, Lennoxville, Que.)

[Dr. Adams congratulated the Association not only on the brilliant success of the Halifax meeting of 1898, but also on the choice of Dalhousie University as the place of holding the Session; by the success of its graduates elsewhere, it might be said of Dalhousie, as of the City so familiar to the research of Professor MacMechan, that

"Nuremberg's hand goes through every land."

Dalhousie appeared to be a nursery of educationalists.

sities were doing good work in taking their places in the van of educational progress.]

The Dominion Educational Association has always recognized that all the departments of education are within its purview, and it is well that all grades and stages of educational work should be recognized and dealt with. Those who are interested through their own work, in any special department of work, in kindergartens, in elementary schools, or high schools, or university work, will naturally feel that their own work is the one most essential link in the chain.

Let us all recognize at once that all the links in this chain are equally essential to the perfection of the whole; that no elementary work is too easy or obvious to be neglected or too unimportant for it to be indifferent how it is done; that no advanced work is too rare and difficult to be an object of interest to all; that university work, though not the lot of all scholars to enjoy and pass through, is just as essential to the good of the community as is the commonest study. The term 'higher' education would be better replaced by 'further' education; for the education that is required by any one, at any given stage, is as 'high' as it can be for that stage. But as matter can exist in different degrees of concentration, as solid, liquid, and gaseous, so can education be most concentrated in the grade of University Teaching. And it

would be well for a Community, if all persons of a certain ability and grade of intellect were to have the opportunity of college education, just as all soil of a certain fertility should be cultivated. The State should contribute to the aid of Universities, systematically supplementing private generosity and the aid from municipalities.

It is a fact that the organs most essential to life are the most highly organized, and require the most subtle care and nourishment: so the University may be regarded as the most complex educational organ, and also as the most essential to a complete and perfect system of national education. If we can make good what are the duties of our special organism to the Community, we shall soon be able to perceive what are the duties of the Community towards the University. Let us all discover and act upon our duties and our responsibilities, and we shall probably

get our dues.

It may be urged as an illustration of the essential character of a University to a perfect system of education, that in China, that great country of early progress and arrested development,—according to the traveller, Dr. Robert Lilley, there are innumerable schools, wonderfully minute and excruciatingly tedious examinations, but no Colleges or Universities. The development was arrested before the University stage was reached. In this connection we might, I think, fairly surmise that in the early middle ages, when such numbers of scholars flocked to Oxford, for example, their age was often from 12 to 14, and the work done was of what we would now call a High School rather than of the Collegiate and University grade.

I should not like to rouse any local feeling as between those who come from the northern or southern part of Britain; but it is, I believe a fact that in the excellent and renowned Universities of Scotland, the average age of entry is something like 14 or 15, and the average age of taking the M. A. degree given atter a four-years' course (of something like 6 months to the year) is 18 or 19; whereas the majority of the graduates of Oxford and Cambridge, enter at or later than 18. I should not like to think that the advantage of the Northerner over the Southerner was a full four years' start in the battle of life. The truth probably is, that the average man of a Scottish University is nearly equal to the

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average pass graduate of the English University, but is not anywhere nearly equal to the high honor man of the two great Universities.

The point I wish to make is, the great complexity of the ancient Universities, -a variety which it is attempted to reproduce on this side of the Atlantic, by the variety of options which almost ... bewilder the student who wishes to graduate at such a University as Harvard, for example. The consequence is that a graduate of such a University as Cambridge, may be a man who has had hairbreadth escapes from being plucked in very elementary examinations, or he may be a budding Newton or Bentley.

So varied is the crop of educational material, that a friend of mine once said he would like to examine from the Little Go or Previous Examination,—the first public examination, to sound the depths of human ignorance, and then he would like to examine from the Mathematical Tripos, to restore his belief in the triumphs of human intellect. I do not know that this bewildering variety, whether of attainment or in choice of subjects, is an evil or not, but it does cause us to be on uncertain ground when we are speaking of University degrees and their value. And it would almost seem that one duty of a University towards the Community should be the duty of being distinctive in its curriculum,-that is that certain grades of work should be passed before the University is reached, and that in these grades the University should have nothing further to do. This cannot be well carried out, however, on account of the enormous gulf between the pass men, and the honour man. The average first-class honour man on entering the University, almost invariably knows enough to pass the ordinary degree, or even to gain the lower honours; the sixth form in most of the great schools being nothing but training schools for honour men at the Universities.

We on this side, with our class of '99 and such like often have our students much more on the same level in starting; hence up to a certain point we are apt to keep them all in the same year doing the same work, and this is a pass training; but nearly all our Colleges at a later or an earlier stage allow of certain options or allow the more advanced and successful students to read for honours, by attending lectures more advanced than those attended by the ordinary students, who at the end of the first session, or the second

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four t the the session, do not attain a standard high enough to warrant their being promoted to an Honours division. Hence we obtain differentiation

In the University I represent, the course is one of three years, lectures going on from Sept. 15, or thereabouts, till June, with a rest of 3 or 4 weeks at Xmas-the term closing on the last Thursday in June. The Session is thus practically one of 9 Formerly students were put through exactly the months. same curriculum for the first two years; while those who in Mathematics or Classics had attained 75 per cent, in these groups in the 2nd year, were allowed to spend the third year in specialized work, and this specialized work was known as an Honours Course. We now allow students, who at entrance or at the end of the first year, can pass a general examination equivalent to that of our second year general course, to enter on specialized work at once, so that the Honours course may now be lengthened to three years in Mathematics, Classics, or Theology. A comparison of different University systems might be interesting, but it is not the subject of this paper; hence, let us rather deal with such an institution as a University might be supposed to be, and think more specially of its duties to the Community.

The University representing as it does, the most advanced, accurate, and thorough learning of the Community should be placed in a position wherein it can speak with authority on matters connected with learning. Hence, the University should have the opportunity of testing the work of the schools of the Province. No doubt the Provincial Government will require to inspect the work of the teachers from time to time, and the work of the Inspectors will not be interfered with by such test examinations as the University or Universities shall prescribe, though here, again, it will be very advisable that the Inspectors shall be men who have been through and have imbibed the inspirations of a University. In the Province of Quebec the work of testing school work in the Protestant Academies, is done by a joint Board of the two English Universities working in conjunction with representatives of the Department of Public Instruction. The examination is called the A. A., for the successful candidates are known as Associates in Arts, and those of them that who pass in Greek, Latin or Mathematics are recognized as matriculants of the

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eek, the Universities in Arts; and those who pass in certain subjects, the same as above, omitting Greek, are recognised as qualified to enter the Medical Departments of the Universities, or the Applied Science Department of McGIII.

This test applied by the Universities is valuable; it gives the Teachers of the Province a uniform standard to aim at; it enables the pupil to find out without leaving his home whether he is a person qualified to attend the University. By giving him the A.A. certificate for the fee he pays, the Universities attract the student. The people feel that the University has been among them and they are brought into touch with the University-which is thus everpresent among them throughout the year in the village school, being brought before the minds of the pupils by the A. A. class. I do not think the British Universities have this connecting link with the common school system of the country; but the English Universities especially, are unfortunately not so democratic as those of Canada. The fees are prohibitive to many. The Terms are so short that a man has nearly as much vacation as work time. Hence, the terms are so broken that he can do nothing in the interval; he must be able to raise something like \$750 a year to go through; and the honor men are obliged to invent a long Vacation Term or Summer Session for July and August to extend the work time of the year to 8 months out of 12. All this militates against the popularization of those Universities. With us it is very different. For something like \$200 or \$250 a year, students can enjoy the privileges of our Colleges, whether residential or not-and here is a connecting link of the most valuable kind, whereby the school pupils may by their school work alone, find themselves promoted to the plane of University students if they wish to go forward.

I. Having tested pupils at their entrance, care should be taken that all the tests of work applied by the university should be thorough, both for pass degrees and for degrees in honors. Here I would say for the special case of our Canadian universities, that the establishment of a board of examiners for degrees would no doubt conduce in the main to the raising of the standard. The University of London illustrates this—so do the Oxford and Cambridge Boards which are composed of representatives chosen from the various colleges. The degree being a university matter,

not a college matter, does not belong to any one college, but is a

test to which all colleges are subjected.

Many writers on the subject of Universities have made much of the distinction between a college and a university. When I speak of the duties of Universities it is meant to include the university and its colleges—all that grade of institutions of education that are above the level of the high school. Professor Huxley spoke of a university as not a mere co-operative society of teaching examiners, but a corporation which shall embrace a professoriate charged with the exposition of the higher forms of knowledge. Cardinal Newman calls a university "a school of universal learning." The "studium generale" has been interpreted as general learning, or the sum total of knowledge, but since that interpretation was given it has been thought that the expression really means a common or public place of study; hence there is a cosmopolitan idea connected with a university.

In pre-Reformation times the universities of Western Christendom recognized, as did the Church at large, the headship of the Pope: and this was regarded as a sign of their cosmopolitan rather than national or provincial character. It is remarkable in this connexion to note that the disuse of the Latin language, which gradually, though not instantly, followed the Reformation, tended to isolate universities of various countries from one another. Of course Latin is still the official language of some universities, as is instanced by the speeches made by the public orator to those about to take degrees.

One of the duties of a University then might be regarded as a general or catholic way of looking at things; while universities can and should be nurseries of patriotism, for which they are so admirably fitted, taking care as they do of the youth of our country at such an impressionable age, they should also make their patriotism a factor in the general progress of the world;—for the best patriot is not the man who thinks his country the best country and all others inferior—that is a delusion and no patriotism—but the one who performs the duties of citizenship in the spirit of unselfishness. Patriots in all countries have a strong family likeness, and if allowed to do so would make the best allies. Patriots will fight for their country when it is attacked, but will not urge forward wars of conquest as such. Patriots will also learn

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the use of arms so that their country shall be able to put its skilled weight into the scale of peace, but they will also make a study of other nations in their polity and history so as to find the best points of harmony and alliance. The patriotism I would teach in universities would be that which would lead to universal peace instead of risk of universal war—and I don't think universal peace any more impossible or impracticable an ideal than universal goodness. I look to the same force to produce both—the force of pure and undefiled religion pervading the thoughts and directing the wills of men.

Should Universities be denominational? In this province the attempt has been made to have them so. My own university is such a university, being under the direction of the Anglican Synods of Montreal and Quebec conjointly. No doubt the division implied by denominationalism is a weakness-not, I hope, a law of nature, but curable, like war, at some future date let us Meanwhile, it does seem as if concentration for the teaching of Arts, Medicine, and Science would be the most economical way. And yet much may be said for individual effort, and the variety caused by these various institutions, emphasizing not always the same ideas, producing by their variety an almost picturesque effect, like the costumes of different grades of peasants, or the colours of a varied cultivation. Some of the most successful universities seem to be those which were founded by some Church and which have become insensibly broader than their founders.

The nation has broken in, in the case of Oxford and Cambridge, and demanded an equal franchise for all denominations, but the old Church still has a decided position of advantage. Harvard is supposed to be under Unitarian influence, but is administered in a non-sectarian spirit. The danger of the non-recognition of Religion is got over, in many places by the affiliation of Colleges,—Theological and others; but these colleges are often only training schools for the ministry of different denominations and do not help the lay student. Halls of residence as such, do not seem to succeed very well.

Denominational Colleges with a tutorial staff including, possibly, the present Theological Colleges and placed so that

the students could avail themselves of the benefits of a University, which are not likely to be duplicated, would be better. We may not think the present state of things ideal, and yet we may deem it best to improve our little portion of the educational vineyard, rather than agitate for the incoming of some more ideal system.

It may be said: "Why worry about the University and religion?"—"Has not religion its recognized ministers and professors in the various religious bodies?" True. But the public daily recognition of religion is a source of strength, and this is almost impracticable unless a University has an established religion. Universities cannot confine themselves absolutely to matters of intellect. Indirectly and directly too, if possible, they should deal with matters of physical training as well as with the matters that relate to our highest relationship, not forgetting that in religion is found the sanction of the highest morality.

The authorities of a University should then feel a deep responsibility for the highest well-being of those so intimately trusted to their care during these precious years of the academic course.

The University having assisted or presided over the test examinations of the schools, what ought it to do for the Community in regard to those whom the Community commit to the care of the University?

- (1.) It should keep up and advance the standard of general education.
- (2.) It should at the right time favour the development of specialization in studies.
 - (3.) It should provide for the endowment of research.
- (4.) It should take some means to provide that those who go forth from the University to teach, should not only know sufficient but should have some reasonable knowledge of the best way to impart that Instruction. Pedagogy should be taught.
- (5.) It should, where practicable, provide for a system of University Extension.
- (6.) It should regard its endownments as held in trust for the community.
- (7.) It should look to the spiritual, and physical, and moral wants of those committed to its care by the community.

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We must remember that in the matter of specialism and generalism, all that is required, is that the candidate for specialism should have passed in his general subjects before he begins his special course. Hence, if some means can be devised whereby he should be able to do so, we would not reject those means because they enable the the candidate to finish his general course before he enters the University.

We must take care that the candidate for an ordinary course is not so well prepared that the first or freshman's year is a waste of time to him. A University's duty will be to see that its course is correlated to the general system of education, and is consistent with itself; also, it is its duty to so arrange its sessions as to get the maximum of efficiency; for instance, if 3 years of 38 weeks are better than 4 years of 29 weeks, we should say it would be better to have the three years of 38 weeks-for you will forget less in the 14 weeks than you will in the 23 weeks, and you will gain a year as regards your technical training.

A University should not look at things so much from its own point of view as an imperium in imperio, but as an imperium pro imperio-so that the greater world of which it is the microcosm should be the better served. It was on account of the abuses of the system that Royal Commissions invaded Oxford and Cambridge, and even now is there not room for further reform when the average required attendance of the students in those Universities is under half the year, while the lowest cost there is mucho greater than the minimum of other Universities?

The problem of University life is increased in complexity by the residential element. You require capital for your buildings, which you might have desired to spend in Libraries, Museums, and Apparatus. But the complex product in your common student life, especially where the students are brought into close touch with the Professors, is a finer thing; the greater comparative freedom of lodgings is a test too severe for many natures, whom the graded restraints of a life in college would save.

The University system is to be like the householder who out of his treasure brought things new and old. The old things are the learning, the wisdom of the past, Language, Literature, History, Science. But this is an age of investigation, hence it is the duty of the University to have a provision made for research,

as well as to dispense and test present learning. This requires liberal endowment, and those who are true patriots will require that there be a liberal endowment in order that the University may be able to do this duty. Some teaching duty should be affixed to the researcher, that he shall remember he is working not for himself, and it should be his business to set tasks in research, and to have his pupils in the art of research, as did the veteran historian Freeman, in those brief years in which he held the historical chair in Oxford.

Not only should the university strive to increase the kingdom of the known,-it should also, where practicable, dispense to the multitude what it has received at the fountain head of truth. Unless the graduate has learned how to study and to increase his knowledge, he has not learned much. Much help can be given to non-graduates by University Extension Lectures. This movement is very young-only twenty-five years old. I remember its inception very well. Its critics have laughed at it and compared it to a superior penny reading. Why this should be a term of reproach I do not know, when we remember how beneficial to mankind have been the penny post and the cheap daily press. The reproach has come from a certain class of dilettante dons, whose learning has carried them over the bridge of success, but who do not wish to popularize culture; who, because the highest thoroughness requires the concentration of years, seem to think that scattered opportunities of gaining some deeper knowledge are This extension of to be ignored by less fortunate persons. university teaching which has made a considerable stir since 1873, as will be seen in the note appended, is more practicable in large universities than in small ones.

In passing, I may say that it is quite a question in some minds whether "University" is the best name for small colleges, where just the germ of the humanities are being taught, though these do receive University charters and have the power of growth, of throwing out Faculties and of granting Degrees. There are instances known of local bodies, voluntarily formed, which receive a charter or are absorbed as a faculty by an existing university. The name is also given to a body of a federal character by connexion with which colleges obtain a certain standing. Cambridge

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I also call attention to a remarkable development in the State of New York, called the University of the State of New York in Albany. This is a Board of Regents who have no teaching duties at all, but who have certain powers in reference to all educational institutions, being a kind of nexus which correlates these institutions, and which may in future become more powerful in regard to their comparative usefulness. This board is legally entitled to impose conditions on all the degree granting bodies in the State, and to have something to say in connexion with all educational institutions, The regulations, at present, of this body of regents do not carry with them any penalty for the inaction of the bodies for whom regulations are made; but it is believed that the regulations in the future will become more stringent.

The ideal university ought to have all these powers—and hence the ideal for a province would be one university of which all existing colleges and universities should be portions—just as the provinces are united in the Dominion. We can easily see how the colleges and universities can serve other educational institutions. Teachers should be trained as to their subjects of education in the universities, whose certificates and degrees are taken as guarantees of knowledge, and then what normal school training in pedagogy is needed might be regarded as part of the work of the university in its wider meaning.

In England the universities undertake the great Local Examinations where thousands of boys and girls are tested every year—Oxford taking the summer and Cambridge the winter for their examinations. Oxford Local—Cambridge Local—are well known.

Then the universities have a joint Board for examining the highest forms of schools, where the highest form generally proceeds to the universities. These examinations excuse the successful candidate from the University First examination (Previous or Little Go.) The universities will also send down inspectors who will examine or test the whole work of a school. But those universities do not touch to any extent the great common school system directly, though indirectly, no doubt, the individual graduates of universities influence this system and become valuable inspectors,—some of the highest intellect of the country being

employed in this swely e. g., Matthew Arnold and Sir J. G. Fitch.

University Extension is a subject that has done a great deal not only in the Old Country; in Philadelphia and Chicago the same subject has been taken up and organised with great success in comparatively populous districts. A New Brunswick man, well known in Toronto and Montreal, Mr. T. G. Carter Troop, has recently been appointed one of the corps of Extension Lecturers in connexion with the University of Chicago, in which that very successful Cambridge Extension Lecturer, Dr. Richard Green Moulton, now holds an important chair.

I will conclude my paper by a recent report on the first twenty-five years of Cambridge University Extension.

A recent number of the English Guardian contains a report of matters connected with University Extension, which will illust ate this subject. A Conference of 100 delegates met at Cambridge in the first week of July, 1898, to celebrate the completion of twenty-five years of University Extension, 1873-98.

Dr. Roberts, Secretary of the Local Examinations and Lectures Syndicate, made a statement of some of the more important results of the twenty-five years' work. From this report we gather—

- (1) That the movement had now such a hold of the public mind that all the recent universities (such as Victoria in the north of England) had embodied in their charters provisions by which work of this kind might be carried on, and might be utilized in the university machinery for degrees.
- (2) Greatest number attending Extension in any one year, 66,000; numbers at the universities ,6000 to 8000.
- (3) The Local Taxation Act had placed money in the hands of County Councils to be used for technical education.

This led at first to the mistake of having the technical courses too short. Too great a demand for the supply of lecturers of a skilled kind—hence a rapid drop—as efficiency was not keep up. Since the reaction a final and permanent improvement. 221,190 had attended lectures in 25 years; 105,369 the classes where more intimate viva voce teaching was carried on; 35,000 had done regular paper work, and nearly the same number had obtained certificates of satisfactory standing. This certificate would no

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doubt shew a similar kind of knowledge to a university matriculation or first year work in some subjects, as the subjects were treated continuously, and the subjects were grouped in years. The quality of this knowledge would be of the type obtained at a university by pass men, but would be less in quantity.

Canon Moore Ede, (one of the founders of the movement), spoke of the double task of conversion: (a) The country had to be converted to the value of University Extension. (b) The University had to be converted to the importance of this new educational movement. He stated that continuity of lectures and subjects should be attained—the centres liked subjects which would attract large classes and were not so anxious to have consecutive courses-on allied subjects. One result has been, in the case of England, of the founding of strong Local Colleges, directly and indirectly as the result of the movement; Firth College, Sheffield, Colleges at Nottingham, Bristol, and even at Exter and Colchester, much smaller towns, are referred to. In many cases the local people were interested, and promoted these lectures and went through the courses, lecture, class, and examination from University Extension Societies and these form a most effective form of permanent local organization.

No less an authority than the Chancellor of Cambridge University (the Duke of Devonshire) presided and spoke. On the second day of the Conference he referred to:—

(1.) The importance of co-ordinating and welding together of the various educational agencies so as to avoid overlapping and to utilize more completely the available resources.

(2.) There was educational work.

There was also the organising of the local work. They must, he said, co-ordinate the various forms of adult education. The local colleges, as at Reading and Exeter, were not copies of one another—different localities had slightly modified the forms of these colleges, and Colchester was mentioned as a good example of the work done. The Duke added that in these courses the humanities should play a large part — History, Literature, Economics. The larger aspects of Scientific Investigation are what can be taken up profitably by persons who have not the time to go specially to a University for 3 years of their life, those who wished to keep up and refresh their knowledge. Teachers in

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nore done ined d no various grades of schools, public and private, have been greatly helped. The scheme offers a way of continuing a general education.

Educational organisations can afford to provide, dispassionate instruction in the duties of modern citizenship, and will diffuse that kind of knowledge needful to the formation of a discriminating judgment.

At least 40 years ago, the great religious and social teacher, Frederic Denison Maurice, (a member of Oxford and Cambridge), appealed to both Universities for help and leadership—and individuals, such as Ludlow, Fawcett, Hughes, did help him. Now the Universities, Cambridge, pioneer, Oxford following and rivalling the success of Cambridge and other Universities of Britain, South and North. These now recognizing a duty to the Community are furthering the cause of civic education and have associated with themselves in this patriotic task our local educational authorities, and the best elements of our local life.

This system has its serious limitations no doubt: "It is not possible to indoctrinate busy people with a systematic knowledge of a dozen or fifteen subjects, to understand any one of which would require a preparatory knowledge of many years."

"But it is possible to aid intelligent students in every rank of life to gain the elements, the gist, of liberal culture, which is the salutary safeguard of intellectual modesty, and the best protection against hurried and partial judgments."

Dr. Roberts spoke of two objects in view: \(\frac{1}{2}(1.)\) To provide systematic University extension—Lectures continued from time to time. (2.) To provide pioneer courses in less populous places.

Short courses of pioneer lectures have been known to stimulate the interest of smaller places. Bishop Forest Browne, late a great university worker and organiser, also spoke, and said that the Chancellor's remarks would give enormous support to the local committees and to the university itself—he having placed this very important subject on a high level. This is true, as it happens at the present moment that the Duke of Devonshire is not only Chancellor of the University of Cambridge but also Lord President of the Council, and the real Minister of Education in the Imperial Cabinet.

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TEACHING OF HISTORY.

By WM. Houston, Eso.

[Toronto.]

It is not necessary to say anything in this paper about the importance of history as a subject in school progress, for it seems to be everywhere taken for granted. I am glad that it is so because, in my opinion, it would be difficult to exaggerate its value as a culture subject, if it is properly handled in the class Neither is it necessary to dwell on the unsatisfactory character of the results usually obtained from the teaching of history in schools, for there is an almost unanimous chorus of complaint respecting it. History is, generally speaking, badly taught, and, as a natural consequence, it is too frequently disliked by both teachers and pupils. It serves no useful purpose in most schools, and most pupils become so disgusted with the subject that they never voluntarily recur to it in after life for either culture or recreation.

So far as my observation has gone—and it is fully borne out by extensive inquiries -the general practice in dealing with history in Canadian schools is to prescribe a longer or a shorter period for study, to specify some manual as a text-book, and to require the pupil to pass an examination based on the portion of the book gone over during the session of the school. The ideal underlying this method, whether consciously or unconsciously acted on, is to reduce the study of history to little more than mere memorization, instead of making it a work of ratiocination; to furnish the pupil with facts and theories, instead of requiring him to discover facts and frame theories for himself; to practise the appropriation of knowledge ready made and at second hand, instead of pursuing various lines of investigation; to instruct instead of educating. I do not say, or imply, that this practice is immoral, but I have good reason to know that it is abundantly prevalent.

If history is to be made a culture subject in our schools, some means of effecting a change of both ideal and method must be found. No person ever learned history usefully from a manual, and therefore manuals should have no place in school except for review purposes, and for this a good summary may be very useful.

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It is inconceivable that a manual of history should be interesting to either an old or a young student. It is too exclusively made up of statements of alleged fact, and yet it is not improved by any attempt at literary treatment. All picturesque description of scenes, all pen sketches of eminent persons, all interesting incidents of adventure, must be remorselessly excluded, until the terms "dry bones" and "skeleton" become fairly descriptive of the compilation. History learned in this way is soon forgotten, and there is small reason to regret that it is so, for it would be of little use if remembered, and would probably soon be found so mixed with uncorrected errors as to be quite misleading.

The only safe way to deal with the student of any age or stage is to make him an investigator on his own account. If he is early taught to distrust summaries of history as necessarily more or less erroneous, instead of being implicitly taught to rely upon them as reasonably accurate, he will gain immensely for life by being trained to habitual scepticism in matters of historical opinion in which all written histories, including the manuals, abound. The views expressed by the authors may be conventional or eccentric; in either case they are not necessarily matters of fact, and may be in reality the most absurd and refutable of falsehoods. Carlyle, when he was asked by a young friend what he should read for recreation, replied "Macaulay's History of England, or any other good work of fiction," and there never was any better historical fiction than Carlyle's "French Revolution," unless perhaps his "Frederic the Great." The necessarily fictitious character of written history may be due to misstatements, but it is more frequently due to the selection of unquestioned facts for admission or rejection. It is hard to choose without bias, and even if that were done preconceptions of relative importance would still be promotive of untrustworthy views of history in the mind of the unsceptical and uncritical reader.

While the picturesque, the ethical, the biographical, and the dramatic sides of history are all valuable in their respective ways, and must receive attention at the hands of the intelligent teacher, political history seems to me by far the most important. "History," said the late Prof. Freeman, is post politics, and politics is present history." It is not merely possible, but quite practicable,

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to make even a young pupil an original investigator of political history, and the teacher who does not make this use of the subject fails, through his own fault or that of others, in making the most of the opportunity for the advantage of those entrusted to him.

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The child, when he comes into the world, soon finds himself surrounded by two very different environments, one physical, the other institutional. His progress in making himself familiar with the former is a common subject of observation, but his evolution in the way of increased acquaintance with sociological phenomena has not been so generally noted. Admiring friends mark with delight the child's improvement as he learns to creep, to walk, to talk, to run, to play, to shun danger, to make use of occasions for his own advantage; no one seems to be specially interested in observing how he learns to recognize institutional limitations of his personal freedom in the family, the school, the local community, or the still greater political organizations. Every child finds out for himself that there are public laws enforced by positive sanctions, and executed by authorized officers; that public revenues are raised and spent; that property is recognized and protected; that there is a sovereign power represented by the reigning monarch; and that there are election franchises of various sorts brought into legitimate exercise on various occasions. The pupil, who is entirely unable to form any clear or useful conception of the Roman comitia or the Greek βομλή, may have a conception at once clear and useful of a municipal council, if the teacher is able to find out his state of mind on such subjects.

It seems abundantly evident that this is where the study of political history ought to begin. It is more important practically that a child should know something about the office of a justice of the peace, or of the reeve of a township than that he should be able to describe the functions of the Lord Chancellor of England or of the Lord Warden of the Cinque Ports. The value of the former kind of knowledge is immensely enhanced when he is made to discover it for himself, while he cannot possibly know anything about the latter except what some compiler of a manual tells his teacher and him. If it is rightly claimed that analytical observation of the physical world is a valuable discipline for the pupil it surely cannot be denied that a like study, mutatis mutandis, of his institutional environment will tend to develope those powers on

the active exercise of which he must depend for life after he leaves school.

I need hardly point out that the subject of which I speak, under the name of "institutional history," is similar to if not identical with that usually connoted in the United States by the philologically objectionable and linguistically unnecessary term "Civics." We have already, and have had since the time of Aristotle, the more suggestive and appropriate term "Politics," and if we want any other it would be better to use the English word "State craft." It may be objected that politics is not all of history, which is true, and that it is liable to be abused for partizan ends, which is undeniable; but surely it is possible for the earnest and scientifically minded teacher to deal with the subject in a purely scientific spirit, or learn to do so; and there is some reason to believe that the most effective solvent of the unreasoning partizanship, which is so obnoxious to every rational citizen, would be such a preliminary training as I have spoken of as obtainable from the practice of observing institutional phenomena in a scientific spirit and for a culture purpose.

The institutions of to-day have their roots deep in the past. Sir Henry Moine says that the village pound is one of the oldest institutions known to the history of our race. The forms and functions with which we are familiar were preceded by others somewhat different, and the literature dealing with this evolution is now so abundant and interesting that any teacher who has any curiosity on such subjects of investigation may easily become sufficiently familiar with them to enable him to carry his pupils back to the primitive conditions out of which our modern complex political organizations have been developed. Moreover, there are races in less favored lands in our own day, whose institutions are still in the primitive stage, so that the comparative method may be applied both historically and geographically, from now backward in time and from here outward in space. Needless to say, the pupils' interest in so-called savage tribes becomes ennobled by pursuing such a line of investigation and scientific thought, and he is unconsciously but beneficently raised to a point of view in which the brotherhood of man becomes a constant element in his cutlook over humanity at large.

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It is often said that in order to understand the present, one must know the past, and this is quite correct; but it is equally true and still more apt to say that in order to understand the past one must know the present. It is possible for the young student to ascertain for himself the nature of the institutions among which his lot has been cast, the working of which he can personally observe, and the continued evolution of which he can follow. Organized society never stands still, and its progress is usually gradual, not cataclysmic. One who has been trained to make such observations for himself will find little difficulty in carrying his conceptions back into the past with the necessary deductions and limitations; to him history becomes instinct with life and growth, and it has for him an interest quite independent of the literary form given to it by a Macaulay or a Carlyle-an interest analogous to that felt in the changes going on in the surface of the earth by the student who has caught the spirit of Lyell and Darwin.

The study of geography should be more closely and continuously connected with the study of history than it generally is. For the most recent facts in each we are dependent on the newspapers of the day, and the most recent conditions are the most valuable for culture study. The work of a well-conducted history class during the present summer should be the following up of the developments of the war between Spain and the United States. No geographical text-book will give all the places of importance in the struggle, and no historical text-book mentions it at all. Every one who has watched it so far feels that a momentous change has come over the face of the political world, and no one knows where it will end. The interest which a skilful teacher could arouse in his pupils in dealing with such a war is much more intense than he could get them to take in even such attractive struggles as the defensive war of the Greeks against the Persians, and the long contest for supremacy between Carthage and Rome. I need hardly say that the teacher who always teaches contemporary history will soon become a thoroughly cultured historian. It one limits himself to wars alone, he will have a subject of greater or less importance almost every year, such as the war between Spain and the United States, the one between the Turks and the Greeks, the one between China and Japan, and the perennial

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effort of Egypt, under British auspices, to recapture the Soudan from the Mahdists. But it is not necessary or advisable to deal with wars alone. Impulses given to colonization by the discovery of gold and other minerals, the construction of great continental railways, the comparatively bloodless annexation of new territory by European nations who are extending their possessions in Asia and Africa; the growth of sea power with concomitant coaling stations rendered necessary by the modern development of commerce and the possession of colonies, and the expansion of ocean telegraphy, which has become as necessary to the despatching of fleets as land telegraphy has long been to the despatching of railway trains—these belong, like institutions, to our own day, but have an interesting history behind them.

To sum up: The historical student's first and chief interest should be in the present rather than in the past. To deal with history in this spirit and by suitable methods would put a premium on ratiocination as contra-distinguished from mere memorization. It would enable the student, mature or immature, to pass from consequent to antecedent conditions in the natural order of causative investigation. It would afford opportunities for original research into sociologica phenomena, instead of the barren enumeration of phenomena discovered by others. It would enable the teacher to take his students from the known to the unknown, in accordance with one of the best known and most valuable pedagogical principles. Finally, it would give him a chance, when his time is all too limited to go fully into the study of history, to devote what he has to what is most profitable, alike for the purposes of practical life and for the purposes of intellectual discipline.

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MANUAL TRAINING: ITS AIMS AND METHODS.

By Geo. D. McKinnon, B. A. Sc.

On the various phases of this subject, the origin and results, the intellectual value, and the moral influence, etc., of Manual Training, a great deal might be written. But as the time at my disposal is somewhat limited, I shall be compelled to confine myself to two divisions of the subject, viz., Manual Training: its Aims and Methods.

Stephen A. Walker has stated the new creed for us thus:—
"Education of the hand and the eye should go along with the education of the mind. We believe in making good workmen as well as in making educated intellects. We think these are things that can be done at the same time, and we also think that they can be done better together than separately.

Those who have had anything to do with the education of youth will admit that the intellectual growth is not to be gauged by the length or number of the daily recitations. In most of our schools there is too much sameness and monotony, too much intellectual weariness and consequent torpor, hence if we shorten somewhat the time given to books, and introduce exercises of a widely different character, the result must be a positive intellectual gain. There is plenty of time if it is used rightly.

The education of the hand is the means of more completely and thoroughly educating the brain. Manual dexterity is but the evidence of a certain kind of mental power, and this mental power, coupled with the familiarity with the tools the hands use, is doubtless the only basis of that sound, practical, judgment which always characterizes those well fitted for the duties of active, industrial life.

The object then of Manual Training is not to make mechanics. We teach banking, not because we expect our pupils to become bankers, and we teach navigation, not because we expect our pupils to become seamen, and we teach the use of tools and the properties of materials not because we because we expect our boys to become artizans. But we do expect that our boys will at least

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when y, to r the ectual have something to do with bankers, and navigators, and artizans, and we do expect all to become good citizens. Our great object is *education*, other objects are secondary. There is no doubt but that industrial results will follow, but they will take care of themselves. Training, culture and skill come first, knowledge about persons, places, things and customs, tools and methods, comes second; but it is only by securing both objects that the pupil gains the great prize, which is power to deal successfully with the men, things and activities which surround him.

Another great object of the school is to foster a higher appreciation of the value and dignity of intelligent labour, and the worth and respectability of labouring men. A boy who sees nothing in manual labour but mere brute force, diagnoses both the labour and the labourer. With the acquisition of skill in himself come the ability and the willingness to recognize skill in his fellows. When once he appreciates skill in handicraft he regards the workman with sympathy and respect.

In a manual training school, tool work can never descend into drudgery. The tasks are not long nor are they unnecessarily repeated. In this school, whatever may be the social standing or importance of the fathers, the sons will go together to the same work, and be tested physically as well as intellectually by the same standards. The result in the past has been, and in the future will continue to be, a truer estimate of labouring and manufacturing people, and a sounder judgment on all social questions. If the manual training school should do nothing else, it would still justify all efforts in its behalf, if it would help in the solution of the difficulties between labour and capital.

We shall divide the course into two parts, viz., Drawing and Shopwork, and shall sub-divide the former into freehand, geometrical projection, and mechanical, and the latter into tarpenter work, wood turning, forging, moulding and machine work, these to be taken up in the order named.

"Drawing," says Prof. Sylvanus P. Thompson, "is the very soul of technical education and of exact and intelligent workmanship." Those who have tested this can tell how many marvels of ingenuity have vanished in the presence of plans and elevations, and how many beautifully drawn designs have been condemned

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as impracticable by judges versed in the laws of construction and strength of materials. As all drawings are combinations of lines straight and curved, we begin this subject with single line exercises, such as drawing heavy and light lines, parallel lines, lines meeting at a point, simple figures, such as triangles, squares, and polygons, of various numbers of sides, with the correct methods of drawing each, methods of sharpening pencils, holding T- and set squares, &c. We then advance to projection, and there are very few students but take a great interest in this subject. This we also begin with projections of points, and lines, then planes and then solids, each of the primary exercises being illustrated by means of wires, pieces of tin, cardboard, &c., and plane block models. The pupils are taught to make (generally) three projections of the object, and in many cases sections caused by planes passing through different parts, and to arrange them consistently.

Following this, but not before the student has a good general knowledge of the foregoing, comes mechanical drawing, and here the real value of geometrical drawing and projection dawns upon him. It must be understood, however, that all this work is supplementary to what I might call the shop drawing. drawing accompanies every exercise whether in wood or iron. Before beginning an exercise in the shop a sketch of the piece required, with all necessary dimensions, is put on the blackboard, and is carefully copied by the students into shop drawing books; which sketch must be approved by the teacher before the student is allowed to begin his work. The drawings should be made with care and of ample size. It is not strictly necessary that they should be drawn to scale, for the figured dimensions should always be given in full. Alternating with geometrical drawing and projection is freehand drawing from objects, sheets and black-board sketches, which should be taken up during the whole of the course.

Next in order comes the work in wood. The shop should be a well lighted room, containing a work-bench, a lathe, and set of tools for each student. The work-bench should be fitted with a tool locker and vise, and each set of tools should consist of: Crosscut and tenon saws, jack and smoothing planes, three chisels—1/4", 1/2", and 1", tree gouges—1/4", 1/2", and 1", try square,

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level, compass, hammer, marking gouge, screw-driver, brad-awl, oil stone, and slip and oil can, mallet, and bench brush. There should also be a complete set of special tools such as brace and assorted bits, jointer plane, rip saws, draw knife, spoke-shave, &c.

From the first it is to be borne in mind that the object of shop and tool instruction is chiefly mental discipline. Least of all do we care for the finished article, except in so far as it bears witness

to progress.

The first exercises are with the cross-cut saw, try square and In learning to use the saw, soft lumber about 2" square This is marked with the aid of the try square and with a sharp knife on two or three faces, and is cut just to the lines. This exercise is repeated until the student can make a good cut and have the end as square as possible with the sides. The importance of the saw cut may be illustrated by taking a piece about 6" x 1/8" x 2" long with at least one straight edge, and drawing lines half across or to meet a gauge line through the center about 1/2" or 1" apart. The piece is sawed along these marks just down to meet the gauge line so that when alternate pieces are knocked out, the parts which remain are just as wide as the spaces. The accuracy of this may be tested by sawing the piece in too and interlocking the projections. Similar exercises may be given in sawing obliquely to the grain with the saw best suited to the work. The use of the bench-hook should also be explained at this stage.

The next exercise is with the plane, but not before its mechanism, methods of grinding, oilstoning and setting are explained. This exercise consists of dressing down a piece of lumber about 2" × 2" to 1¾ square. It is not an easy one and many failures may be expected. First two adjacent faces are planed and made exactly square. Then with the marking gouge, lines are drawn 1¾" on each finished face and the two remaining faces are dressed down to these marks. After these exercises come joinery, beginning with end and middle lab joints, in which the use of the chisel is explained, mortise and tenon (open and closed), dado joints, lab mitre, relished mortise and tenon, various dove-tails, sash joints

and scarfing, etc.

One of the first difficulties the teacher will encounter is that of unequal capacity in the execution of work. Some of the more

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I the s difficult exercises may very properly be given twice, but not before the first have been duly criticized, and the prevailing failures and mistakes clearly pointed out. It will then be found that the second attempts are far superior to the first. It is not, however, a good plan to give unsatisfactory students extra hours in the shop.

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Wood-turning is an art requiring great judgment and skill, and anyone accomplished in it will testify to its great practical value. The set of turning tools may consist of—two turning gouges, ¼" and ½", two turning chisels, ¾" and ½", parting tool, round nose, calipers, rule, &c. The speed lathes may be driven either by a steam-engine, electric-motor, or water-moter, foot lathes are unsatisfactory to both teacher and student. The water-motor will be found very convenient, much more so than a steam-engine, and less dangerous than either engine or electric-motor. The first lesson is an explanation of the construction and care of the machinery, methods of oiling, cleaning, starting and stopping, belt shifting, &c.

The stock with which the wood-turning exercises begin, is a piece of soft wood about 8" long and 2" square. The 76" gouge is used and is always to be used in roughing out. The tools are to be kept in good condition, and the student should learn at the start that he is to cut the wood not scrape it. He is taught to hold his tool almost tangentially to the revolving piece, and to work from longer to smaller diameter. The second exercise consists of cylinders and cones, followed by stepped cylinders with 76" chisel, then large and small cylinders, convex and concave corner beads, cones, &c., &c. It is a good plan to execute them in soft wood and repeat some of the more difficult ones in hard wood. Then larger work, such as dumb-bells, Indian clubs, bread plates, &c., may be taken up, followed by inside turning, consisting of goblets, cups, napkin rings, and jars of various descriptions.

Forging, moulding, and machine work may next follow in a similar way to carpenter work and wood turning, beginning with forging and moulding courses, with simple exercises first executed in lead, followed by the same in iron.

In closing I may be excused if I give a short description of the school with which I have been connected, viz., the Ed. W. Young Manual Training School in Wolfville. The school occupies a building about 80' × 35', and two and a half stories. The upper story is used as a stock room. The wood working department on the second floor is a room 35' × 45', containing sixteen work benches, each supplied with a vise, drawer, toollocker, and set of carpenter's tools. A line shaft running the whole width of the room is belted to twelve speed lathes, circular and jig saws, and grindstone. In connection with each lathe is a locker and set of tools, and the entire machinery is driven by a double 5 H. P. water-motor of the Pelton type. This department also contains a tool room and storage cabinet. The drawing department is provided with a black-board, twenty drawing tables and stools, and thirty drawing boards, also a board rack and bank of thirty drawers, in which the students store their drawings.

In the *smithy*, on the ground floor, are seven portable forges, with anvils, handles, hammers and tongs complete, also an iron vise and set of extra tools, files, chisels, calipers, punches, rules, &c. Another part of the ground floor is reserved for a moulding and machine shop, and additions will be made to the equipment as rapidly as means will permit. This school, which is in connection with Horton Academy, has been in existence about six years, and I am happy to say is making good progress.

DOMESTIC SCIENCE AS A SCHOOL STUDY FOR GIRLS.

By Miss Helen N. Bell,

[Halifax School of Cookery.]

One of the best definitions of the term "Education" is that given by Pestalozzi: "The generation of power," and by this is meant not merely the power to think abstractly, or to moralize, or philosophize, but the power also to act intelligently. No system of education can be complete which does not involve, to a greater or less degree, the exertion of all human powers, and the development of them to the culminating point of action; which does not develop skill in the use of knowledge, and the application of the rules of science in the corresponding arts.

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character symmetri student h acting. them, the exercise o the gener the proc harmonic mental de mation of system o the nature here and by having studies, b lack in the more impe It is unnecessary, in an educational point of view, to divide the arts by the use of the term "fine" and "practical," for the fine arts can only exist where the practical arts have paved the way, and both alike may become valuable factors in mental training. Freebel's idea of education was the thorough training of every faculty of the mind and body for the duties of actual and practical life, and surely this should be the aim of every true educator.

In all the more recent treatises on education the difference on the mental and moral nature between a purely mental training, and mental and manual training combined has been clearly demonstrated; and it has been shown that an exclusively mental training stops short of the objective point of true education. Ideas are mere vain speculations until they are embodied in action. It is not what is thought out but what is wrought out that is of lasting good. Ideas and things are indissolubly connected, and it follows that any system of education which separates them must be radically defective.

The great aims of all true education are (1) the development of all the innate qualities or aptitudes, and (2) the formation of Exclusively mental training does not produce a symmetrical character, because at best it merely teaches the student how to think, and ignores the complement of thinkingacting. If things that have to be done are learned by doing them, there will be in the course of the process a wholesome exercise of both mind and body, and this exercise will result in the generation of power-power to think well and to do well, and the process being continued, the result cannot fail to be the harmonious growth of the whole being. To ensure that the mental development shall be harmonious; and the resulting formation of character symmetrical, we must have an orderly logical system of training, not one that can develope only one-half of the nature. Within recent years some efforts have been made here and there to secure this fuller system of education for boys, by having manual training added to their curriculum of school studies, but little or no regard has been paid to supply the same lack in the education of girls, and yet in many ways it is even more important in their case that this want should be supplied.

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Nature, having designed that the years of early childhood should be spent with the mother, must also have designed that women should be the chief educators of children, and it follows of course that the education of women is even more important than that of men, since it is from them that children receive their first impressions, and since first impressions are indelibly stamped upon the infant mind, and influence to a great extent the future development. In the home the development of the child's powers is principally in the direction of action, trying to do what it sees done, and under the best school systems a continuation of this goes on in the kindergarten, and the manual training which begins there, before children can read a word, should never cease. As we have seen in the case of boys, it is in some places carried on by special instruction in manual training, but in the case of girls, when they leave the kindergarten, their training in this direction too often comes to an end, and the divine creative instinct which is implanted in every child, is checked instead of being fostered and developed.

The most natural form of manual training for all girls seems to be the domestic arts, and it is to be hoped that ere long the importance of special training in these will come to be more generally recognized, domestic science to be alloted its proper place in all school curriculums, and training schools to be established to send out qualified teachers of the subject.

In many parts of Great Britain and the United States this has been already done; domestic economy has been elevated to the dignity of a department in some colleges, and a special faculty appointed to teach it, and its importance in the training of girls duly acknowledged. One of the leading educators in this subject in the United States, explaining the aims of the course of study, says:-"It is based on the assumption that no industry is more important to human happiness than that which makes the home; that a pleasant home is an essential element of broad culture, and one of the surest safeguards of morality and virtue. It is arranged to meet the wants of pupils who desire a knowledge of the principles that underlie domestic economy, and to furnish women with instruction in applied housekeeping, and the arts and sciences relating thereto; to incite them to a faithful performance of the every day duties of life, and to inspire them with a belief in the nobleness and dignity of true womanhood."

That there exists a necessity for such a course of training from a practical point of view will be admitted by all. There is no doubt that the awakening interest in the subject of domestic science, and especially in the teaching of cookery to girls, is neither an accident nor a fad but the result of a necessity for better ways of living; and it has become evident to all who have bestowed any thought on the subject that nothing of importance can be done to secure this end, and change for the better existing methods until the science of household affairs forms a part of every school girl's education.

If, as a Harvard professor is reported to have said, no man can be a gentleman who has not studied chemistry, it is certain that no girl is likely to grow up a thoroughly educated woman who has not been trained in the chemistry of the kitchen. This knowledge can not be acquired in any hap-hazard way, but only by studying the science of cookery in the same thorough way that any of the other sciences are studied. The substances which are required to nourish the body produce just as exact results in its chemical physiology as if these substances entered into combination in the laboratory. Food is a subject which may be studied and mastered like any other subject, and the changes it undergoes in its care and preparation are governed by fixed laws which can and ought to be demonstrated.

Scientific cooking can not be done by guess work; there are right and wrong methods in the kitchen as well as in the laboratory, and how to gain skill in the use of the right, and how to avoid the wrong can only be gained by a course of careful training. So long as ignorance exists as to the nature and qualities of food materials, their proper combinations, and the most scientific methods of preparing them, so long will the inevitable results be a great deal of unwholesome cookery, and the consequent injury and waste which must follow.

The study of the science of cookery includes a great deal more than merely the practical knowledge of how a certain number of dishes should be made. It means that the minds of the pupils shall be trained intelligently to recognize the constituents and value of the different food materials; their functions in affording

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nourishment to the body; the chemical and other changes which they undergo by the action of heat, and in their course through the body itself, and the reasons for each step in their combination and preparation.

It will thus be seen that the domestic arts must be admitted to be a means of mental training, developing the faculties of the mind as truly as any of the other sciences or arts; inculcating habits of accuracy, neatness, order, and economy; while the effects of a course of training in them on the comfort and happiness of the future life of the pupils can scarcely be over-estimated.



[College and Seminary of St. Francis Xavier.]

THE curriculum of studies in every well-regulated high school system must necessarily be a comprehensive one; but, to my mind, there is no branch more essential to a thoroughly effective course and, consequently, none that demands of the teacher more careful guidance, or of the pupil more attentive application, than that of English Literature.

A knowledge of the other branches, particularly of the mathematical and scientific, is, as it were, for the youth about beginning the responsible struggle of life, vendible material, a something to be given for value received. A knowledge of literature is really the knowledge of life that fits him for employing his mathematical and scientific stock with the best possible advantage to himself and to his fellow beings; which, of course, implies a soul-culture that makes unto the brotherhood of mankind, and thus helps in beautifying, in idealizing life.

Lacking, then, a knowledge of English literature, the youth's mathematical and scientific material is, to him, as is the well-stored shop to the merchant without training and experience; for only by long, perhaps bitter personal experience, does he gain the important lessons of life, more easily to be obtained from his literature, the treasury of world-experience.

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Literature, therefore—of course I hold that religious training is paramount-affords real preparation for true life; I mean the life that does not shut out its Creator, the life that is not wholly conecerned with the feverish animal race for the perishable goods of time. It is, then, the handmaid of religion, with an influence for good inestimable; and, as a people grows by what it reads, a healthy, vigorous, moral, God-loving nation must be the product of a healthy, moral literature, properly digested, and thoroughly assimilated. Consequently it is clearly our duty to see that the study of literature be, at least, as extensive and thorough as that of any other branch of learning.

In view of what I have said, it is by no means agreeable to declare that, of all the branches taught in secondary schools, there is none so barren of satisfactory results as is English literature. But the complaint is a general one. Colleges have, perhaps, the best opportunities of judging in this matter, and their common conclusion is, that prospective college students are pitiably and unwarrantably deficient in their acquirements in this particular branch, while in history, in mathematics, and in the natural sciences they are, as a rule, well-grounded and well-informed. There is the fact. What are we going to do about it? Surely

we must get a remedy. But where apply it?

There are many who fix the responsibility for such a condition upon the curricula of studies. They declare that too much is attempted in the high schools, and, in support of this, cite the complaints of students charged with neglecting English literature that, their work being so multifold; they cannot devote to it the due time or care. On the other hand there are many who think the curricula all that they should be. These advocate a numerous list of studies and assert that pupils who husband their minutes find considerable time for literature, and make remarkable progress therein. Do faddishness on the one hand and conservatism on the other lead to these conflicting opinions? Does disparity of mental endowments produce these opposite results? Whatever the reply, it is certain that there can be no proper high school course without a multiplicity of subjects; but it is also certain that all students are not expected to study all subjects with equal thoroughness. The dispensation of mental gifts is a just one, for an all-wise God has dispensed them, and the perfect curriculum is an

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youth's -stored or only ain the s literaimpossibility. I am convinced, however, that more time should be set for the study of literature than at present, and that standard English authors should be read in the common schools; but of this more anon.

That the pupils in our high schools neglect English literature cannot be denied, and one cause of that neglect is that they do not understand what literature means. Is not their neglect, then, due to the negligence of the teacher? A second cause is, that it is the literature of their own tongue. Agent this, suffice it to say that English literature is as rich in every way as any other literature, and especially in the means it affords for mental training. Another cause of neglect is the belief that literature is of little practical value. Persuaded of this, blindly do pupils go on studying, or rather looking at their author, and estimating it as so many pages of printed matter that must in some way be seen for the sole end of getting a pass in the examination. Reasonably difficult examinations of a literary and thought-compelling nature, mark, of a literary and thought-compelling nature, will soon break down such a spirit of indifference. Teachers must get out of the old rut, or stand guilty of fostering this belief in the inferiority of literature as a practical branch in our school curricula.

George Parsons Lathrop bears testimony to the practical value of literature in these words:—

"Among the most successful business men engaged in manufacture, agriculture, trade, mining and transportation, it is astonishing to note, from actual observation, how many of them, even without advantages of education from the start, and almost entirely self-taught, have found a source of practical power in their studies of literature. From long and varied observation of men eminently successful in material production and in commerce, and from friendly personal intercourse with them, I am able to say that, while there are practical exceptions and while those who know good books and rely greatly upon what they have learned from them often make no parade of the fact, it is true that these practical workingmen on a large scale, who are also in their special way thinkers, owe no small part of their triumph to the wisdom they have drawn from volumes representing the highest literature." "As an illustration in another field," Lathrop continues, "I may mention that the first Duke of Marlborough, the victor of Blenheim,own ac
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Dean that rise a session of Standard printed pr such produ licity of th artistic co rowest and it), belongs is power-g knowledgecatholic, or merely tech esthetic in i principles o tion, or pov are shapeles heim,—himself a factor in English history,—used to say that his own acquaintance with previous English history, was due chiefly to Shakespeare's plays." That is worthy testimony. Uproot, then, teachers, this belief in the impracticableness of literature. Begin by making pupils understand what literature means, and lead them to realize that, when studying the work assigned, they are face to face with living thought, listening, as it were, to the author himself speaking to them, instructing them, and giving them of his vast treasury of life experience.

The youthful mind is not attracted by the abstract; it longs for something real; it likes the direct and personal. Make the young minds realize, therefore, that they are getting this in their literature, and the teacher's work in the class room is half accomplished. If this is not done the pupils will thrust aside, after a perfunctory glance, the essentially useful literature and devote their time to the reading of the latter day novel, which they consider real, although in truth it is far from being so, and which, beyond any doubt, poisons their moral purity, saps their mental energy, and destroys all tendency to healthful reading.

I have said that the first duty of teachers of literature is to make their pupils understand fully its meaning. Now what is literature?

Dean Stanley says: "By literature I mean those great works that rise above professional or common-place uses, and take possession of the minds of a whole nation or a whole age." The Standard Dictionary defines literature as "the written or printed productions of the human mind collectively, especially such productions as are marked by elevation, vigor and catholicity of thought, by fitness, purity and grace of style, and by artistic construction." We continue: "Literature, in its narrowest and strictest sense (and this is the sense in which we take it), belongs to the sphere of high art, and embodies thought that is power-giving or inspiring and elevating, rather than merely knowledge-giving (excluding thus all purely scientific writings); catholic, or of interest to man as man (excluding writings that are merely technical, or for a class, trade, profession, or the like only); esthetic in its tone and style, (excluding all writings violating the principles of correct taste); and shaped by the creative imagination, or power of artistic construction (excluding all writings that are shapeless and without essential and organic unity)."

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Literature, then, may be called the artistic representation of life in language. Hence there are two sides in literature, the artistic and the human; and one is necessary to the other. The tendency, however, has been to devote far more time to the artistic than to the human side, and solely for art's sake. We have had enough of the cry "art for art's sake"; and now we want art for the heart's sake, art for the soul's sake; art after Rafael's idea, and Angelo's and Fra Angelico's, art "ad majorem Dei gloriam." The essence of all art is beauty. Beauty is but the expression of the divine attributes; and so art should conduct us, though by divers paths, to the fountain-head of beauty, namely, God.

The study of the artistic side is of great importance. It helps to cultivate the artistic sense; raises us above sordid surroundings and grovelling influences; produces refinement of nature and creates a love of the beautiful. But it should be studied only as a means of getting nearer God. And when the human side receives, in the class-room, at least as much attention as the artistic, then, and not till then, shall we have a real and thorough study of literature. Pupils must be brought to realize fully that literature is not an end. It is simply a means to an end. So thought Robert Louis Stevenson when he said that, in his writings he did not "preach his own moral," but tried for God's. Stevenson was convinced, too, that a book should be not only "a pocket theatre" but "a pocket pulpit" as well.

So thought the pure-minded Lonfellow when he wrote:

"God sent his singers upon earth,
With lays of sadness and of mirth,
That they might touch the hearts of men
And bring them back to heaven again."

The greatest artist of the 19th Century, Lord Tennyson, believed that,—

"The poet in a golden clime was born.
With golden stars above;
Dowered with the hate of hate, the scorn of scorn,
The love of love.
He saw thro' life and death,

The marvel of the everlasting will, An open scroll, before him lay."

And the great Ruskin felt that twenty years of his life were lost to him, because "he had based his pleading upon motives of

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spend th lacking, reading! being rea for good place, of if, in the some star developin ensure be school. over, beir ordinary prudence and kindness, instead of on the primary duty of loving God." God was their end, and so our study of literature should have Him for its end.

"A people's literature is a criterion of a people's civilization," says Brother Azarias, one of the keenest critics literature has produced. "It embodies," he continues, "what is most enduring in thought, and records what is best worth remembering in deeds. A people may be conquered; it may lose its individuality; it may change its religion, its government, its soil; but, so long as its literature remains, its growth and development, its rise and fall, its character and genius continue objects of interest, and teach a lesson to all who wish to be instructed."

Literature in a word, then, is humanity's mirror artistically draped, reflecting the life and thought of the world, not for its own sake but for God's.

But young minds, the frequent complaint runs, turn to "light reading." Well, if they do prefer "light reading" we teachers are in fault. The fault is ours because we do not with sufficient and *enthusiastic* clearness make them realize the difference between true literature and the vagaries that assume the title.

And what a serious fault it is! As we build now depends the future moral strength of this country. "To my mind," says Mr. O. T. Corson, state commissioner of schools for Ohio, "the great problem in education to-day is the developing of the reading habit, the training of boys and girls to love good literature."

The avenue to a sound people is good literature.

What fine props of a nation will those boys and girls be who spend their time over the sickly, sentimental, nay licentious, Godlacking, God-defying stuff which many are pleased to call "light reading!" The only way to prevent this dross of mentality from being read is to begin early in life to impart to the young a relish for good literature. Now, the school-room, after the home, is the place, of all places, where such a beginning should be made; and if, in the preparatory schools, instead of the regulation readers, some standard authors were used, we should not only succeed in developing in children a taste for the best in literature, but also ensure better results from the teaching of literature in the high school. The reader is comparatively of little value; and, moreover, being an aggregate of unrelated themes, the lack of unity

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precludes thorough intellectual systematization. Of course, works that are within the comprehension of children should be used, and such are numerous. Anent this matter, let me cite the views of some leading educationists.

Mr. C. A. McMurray, Illinois State Normal University, says: "The impression made by a complete masterpiece like 'Evangeline', 'Snow-Bound', or 'Birds and Bees', is much better or greater than a series of extracts which, taken together, furnish the same amount of reading. We should never get into the spirit or understanding of Shakespeare by reading short extracts. There is a double advantage in using, as reading matter in our schools, the best masterpieces which are adapted to the spirit and temper of children in the successive grades. The great body of our teachers need the culture that comes from these literary treasures as much as they need anything. The majority of them have never read those American and English classics, which are best suited to the needs of children. How, then, are we to become teachers of children in the best sense? Let no teacher think that he is humbling himself by reading children's literature. If all the teachers of our land could be induced to enter upon a careful and sympathetic reading of a dozen of the best classic books for children, it would change for the better the whole temper of school teaching in this country." Mr. Horace E. Scudder, editor of the Atlantic Monthly, says: Give to the child, as soon as he has mastered the rudiments of reading, some form of great imaginative literature, and continue, year after year, to set large works before him. . . . There can be no manner of question that a between the ages of six and sixteen, a large part of the best literature of the world may be read if taken up systematically." Mr. W. N. Sheats, superintendent of schools for Florida, says: "I heartily endorse the idea of giving our children above the fourth-reader grade, whole masterpieces instead of short extracts." Mr. T. C. Clendenen, superintendent of schools of Cairo, Ill., says: "I would like to see such (complete masterpieces) take the place of all school reading texts above the third reader." Mr. P. R. Walker, superintendent of schools of Rockford, Ill., says: "The fifth reader should be discarded, and good literature, adapted to the grade, substituted in its place. We are using Hawthorne's "True Stories from New England History" in the fifth and sixth

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grades, The Tales of the White Hills, and Birds and Bees in the seventh grade and "Evangeline" in the eight grade with much interest." Mr. Thos. M. Balliet, superintendent of schools of Springfield, Mass., says: "The use of the traditional fourth and fifth readers was discontinued in our schools six years ago; the third reader has been partly displaced, and, as soon as suitable reading matter of a kind worth reading can be found, the so-called "regular readers" ought to be banished from our schools."

Before leaving this matter let me put before you a course of reading followed in the schools of Hartford, Conn.: Primary grade - Longfellow's Children's Hour, The Three Kings; second and third grades-Scudder's Fables and Folk Stories, Hans Andersen's Stories, third and fourth grades-Hawthorne's Little Daffydoundilly, and Other Stories; fourth, fifth and sixth grades-Hawthorne's True Stories from New England History, Hawthorne's Biographical Stories; sixth grade-Hawthorne's Tanglewood Tales, Hawthorne's Tales of the White Hills and Sketches; sixth and seventh grades-Holmes' Grandmother's Story of Bunker Hill Battle and Other Poems; seventh grade-Longfellow's Song of Hiawatha; seventh and eighth grades-Longfellow's Evangeline, Longfellow's Courtship of Myles Standish, Whittier's Snow-Bound, Among the Hills, and Songs of Labor; eighth grade-Irving's Sketch Book; ninth grade-Longfellow's Tales of a Wayside Inn, Charles Dudley Warner's A-Hunting of the Deer and Other Papers, Whittier's The Tent on the Beach and Other Poems, Macaulay's Lays of Ancient Rome.

There are indeed difficulties in the way of following such a course in many of our schools, but an earnest, methodical teacher can overcome them to a great extent. In the high school one hour a day, it seems to me, should be devoted to the study of literature, and even then not more than three works can be seen thoroughly in a year. One or two, however, may be added for private reading. The teacher of literature should know his pupils. He should show enthusiastic interest in his work; for enthusiasm, soul-earnestness in the teacher, which will be lacking, however, unless he has read and re-read the work under study and thereby got at its soul, its "informing life," is the opening wedge to enthusiasm among pupils. He should give considerable attention to

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vocal interpretation, which often saves extensive explanation. He should realize that he is not a university lecturer and be more of the companion, the friend sitting down with friends to an intellectual feast with another friend, the book of literature. He should encourage personal investigation; hold frequent discussions, taking little part therein himself, and exact weekly essays bearing upon the author. Perhaps it were well also for the teacher to make a set of questions for the direction of the pupils. Some attention should be given to the study of style, but parsing and grammatical analysis have no place in the class of literature.

Where is the boy or girl who will not go with delight to the literature class in which great writers are studied as literature and not as lessons in cold grammar? And how much better and stronger they will be for it! What boy or girl will not be contented with and love with a greater love the country home, and hate with a lawful hate the luxury of life, after reading Goldsmith's "The Deserted Village?" What boy or girl will not profit by the study of "The Lady of the Lake?" There is, for the girl, Ellen's filial devotion to her father, her sacrifices, her patience, her humility, her purity; and, for the boy, the fearless manliness of Malcolm Graeme and the athletic victories of Douglas. What finer instinct, too, will be his, when he realizes the love of Fitz-James for his noble steed, and of Douglas for his faithful hound! Then there is the martial tread of the sturdy clan and the stirring notes of the pipes for him. And after their study of Shakespeare, what? Above all, stronger faith in God. Edward teaches the spirit of forgiveness and the glorious peace of a clear conscience; Richard the third, that man's hope is not in man but in God; Macbeth warns against ambition's evils; Shylock against revenge; Gonereil against filial ingratitude; Macduff is the splendid example of integrity; and Portia! Wealthy in worldly goods, and brilliant of mind, yet simple of nature; strong in character yet tender and womanly, she is the embodiment of the perfect woman.

Where is there any room left for cold, soul-chilling grammaticalanalysis? We have no time for it. We are wholly occupied with character building, with making true men and true women, with making for the future and after God's designs.

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EVOLUTION AND EDUCATION.

MISS ETHEL MUIR, PH. D.,

(Prof. of Phil. M. Holyoke.)

The formulation of the hypothesis of Evolution is, undoubtedly, the greatest achievement of modern science. Its effect has been likened to that of the great Copernican discovery; for by the latter the fact was established that the world moves from west to east; and by the former that all movement is from lower to higher. Professor LeConte claims that this doctrine has effected a total revolution in our view both of nature and of man, has changed the whole attitude of our mind toward truth, has modified our philosophy in every department, and has, hence, modified profoundly our theory and methods of education. This, I think, is not stating the case too strongly, for in any careful study of the educational problems of our day we find that we must reckon with this doctrine of Evolution. Professor Drummond objects to the phrase 'doctrine of Evolution.' "It is not," he says "a doctrine, it is a light." And is it not true that there is no part of the great field of thought which does not to-day shine in an almost immeasurably clearer and brighter light as the result of the Evolution theory? In Drummond's own words "Evolution enters no region-dull, neglected, or remote-of the temple of knowledge without transforming it." Dr. G. Stanley Hall, also, claims that "just in proportion as evolutionary views prevail, all the fields thus affected focus their interest and their product upon man and the older static views yield to the dynamic. The one chief and immediate field of application for all this work is that of education considered as the science of human nature and the art of developing it to its fullest maturity." Now, of course, if we regard education in this its widest sense as spiritual growth toward intellectual and moral perfection, then the philosophy of education, of history and of life are one; and the most general and indirect effects of the evolution theory have, necessarily, an important bearing upon all educational questions. But I wish in this paper to consider merely a few of the more direct and definite effects of the doctrine as illustrated to-day in our study of Science, of History and of Philosophy.

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Let us look first at the influence which this doctrine has exerted upon our study of science. The fact that all minds go through a spontaneous unfolding in their progress to maturity has led in the teaching of science, as in all teaching, to a consideration of that which Spencer denotes a fundamental principal of tuition, the principle, namely, that the arrangement of matter and method must correspond with the order of evolution and mode of activity of the faculties. The teacher also, has come more and more surely to understand that his chief function is to see that the conditions requisite to growth are maintained, and to facilitate rather than disturb the normal process of mental evolution.

The doctrine of Evolution is of peculiar interest to science. Its extension through all nature and over every realm of thought is largely due to Spencer. But by many thinkers it was, and, indeed, still is identified with the theory of origin of species by descent with modifications, and means only a genetic chain of all organisms from the earliest to the present; and, therefore, a blood kinship among all existing organisms from lowest to highest. Organic evolution, then, whether of the individual or of the organic Kingdom, is the type of evolution and by the acceptance of the evolutionary hypothesis a complete transformation has been caused in scientific work. As Le Conte points out ; imagination has given place to reason, thoughtful work in the laboratory has supplemented, if not superseded, the old-time love of field, forest and mountain, and the study of structure and function is recognised as of equal importance with that of form and habit. Even where the workers under the old regime had collected with the greatest care, all the materials for a science, it was not until the introduction of the evolution theory that the science itself could be really said to exist. In Biology, for example, through the various degrees of blood-kinship in descent, the true meaning of all previous classification was revealed and the geographical distribution of organisms was no longer a mystery in view of the evolutionary changes induced by a changed physical and organic environment.

The tremendous impulse given to the study of life included life in all its forms and with the increased impetus given to the study came also new methods of teaching. One of these methods LeConte calls the "Evolution Method." It is usually known as the Comparative Method; and has been productive of the highest

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This Comparative Method, so successful in Biology, has been introduced into the study of Psychology; and is by many believed to be the psychological method par excellence. Formerly the psychological study of man was regarded as a separate department of knowledge; having no possible connection with any But when we come to recognize man as the final form of physical evolution, then we must believe that every organ and function of the human body and every faculty of the human mind may be traced to its embryonic condition in the higher animals. Hence if Psychology is to be studied satisfactorily as a science, it is necessary that the psychical phenomena of man should be studied in comparison with its beginnings in infants and in the higher animals; until all the stages, shall have been investigated through which the human mind has passed in its progress to the form of development now reached. Thus the Comparative method through the almost universal attention which has, in the last few years, been given to animal, and particularly to child study, seems destined to accomplish more for Psychology than any previous plan of study; and this method as now used is a direct result of the doctrine of Evolution.

In addition to the impetus thus given to the study of Biology and Psychology the testimony of Herbert Spencer, who has done more than any one else to elaborate a consistent philosophy of Evolution on a scientific basis, places the study of Science on a plane infinitely higher than that of any other means of intellectual development. In discussing the question "What knowledge is of most worth?" Spencer's uniform reply is: Science; since the study of science in its most comprehensive form is the best preparation for the preservation of life and for all important orders of activity. "Necessary and eternal as are its truths, all science concerns all men for all time. Equally at present and in the remotest future must it be of incalculable importance for the regulation of their conduct that men should understand the science of life, physical, mental, social; and that they should understand all other science as a key to the science of life."

Some of our modern writers, however, while honouring science and insisting upon the importance of its study, claim, nevertheless, that if the doctrine of evolution is to exert its full influence in education, a place higher even than that given to Science, must

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be accorded to History. Education, according to Rosenkranz, is always for humanity for the reproduction in the individual of that nature already realized in the race. Its purpose is to enable the individual to make his own the living system of the thought of his people, to reproduce in himself its own living spirit. Hence the character of education must always depend upon the conception of humanity from which it proceeds; and as each new philosophy regards man from a new point of view and so forms of it a new conception each philosophical system furnishes us with a new theory of education. The philosophy of Evolution in its earlier stage regarded the present development of the human race as purely the product of forces working ab extra as a product in which man had had no part; and which could, therefore, be in no sense regarded as the manifestation of any intrinsic human nature.

Education under such circumstances could have no purpose but to make man best fitted to resist the forces with which he has to contend, best able to survive in life's meaningless struggle. But the inadequacy of such a view of man's share in the development of the race is already recognized and has resulted in a truer conception of humanity, a conception which takes account of all the various phases of human thought, and all the forms of human activity, and gives due weight to the human characteristics thus discerned. This change in philosophical view, this recognition of man himself as the great factor in the present stage of evolution, has produced also a change in our views of education which we now regard as the means of distinctively human development. Hence this new phase of the doctrine of Evolution, owing to its enlarged conception of humanity, demands in its edudational theory a thorough mastery of the thought and spirit of the race so far as this has as yet been developed.

This makes of supreme importance the study of both literature and history, for the course most truly in line with human evolution must be mainly historical; and this, indeed, is the direct implication of the law of Evolution itself. In writing upon "Educational Values," Mr. W. T. Harris, says: "Even the most materialistic science of our time hastens to caution us that we should never seek to know the individual by isolating him from his conditions. To know an individual thing scientifically we must study it in its

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history. It is a part of a process. Its presuppositions are needed to make it intelligible. Only in the perspective of its history can we see it so as to comprehend it as a whole. From the modern scientific idea of method—even that called Darwinism—we see the absolute necessity of mastering our history in order to know ourselves. We must take up into our consciousness our presupposition before we can be in a condition to achieve practical freedom. Just as the uncultivated person feels and knows his narrow circle of sensations, desires, appetites and volitions as his personal existence, his Ego, so the man of culture recognizes his identity with the vast complex of civilization, with the long travail of human history. For he looks at himself through the eyes of mankind and sees himself in mankind. History is the revelation of what is potentially in each man.

No less important than its influence upon Science and upon History have been the effects of the doctrine of Evolution upon Philosophy. The History of Philosophy as a whole furnishes a fine illustration of the Evolution theory. The various metaphysical systems do not stand out separate and distinct as monuments of the authors whose names they bear; but each is an incorporation and development of the truth as enunciated by previous philosophers. The great factors in the process of Evolution are, according to Spencer, differentiation and integration; and as we pass from the almost formless theories of the early Greek philosophers to the great metaphysical systems of our own time, we cannot fail to recognize the constant progress from the amorphous, undifferentiated character of the former to the infinite variety and difference of the latter, from the low stage of early homogeneity to that of supreme heterogeneity. And not less noticeable than the constant progress in differentiation thus displayed is the other great factor of the evolution process, that of integration. For, as system follows system, the idea of the true unity of knowledge receives greater and greater prominence, and we are forced to admit that knowledge is, undoubtedly one and the parts utterly interdependent. For growth in systematic connection becomes more and more apparent and we realize in each succeeding theory a nearer approach to the ideal-the unity of knowledge in one grand utterly coherent system.

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thus an excellent illustration of the doctrine of Evolution, but many of its more difficult problems have, by means of this hypothesis, become clearer, or are, through its illuminating influence, appearing in an entirely new light. One of the most troublesome questions for Philosophy to-day is that of the function and trustworthiness of the intellect. As Professor Seth in a recent lecture well expressed the difficulty: "In our escape from scholastic intellectualism, we are in danger or falling into a sort of intellectual philistinism, a practical and utilitarian philistinism." This tendency is illustrated in such writers as Kidd and Balfour, in Professor James's essay, "The Will to Believe," and in many of Browning's later and more truly philosophical poems. Faithlessness in regard to its own activity is thus a noted characteristic of modern thought. Thought has become aware of its own activity; and as soon as we begin to reflect seriously upon the process of thinking we seem inevitably to reach the conclusion that nothing can ever be known to us as it really is.

The most common form of this view of the limitation of the human intelligence is, as Professor Jones of Glasgow has pointed out, that which places the objects of religious faith beyond the reach of human knowledge. Certain doctrines are received as facts which we must believe but which we must not pretend to understand or demonstrate. We accept them as above reason and as the proper objects of faith. But if we deny the reality of our thought in such matters we are really denying its validity in all its applications. For all thinking leads us finally to an unknown. If we try to know any object by means of its conditions we must reach at last that which unconditionally determines it. In following the chain of its causes we can neither discover the first link nor do without it. For the first link must always be an uncaused cause and this we can never know.

The question then arises: If we cannot completely know any reality does not knowledge entirely fail? The answer of the Evolution theory to this question is that such a method of hard and fast alternatives is invalid. Knowledge is a thing which grows and in the organic-like process of this growth each new acquirement finds its place in an old order. Each new fact is absorbed by the intellectual life, which, itself, in turn, grows

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richer and fuller with each new acquisition. Hence, although it is true that knowledge never attains reality, it is not true that it always misses it. The process of knowledge is ever onward toward an ideal and of no knowledge can it ever be said that the ideal is completely missed. The ideal knowledge is knowledge of reality; that at which man ever aims is to know the world as it really is. Between thought and reality there is ever a relation and the effort to know is the effort to explain this already existing relation, and while this effort always fails yet it also always succeeds.

The distinction between truth and error in knowledge is present at every stage of the effort to attain truth. It is the source of the intellectual effort. But that distinction cannot be drawn except by reference to a criterion of truth which condemns our actual knowledge. This ideal must be ever present. It may be indefinite and its content confused and poor but it is always sufficient for its purpose, always better than the actual achievement. And, in this sense, reality, the truth, the veritable being of things is always reached by the poorest knowledge. The most crude and ignorant opinion is ever an expression of the reality of things, it is an embodiment of the principle of reality. Without it there would not be even the semblance of knowledge not even error and untruth. This reality of things, this ideal of knowledge, must be present at the beginning and all through the process of knowledge and yet it cannot be present in its fulness until that process is complete.

All our knowledge of an object leaves something over that we have not apprehended, something which is more true and more real than anything that we know and which in all future effort we strive to master. We know reality confusedly from the first and it is because we have attained so much knowledge that we desire greater cleariness and fulness. And while it is true that knowledge never is complete, yet it is always completing; if reality never is known, it is ever being known; if the ideal is never actual, it is always being actualized. The complete failure of knowledge is as impossible as is its complete success. It is thus that the Evolution theory attempts to bridge the seeming chasm between thought and reality; and to answer those who appear to take a pleasure in preaching intellectual agnosticism.

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I have offered illustrations from Science, from History, and from Philosophy to show that, in the education of to-day, the doctrine of Evolution is no mean factor and shall close my paper with a quotation from Drummond: "But one verdict is possible as to the practical import of this great doctrine as to its bearing upon the individual life and the future of the race. Evolution has ushered a new hope into the world. The supreme message of science to this age is that all nature is on the side of man who tries to rise. Evolution, development, progress are not only in her programme, these are her programme. For all things are rising, all worlds, all planets, all stars, all suns. An ascending energy is in the universe and the whole moves on with one mighty idea and anticipation. The aspiration in the human heart and mind is but the evolutionary tendency of the universe becoming conscious. Darwin's great discovery or the discovery which he brought into prominence is the best and most splendid contribution of Science to the faith of the world."

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EDUCATION, WHAT IS IT?

By MISS E. BOLTON.

(Ottawa Normal Kindergarten.)

Education says Fredric Froebel should lead and guide man to knowledge concerning himself, and in himself, to knowledge, of nature and her laws, and to communion with God.

In this definition of Education I find a three-fold relationship

—Man related to nature—to humanity—and to God. Therefore
we should look:—

ist. For a development of all the faculties and powers of man in accord with the Laws of Nature.

2nd. We should consider the conditions of the life of man and of his personality.

3rd. We should consider and apply the universal laws of spiritual development.

Let us consider each of these propositions.

KNOWLEDGE OF NATURE AND HER LAWS.

What is the law of development in nature? Every plant and animal grows or develops by and through the life within. Each plant and animal is impelled by the laws of its nature,—"hunger," "thirst," "protection from enemies," "reproduction of species," so to use its activity as to overcome all obstacles in its environment and rise above them. Only in so doing does it attain perfection.

Man in his ignorance of natural laws frequently comes in and by removing obstacles, and giving nourishment, arrests the development, alters the entire life of the plant, making it perhaps more showy, seldom more beautiful.

Again, man by a wise use of environment and culture has domesticated wild animals, has transformed mere edible grasses into our wheat and barley, has spiritualized nature in art, and by searching has discovered many of her laws which he uses in his onward march towards the light.

In the same way the young human being is driven by the life within to use his activities so as to develop power, which may be exerted in overcoming obstacles, and which, if directed and guided by a wise mother, shall enable him to attain such perfection as is possible for human beings hampered as they are by heredity and environment.

KNOWLEDGE OF HIS OWN NATURE.

Let us look for a few moments at the means the young child takes for self-development.

The world of Nature comes to him under three great divisions—Animal, Vegetable and Mineral. To relate himself to this world and to find his place in it he is endowed with active senses. During the instinctive period he sucks in so to speak, his future disposition. Habits are being formed from the moment of birth, nay, before birth. During this foundation laying period, as his senses waken, the world comes to him out of a mist. Objects seem to say, "Take me, Bite me, Tear me, Break me up, See me."

I might say just here, that I am firmly convinced that children who are not rocked to sleep by the mother as she nurses, or lulled by the music of her voice, and given the comforts of a clean cradle instead of a pillow on a large stiff bed, lose the blessing of a strong spiritual tie between mother and child, and fundamental sensations which are very important in their development.

To return to the chief line of my topic regarding children

whose senses are just awakening:-

Who has not seen a child mark walls, chairs, fences, anything that comes in his way, with bits of stone which he will pick up, bits of glass, chalk or anything which he finds will make a mark? Or breaking his toys, hammering, pulling to pieces, tearing, digging, emptying? Have you ever seen a child, boy or girl, (both sexes play this game) with a spoon or even a stick, lift sand in the spoon, put it in a box or pail-perhaps fill it, look at it for may be a minute, then empty it, and commence over again, over and over again. What is the child doing? Finding out something by itself, getting new power as it seeks and discovers laws of nature. Again, see it running back and forth to all appearances quite aimlessly. This a child does as soon as it can walk; then comes climbing, jumping, throwing, etc. These and many other performances are God-given activities which the wise mother uses and guides for the development of her child just as the good gardener cares for and trains his plants. Thus the child discovers that it can classify all objects in the world around, by form, by size, by weight termed the we hear so color a and he relation the hun ing of l

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weight, by sound, etc. Of these form, color, and sound may be termed the roots of that activity by which man relates himself to the world around him. To discover form, to see color and to hear sound demand the use of the higher spiritual powers. For color affects the emotional nature; to see color is to see beauty, and here we enter the spiritual world. To discover form is to see relations which imply comparison; this demands on the part of the human being observation, resulting in knowledge. The gaining of knowledge depends on the free activity of inherent powers, untrammeled activity of the individual mind on "The Self."

From our study of "The Self," we find man has five distinct avenues through which he obtains knowledge of the world around him,—the "Five senses" from which he receives sensations of seeing, hearing, tasting, smelling and touching. As is well known these may be reduced to one principle, namely, motion.

Now motion gives certain spatial relations, and comes under our former division of form, color, sound, etc., which are time and space relations, and form,—the all-controlling union between mind and matter. Form, color and sound bear certain mathematical relations to one another as will be seen later; and form depends on the discovery of the "number" relations. Consequently man, in order to find his true relationship to the outer world, must, consciously or unconsciously study mathematics. This is done in Froebel's Kindergarten System by the use of fundamental forms arranged so that the child makes use of the play instincts of investigation and construction. being Types he is able to classify all objects in the world around him, and in his investigations and constructions, to arrange material, so as to train his mind to mathematical accuracy and thus to orderly and logical habits. In the use of form and material he is only following in the foot-steps of the race, as man in his development from the savage state shows his advance, among other ways, by his use of "material."

We see, therefore, the immense importance of the proper training of the senses, in discovering the proper relations of size, number, weight, length, breadth and thickness of objects. This training evidently comes in through many channels and enables us to bring into relation certain subjects, for instance, common every day buying, selling, measuring, analysing, arranging, &c.

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ses and ardener that it size, by The three first are under the head of Arithmetic proper and are very important as the media through which comes an extended knowledge of material things. Measuring, analyzing and arranging bring us into the higher mathematics and lead to the study of Chemistry, Physics, Botany, Geography and Astronomy.

Now let us seek the far-reaching effects of the proper training of the color and sound instincts on the young child. All children have color and sound preferences and in the race we see this, from the savage who decks himself in bright colors, beads and trinkets, to the modern cultured artistic human being who selects more delicate and subtle tints and shades of both color and sound. Children are very susceptible to color and sound or rythm. Hence the necessity for the training of so subtle an instinct. nature revels in color and sound. The waving corn and grasses, trees, flowers, clouds, the babbling brook, the flight of birds, the songs and plumage of birds, the bounding deer, and other animals, young children themselves, all appeal to the aesthetic and emotional sides of the child's nature. What is more delightful, more poetic, than the unconscious play of the child. Froebel has provided an outlet for this play instinct, in song, game and story; here is music, here is poetry. And their value is seen in the one fact that they are helping to develop the child's intellectual, spiritual and physicial life in nature's own way. To distinguish differences in color, to use color for beautiful effects, to combine shade and tint in effective relation, is to become more spiritual through a love for the beautiful. Again in song and game, to train the ear to hear and love pure sweet sounds, to combine and bring into relationship with other sounds and with motion is to cultivate a taste for that which appeals to the higher emotional nature. Here truly have we the "poetry of motion;" here, truly, have we the "music of motion;" here, truly, have we the "consecration of motion."

EXPRESSION THROUGH GESTURE AND LANGUAGE.

From the foregoing we must conclude that the training of the senses is of the utmost importance; but in this training the child must see with his own eyes, hear with his own ears, touch, taste, smell such objects as come to him and express in his own language what they say to him and what he has to say about them. This self-expressing, the outcome of the self-acting through the senes

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Returnin made subser to geometry, simply used he is playin is most important. The inner being of the child, or those faculties and powers which are inherent but in a state of semi-consciousness when man is born, are aroused on coming in contact with the outside world through the action of the life around him. And as "Self" expresses itself through the activity of the limbs and other organs, so the first language of the human being is gesture language. Then, gradually, through the action of the life around him on his senses, he learns to make certain sounds and calls, which he hears other beings make, such as the bark of the dog, the moo-oo of the cow, &c. These sounds he gets by imitation; and in the expression by imitation he comes to understand the sound, hence the value of imitation as a factor in the training of children. Froebel says that what the child imitates he is trying to understand. Gesture and imitation lead on to expression in various ways, speaking, singing and drawing.

Now let us briefly discuss these phases of expression, speaking or language, drawing in its various forms and singing. "Each in all and all in each." Speaking comes before reading, speaking is fundamental, reading is artificial. Language must come before grammar and composition. It is easily seen that if the child learns to speak properly, gets pure articulated sounds, not confused sounds, hears correct statements about things, he will learn to construct sentences in good form, and to express his thoughts in clear, concise, and elegant statements. And this is the beginning of literature. But here again all depends on whether the child has been allowed to express his own thoughts about the world around him, or whether he is kept all the time repeating the thoughts of others. If he has been allowed to ask questions, to investigate, to try his own powers of construction on the material he is using, to create his own language under correction, from the names of those things with which he comes in contact, and from words supplied by the teacher, he is receiving a true training in language.

We see that language power, like all other power, depends for its efficiency on the free activity of self.

Returning to mathematics, the play and study of form may be made subservient to every phase of common mathematics, even to geometry, buying, selling, measuring. Practical parts are so simply used that the child does his work, quite unconscious that he is playing with that which is the greatest bug-bear of even

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third grade pupils. I think that the Kindergarten methods of teaching mathematics assures an intelligent appreciation and practical use of the problems in succeeding classes and in after life. The Kindergarten training forms a habit of mind in the early stages of the child's education, a habit of mind which will never leave him, as the child through his own activities is creating function which cannot be destroyed.

LITERATURE.

In the Kindergarten the child is allowed to express his thoughts; and it is wonderful what a store of language-material he gets. In 'the morning talks and songs, by arousing their powers of observation, through the natural channels of curiosity and interest, the children are led to be keen observers of the world around them, to see colors, to hear sounds, to observe phenomena, and to express in language as good and as elegant as they have, what they have seen or heard. In the songs their attention is called to the thought and the words of the poets. In saying and singing the words the children unconsciously make the thought and words their own. Memory and imagination are trained; and there is given a certain amount of culture of the finer spiritual nature as well as of the intellectual; thus laying a good foundation for literary taste. The effect of this will be seen later in reasoning especially. One of the great preventives of good reading is the fact that the reader does not clearly understand the close relation in thought and language between the lessons in the Reader and his own every day thought and language. Trained in language, in the Kindergarten, he will not fall into this error, and he will tell the thoughts of his reading lesson as he did his ideas of nature.

SELF EXPRESSION IN DRAWING.

Drawing is fundamental. See the child marking the wall with the bit of stone, making a picture of his hand, his mother, his home or the street car and conductor. In fact children will make very good pictures of almost any phase of the life around them and show such power of conception that one is amazed. From this representing to himself his own thought, to the time when the child is able to represent with brush or pencil his idea of a scene or the conception of the thought in "The Holy Grail," he has simply been using those powers which have been developed

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Drawing as a form of self expression or I had better say of "self growth," because it enables the self to view self power and thus gain "power," is of such vital importance that "I often wonder we have not given it more prominence in our school system"—from the time when the child leaves the Kindergarten; for here one might almost say his chief work has been drawing, "as expression in play; whether with block, sand, sewing, weaving, folding, or drawing itself, is always related through form, color and sound to nature and is giving outward form to inward thought or activity." Drawing should, I think and know, be carried on hand in hand with nature study—Plants, Animals, Birds, Insects, &c. I do not think such is the fact generally. In Ottawa we are carrying on a good deal of the Kindergarten work both practically and in the spirit but I am not at all satisfied with the teaching of drawing nor yet of singing.

SCIENCE.

The study of nature is the foundation stone of the Kindergarten work,—nature and Her phenomena being the key note of every day's work,—fruits, leaves and all kinds of grain in the Autumn,—snow and rain together with fuel, foods, and trades in the winter months,—birds, flowers, insects during the spring and summer,—sun, moon, stars, clouds, weather and trees all the year round, giving the child the desire to search into, develop a love for and an acquaintance with nature that if carried on in the same spirit would I am sure revolutionize school methods.

I had intended showing the necessity for and value of hand training in the development of humanity, showing that the race has progressed just in proportion to the development of hand and eye training. But I find my paper is already too long, so I shall close by saying that from study of this subject I find that man educates himself by the discovery of his own inner power—by his search in and love of nature. Through sympathy and communion with his fellow man he advances on to the second stage of his development,—the impulsive, reflective and executive stage, the foundation for which has been laid in the Maternal or Home School, the Kindergarten or Primary School—a foundation in literature, art, and science, which if well laid will lead the human being on through the other grades to self-mastery, on, to communion with God.

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THE MANAGEMENT AND EQUIPMENT OF SMALL KINDERGARTENS.

By Miss M. A. HAMILT N.

(Kindergarten Training Class, Dartmouth.)

Mr. President, Fellow Teachers,—Forty-six years have elapsed since the deach of Frederic Froebel, that rare old man whose textbooks were childhood and nature. He prophesied that on the soil of this new continent the Kindergarten would spring up like the mushroom. Truly it has been so. Its growth here has been phenomenal. Its principles have in a measure permeated the educational systems of America, even to the University.

In Nova Scotia our progressive Primary teachers are being filled with Froebel's spirit, they are applying his principles and adopting his methods; but the Kindergarten itself is not spreading in this province as we would wish, on account, I think, of the difficulty of taking charge of a large number of children without assistance.

In connection with the graduates of our Training School in Dartmouth, we have a "circular letter," which goes in prearranged order from one young lady to another, each in turn taking out the part of it previously written by herself (usually about 2 pages of ordinary note paper) and inserting another. Its object is that we may each and all aid one another by suggestion, by question and by answer. It visits N. B., C. B., Antigonish, Mahone Yarmouth, Halifax and Dartmouth taking about two months for the round trip. Now the cry that comes to me from this circular letter is, "How shall I without help manage 20 or 25; 30 or 35 children of different attannments and who should be in different classes?" "How shall I provide work for very little ones while I attend to the larger ones?" And so on?

One of the imaginary difficulties in connection with the work in small places is this. The young graduate goes out from a well equipped Kindergarten to begin life as it were for herself, she thinks of the assistance which her director had from the girls whom she trained and her heart fails her as she finds herself surrounded by say from 25 to 40 restless and active or slow and

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She forgets or does not realize that the very fact of having students to train bring with it responsibility and work; that the director has her girls to watch, and watch continually, that they may not give her work with the children to undo. She also has faults in them to eradicate, and she has to lead them into correct -channels of thought, and right channels of work, this outside the training proper; while the Kindergartner who has no pupils to train can give all her time and thought and energy and strength to her little pupils.

Now let us imagine a young teacher surrounded as I have said with from 25 to 50 little children. There are to my mind three courses of action before here. First she may give it all up, secondly she may in all her youth, in all her inexperience with children and in all her inexperience in life take other young girls to train, or thirdly she may decide what she wants to do FOR the children under her care and then consider what of Froebel's many appliances or tools (if I may so call them) are best adapted for her use in the special circumstances by which she is surrounded. My experience is limited but I consider the last the most sensible.

Now what do we want to do for the children in our KINDERGARTENS! That is the POINT—in fact that is the question in all grades-WHAT IS OUR AIM? Is our object to teach so much form so that they may make squares, oblongs, triangles and perhaps give definitions of the same? Is it to teach number, or color, position or direction, or material. Is it to study nature? Is it to do so much intricate weaving and sewing or elaborate paper folding or cutting? Is it to do a certain amount of finely modelled clay work? Is it even to lead the children to gracefully play our beautiful games? We say most decidedly no that this is not our aim. While all these things are means they are not the end we have in view. One object is to develop character, to develop capacity for future application, to lead the children to do, to tell, to think, to find out for themselves.

Our idea is not to force growth, We should never think of forcing a child's body to grow. Why is it that during these 3 years of babyhood the child unfolds faster, acquires more, learns faster than in the ten succeeding years? Simply because he has

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work a well lf, she girls If surw and greater freedom; he is permitted the exercise of pleasureable sensations and as some one says, "In all his kickings and tantrums, laughter and tears he has the sympathy of the whole household." So it should be in the Kindergarten. There is so much significance in that word Kindergarten!—garden of children—each child is like a bud in a garden. See this bud, the petals are folded one on the other with the greatest exactness and mathematical precision. Inside are the colouring, the perfume and the sweetness which will give character to the flower. The gardener surrounds with proper conditions, uses certain tools, and lo! the flower opens symmetrically. Is it not lop-sided. Nature STARTED IT ON MATHEMATICAL PRINCIPLES. The gardener understood them and helped nature. Just so should we do with the child,—help nature.

Having decided what we want to do for the children, the next point to be considered is how are we to do it. Froebel has given us many helps, many tools. He has given us gifts, occupations, songs, games, stories and has suggested others. For instance, he says it is desirable that each child should have a little plot of ground to work. Only the very richest Kindergartens can have that, but we can all have boxes and plant seeds. We can get bulbs in autumn, take care of them during their winter sleep and watch their spring awaking.

Very few can have live pets in Kindergartens as Froebel suggested, but we can have a dog or a cat, or butterfly, or toads, or grasshoppers, or frogs or snails, or tadpoles visit us. We can find cocoans and watch the butterfly or moth emerge in spring.

But what tools can the young girls use whom we have imagined all alone among her two score and more little children? They love nature. They are a part of it themselves. We can keep them in loving communion with nature. They will bring us flowers, leaves, grass, seeds, fruit, pebbles, and so on and oh what an almost infinite number of ideas we can develop through these things—form, number, color stand out prominently. Thus the aesthetic side of their nature is developed and their observation as well as kindness to all around and their thoughts are lead gently to Him who giveth all. Children always delight too in drawing the things we talk about.

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Then we can tell stories of animal life and natural phenomena illustrating them by songs, games, stories, pantomine and drawing. Froebel's games and plays-perhaps his most powerful tool -can be constantly used, no difference how great may be our Through these games we may cultivate in our children the three-fold revenue of which Goethe speaks-reverence for one's self, reverence for all persons and things around us and reverence for God. Through the games too and through the nature talks in connection with them I think the children catch glimpses of that "unity" with which Froebel was so filled. They become conscious of the fact that while all helps each, yet each must help all. Of course the Kindergartner must be able to sing. If she has a piano and can play so much the better. If not she can "tra la la" a march and her boys will help her by whistling. One advantage in this method is she can sing her direction. I speak from experience.

But you say what of the gifts—Froebel's own tools? How can she use them? I have found that a 1st or 2nd gift lesson can very nicely be given to a good large circle of children of different attainments. It must be varied with song and story and drawing, and the 2nd gift with building on the floor or a table in the middle of the circle. This I have tried with success. The children always are very fond of laying forms, especially geometrical forms on the floor with disconnected slats, and form lessons can very easily be given in the circle with connected slats. I should think, too, that the "color wheel" and "color tops" would be a pleasant and profitable variation.

The building and laying gifts are harder to manage. They are tools which one must be content to use sparingly for lessons, or for dictation. However, there is compensation in the fact that the children can have more time for free invention and putting into form original thought—in one word for that self-activity which aids so greatly in the child's mental and spiritual growth which is the real heart and life of the Kindergarten.

Drawing both on paper and on the blackboard with white or black or colored crayons is a tool that can be made use of almost continually, for I have found children do love it. They fear nothing, from a "brownie" to the "house that Jack built," and it encourages thought and tends to all—sided development.

Clay work I have carried on with 50 children. Certainly it was hard. So was the washing of the chubby, dirty little hands. I will not say that the results were finished works of art, but they represented thought and character. If one can only take the time children can be trained to sew, prick occasionaly, fold papers, &c., by themselves sometimes, while we are attending to another class, which requires individual attention.

One difficulty of leaving children alone is some pretty bead or bit of colored chalk may find its way into some little chap's pocket; but compensation says, "There is a chance to develop ownership;" not only so but one often gets a hint in this way as to the child's real likes. We must beware of thinking it stealing.

I think that in a Kindergarten it is ESPECIALLY NECESSARY that we SHOULD LEAVE the Children sometimes—perhaps I might say pretty often—to work alone, no difference how many assistants we may have. It develops that responsibility and independence that must be cultivated in the Primary School. It would make the transition to the Primary not so great; it would be an immense help to the Primary teacher, and it would tend to unite the Kindergarten more closely with the other grades. I feel very sure that was Froebel's idea, and it would assist in bringing about that day so ardently longed for by all when the Kindergarten shall become a recognized part of the public school system.

I think very few of us teachers or Kindergartners realize what a very great help our older little boys and girls might be to us, especially little girls from $5\frac{1}{2}$ to $6\frac{1}{2}$ years of age who have perhaps been with us a year or two. Their power of imitation is so strong that they do exactly as we do; then as they always like to "PLAY TEACHER" why not sometimes let them be *real* teachers and help us as we encourage them to help mother in the home.

This year in June while my students were being examined they were out of Kindergarten in the morning and for five days I was left with from 45 to 60 children.

One morning, thanks to prepared work in my student's boxes, we had sewing, pricking, drawing, invention with anchor blocks, and papers and straw going on at different tables at the same time. The morning was a success. I shall not say the children were quiet nor noiseless; but neither were those other children of

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nature, the BIRDS AND THE BOOKS which we heard on that bright spring morning right outside our open windows!

One day there were 56 present. The trees, the flowers, the gentle breeze all seemed to be calling us and after circle exercises away we went for a walk. We took the lake road, where I suppose hundreds will to-day enjoy the regatta on those lakes of which we Dartmouth people are so justly proud.

Mrs. Dustan very kindly invited us into their beautiful woods, where to my consternation they one and all began gathering dozens of little plants and tiny trees to show the roots of which we had previously talked. They not only ran, shouted, laughed and had what they called a good time; but some at least noticed exquisite combination of light and shade and the coloring of the tree-tops in the sunshine.

It is unnecessary to say that I, with some difficulty, counted them as we came out of the wood to make sure that no one had got away? We then called on Mrs. Woodbury and she invited us into her beautiful grounds and not only did not say " keep off the grass," but she allowed them to sit down and gather daises and treated us to an imprompu lunch for which we showed our appreciation by singing a song. I felt that though I had not done much work yet nature had been their teacher that day! As for myself I felt I had been helped over a very hard place that I might never have to pass again.

You must excuse my referring to my own experience. all I can do, for I know so very very little of what others do in similar circumstances.

There have been days and weeks when I have had to manage all alone, excepting when some thoughtful mother or young lady would come in and play some stirring march for us, and we would have what children in the home, at bed-time, consider a regular romp.

I have found that while the children learned a little less when alone with myself, they learned it more definitely; and while they did less work to take home and that was more imperfectly finished yet I knew them better and had more influence over them.

Sometimes the strain is exceedingly great, almost unbearable, still that can be obviated greatly by planning the work well and

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Regarding the equipment at the start, I think, the seats and tables for 50 children cost about \$35; while the materials including the solid gifts which last from year to year cost less than that sum.

The materials each year now cost about \$25 or little more, and that always includes some addition to our solid gifts. Then there is the piano and the tuning of it.

As I said my experience outside of our Kindergarten has been very small, but such as it is I have given it and I do hope some of the friends from the other provinces will give us of their larger, broader experience.

We deeply feel and deplore the fact that Kindergartens are not spreading more rapidly in our Maritime Provinces, but it is just this difficulty of managing without assistance that is standing like a lion in the way, and which is keeping the Kindergarten in a state of struggle for its life.

SOME QUEER CHILDREN AND HOW TO DEAL WITH THEM.

By Mrs. Patterson.

(Provincial Norman School Kindergarten, Truro, N. S.)

I have called the children of whom I am to speak "queer;" but a misgiving comes over me that perhaps they are not so very odd after all, except in the sense in which the old Quaker used the term, when, after denouncing the world of folks as queer, he added, admitting to his wife the fact that had slowly dawned on his mind, "Perhaps thee and me's a little queer too."

That these children showed marked characteristics which brought them into special notice, and which called for careful discipline, and that in these cases the results of the treatment were especially satisfactory, is the only plea to be presented for such a title.

The first instance which I shall give is that of a very small, strong-willed, active boy of about four years of age, who came in to make me a neighbourly call one Sunday afternoon. He was

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followed a few minutes later by a little sister, who said that he was to go home at once. This he refused to do; whereupon she left, returning soon, however, with a direct command from his mother to come home. To my surprise, he still refused most decidedly to She then threatened to send an older sister to take him by force; but he replied, "Well, I don't care, she may come; but she can't get me, for I won't go, so there!"

I had said little during all this, listening to the conversation with mixed feelings. I will confess that I felt flattered by the child's impulse to come, and his desire to stay, and I could not willingly insist on his leaving lest, he should misunderstand my motive. On the other hand, I dared not uphold him in an act of direct/disobedience. Weighing the matter carefully I decided to work indirectly. Calling him to a seat near by I suggested telling him a story about a giant.

Then followed the tale of Goliath of Gath, and, as I pictured to him the brave shepherd boy who came out so fearlessly with sling and stones, boldly asserting his belief in the near presence of God as his Helper in subduing the foe, I could note by the flashing eye and deep quick breath that the soldier spirit was fully aroused in my little hero. His imagination began to play in a most lively manner, and several times the story was interrupted by such exclamations as, "I can fight a giant," or, "Yes, there was a big giant came on our back platform once, and I just pulled out my sword and killed him, this way," suiting the action to the word.

On finishing the story I added, in answer to one of these excited remarks, "There are some giants you don't seem to be able to fight. There's one strange giant whom we cannot see, who can make himself very small, and who slips into our hearts and tries to make us do what he says, and I'm afraid you're not strong enough to drive him out." "Yes, I am," he asserted indignantly, "I can drive him right out." "Well," I said, "he's a strong fellow, and I notice he has been at you this very afternoon, and I shall be sorry if you are not able to fight him." Then, watching the determined little face, I described his coming to see me, his reception of his mother's message, the temptation to stay and enjoy himself as he had planned, and his yielding so easily to the

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small, ame in le was whispered suggestions of the strong tempter; and, as the whole scene came to him in a new light, he straightened himself up and said, "He's there and I can fight him." Then he added presently, "I can feel him, he's giving me a pain in my stomach now!" and getting up he marched off home with the air of a conqueror, which indeed he was.

Again, one of the most difficult cases I have had to deal with recently is that of a placid, quiet child, an uncommunicative little girl, very slow to obey. There is no disagreeable look of obstinacy in her face; one sometimes wonders if she has heard what was said, as she calmly goes on her own way, when a direction has been given, simply looking at you without change of countenance. But she hears, and if so disposed will obey, taking her own time, however, about it. The mother's experience seems much the same as ours,—this strange reticence and apparent inattention, even amounting to indifference, combining to build up a wall between the two.

A few weeks ago, during marching time in Kindergarten, a little boy laid a small tin whistle on the piano for safe-keeping. Some moments later I noticed my very reserved little girl looking intently at something which she held in the palm of her hand. Glancing down as she passed me I recognized at once Robert's whistle. Finding that her secretiveness was presenting a new and dangerous phase, without giving time for others to notice what she had done, I quietly led her into another room where we could be alone.

Usually in such cases, I avoid asking direct questions at first, dreading the hardening influence which comes from the almost inevitable falsehood following the sudden facing of the charge of wrong-doing. A little quiet talk, setting things in a clear light, helps to allay nervousness, and strengthens the will towards confession.

But in the case of this child, as I had supposed, the difficulty was to induce her to open her lips at all. After vain efforts to get her to speak I was beginning to feel baffled, when it occurred to me to ask her if she had ever heard anything about God. A slight nod in the affirmative was my reward. I then asked her if she had heard of the evil spirit who goes about doing all he can to keep us from loving God, coaxing us to disobey Him, and

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leading us into danger. To my surprise this seemed news to her and brought the first word to her lips. No, she had not heard of him; and evidently she wanted to hear. She was greatly interested in what I had to tell her, and was ready to confess.

After this it was an easy matter to show her, not only how she came to take the whistle, but also that her very refusal to speak

was the result of the tempter's planning. The next day when, in the course of a story, some mention was made of temptation, several children began to tell what they would do if the evil spirit came to tempt them; and among the voices I heard this reticent little girl say in a low clear tone, "I would talk."

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Not long since I had occasion to talk to a heedless, impetuous boy who had been saucy to one of the pupil-teachers the previous day. This boy had been carefully trained at home to apologize politely after committing any rudeness, and had this morning several times repeated to the teacher his formula of "I'm sorry."

I had previously suggested to her not to notice him particularly, or treat him as a member of the class, until he seemed sincere in his regret. My intention was not, however, to leave him any length of time without employment.

Shortly after the classes began their work I took him for a few minutes' walk with me through the building. As we paused here and there I put some apparently irrelevant questions to him. Amongst others I asked him how we know what things are right to do and what things are wrong. At first he seemed to think he didn't know, but when urged he said, "Oh, we grow big and

Although the boy was not five years old, I felt sure from my knowledge of his home that he would hear much of missionary work, so I replied, "I don't think that can be the way, for you know the heathen children don't get sense to do right when they grow big. How do you suppose we can tell what is right and what is wrong?" "Well," he said after a little thought, "there's the Bible." Standing on this plane he was soon convinced of his obligation to be courteous as well as obedient, and was ready to condemn his conduct of the previous day.

Just before returning to the Kindergarten, however, he reminded me that he had already told Miss T. that he was sorry. "But were you really sorry?" I replied. "Oh, well," he said

hesitatingly, "I—didn't care." "Well," I said, "if you say you are sorry when you are not really sorry, it is telling what isn't just true. You'll have to be careful about that. Now, if I were Miss T., I shouldn't want a boy in my class who behaved as you did yesterday, and I daresay she doesn't care much about having you either. I think your best plan is to go right to her and ask if she is willing to have you."

This possible consequence of his behavior seemed to affect him quite seriously; and much to my pleasure he accepted the suggestion, going directly to her, and making his request very earnestly

and with much apparent sincerity.

In each of these three cases I felt that the real point gained was this:—the child willingly acknowledged the right and deliberately chose to follow it. There was a direct facing about from evil to good, without the least compulsion from outside.

There are some who hold the mistaken notion that the Kindergarten is a place where the child is allowed to do just as he likes, follows the bent of his own inclination in all things, and so, they say, "Of course things move on smoothly." Their reasoning is that we hold the child's individuality in such reverence that we refrain from any interference with its development. According to their views we simply "stand and wait." But these fail to distinguish between systematic coercion, and the awakening of a deeper principle in the child's nature, which shall become an active force in guiding him aright. It is true that our watch-word is "Child-study," but for that very reason our motto is not "Hands off."

That the question of management is often a very difficult one must be admitted. Some teachers who possess other needful qualities in a marked degree, lack the indispensable power of control, and lacking this make utter and ignominious failure. Others succeed in maintaining good order by dint of much wear and tear of body and mind. On the other extreme, there are a few teachers who, possessing a strong will, fulfil to the letter their ideal of perfect order, which to them is a synonym for perfect stillness, and the result is a silence that can be felt, an unnatural quiet that gives one an impulse to scream, or do anything to relieve the tension under which the children must be suffering. But too evidently this sort of order is approved by many.

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It was said in my hearing lately that a teacher must have a 'cast-iron will' to get on in one of our country schools. Now if this means anything it means that the child's will must be kept in utter subjection to the will of the teacher, by force if necessary,the law of "might is right" must rule. The fact that children are responsible beings, endowed with will-power to be trained and developed, not broken, is here overlooked. We fail too often to realize the true position which these children occupy, and how much depends on our treatment of them. Their time of childhood is short, and the future, not far distant, will require of them determination and strength of character as well as physical health and intellectual power. But, in the meantime, they are only children, and we must bear in mind that the child's moral nature is subject to the same conditions of weakness as his physical and intellectual natures. His knowledge of right and wrong is limited, he lacks power to govern and control himself, he can exercise but little self-restraint. We are not so unreasonable as to require him to lift a heavy weight or to solve a difficult problem, nor should we expect his moral condition to be otherwise than weak.

As with regard to his intellectual nature our aim should be to awaken the child to self-activity, so, morally, the end in view should also be to render him independent of others in gaining the power of self-control. One of the first means to be considered towards this end is the smoothing of the way; we may "gather out the stones" and "cast up the highway" by lessening friction, and by removing causes of temptation, and means of wrong-doing.

All this is good, but times will come to us all, children not excepted, when duty steps in as duty, pure and simple, presenting little that is attractive; when, even though sugar-coated, the pill is certainly a pill.

Now, if in such cases, the child is to do right, it must be by force of will; the only question being, shall it be by force of another person's will, or by exercise of his own will? If by force of another's will, in what condition is the child left when that will to which he is bound is withdrawn? Not having been accustomed to stand alone, lacking the power which can come only from selfeffort, he meets not only failure, but loses that incentive to higher progress which comes with each success, however small.

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While helping him to master arithmetic and algebra and geometry, etc., we must not neglect to help him to attain strength of character. This can only be done by leading him to see the right clearly, by influencing him to desire it, and by encouragement to deliberate action. To be truly developing the exercise must be prompted by the child's own heart; "true ethics are central and go from the soul outward." Help thus given will be strengthening. The child who receives the right amount of assistance at the right time does not crave unnecessary help. He thoroughly enjoys the exercise of his own power, and prefers the result of personal effort, for such action is "delightful in the doing and the effect remains."

The inability to see the right clearly is often a source of weakness to the child. He does not recognize it as right, or he has a distorted image of it, because, for the time being, it is in opposition to his wishes. He needs to see it from a distance, to get a glimpse of it from an independent stand-point. Feeling it to be an interference with his pleasure, he cannot judge fairly, and he needs to get out of himself in order to see himself. Often a story showing similar conditions in the life of another, or of an imaginary person will serve this purpose as nothing else can. Truth is thus attractively held up in a strong light, showing its full beauty and fairness, and may be left to work its own purpose. In dealing with the easily affected child-nature, it may be wiser often for us to omit the open condemnation of, "Thou are the man."

In the first illustration given, where the boy refused to go home when told, the story served first to take his attention away from himself, and then to fix it on a parallel case, not too similar, where he saw the battle fought between right and wrong, and, becoming enthusiastic over it, wished himself in the midst of the fight. On the other hand, direct reference to his disobedience would have antagonized him and aroused the spirit of self-defence, blinding him entirely to a right view of his action.

In each of the other two cases cited there seemed to be lack of real knowledge of the active power of evil, and of the personal responsibility resting even on each little child to "abhor that which is evil, and cleave to that which is good."

It rests, mainly with the mother, it is true, to train the child's spiritual nature; but her work is necessarily modified by outside

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influences, and what influence is greater than the school where he spends nearly one half his waking hours for five days in the week. The formation of character is not an act, but a process. It is not the work of one day in seven, or of half an hour a day, but whoever has the oversight of the child for the time being has the responsibility. And in many cases, where the home training lacks the true element, a much more difficult task confronts the

It is useless to say that the work of the school is purely intellectual, that the teacher's work does not include the training of the moral nature, for what affects one part affects all. The very manner of the teacher has its influence for good or ill, developing a love of truth by faithfulness, awakening earnestness by sympathy, or arousing hatred by sarcasm.

The burden of work is not increased through the giving of due consideration to the child's character, but rather diminished. The attitude of the teacher towards the child becomes sympathetic, helpful, in the endeavor to strengthen the child's own will towards right doing. The children, associated as far as possible with the teacher in carrying on the work of the school, feel their personal responsibility for the character of the work done.

And again, in cases of direct wrong-doing the teacher is not tempted to look on the affair as a personal conflict between himself and the child. His centre of interest is changed. Instead of feeling the matter to be one of resistance to his authority, or refusal to acknowledge his will to be law, he sees before him a struggle between strength and weakness, between the child and the powers of darkness, in a case where he may put forth his hand to help the weak to gain the victory.

But before closing, I wish to ask for suggestions on a point which presents great difficulty to my mind. What shall be done with the child who tells deliberate falsehoods, for the mere pleasure, apparently, of creating a sensation?-with the boy who, not yet five years old, will tell you, for instance, with all calmness and deliberation, that "Our baby died this morning at six o'clock," when there is not a shadow of truth in the statement?

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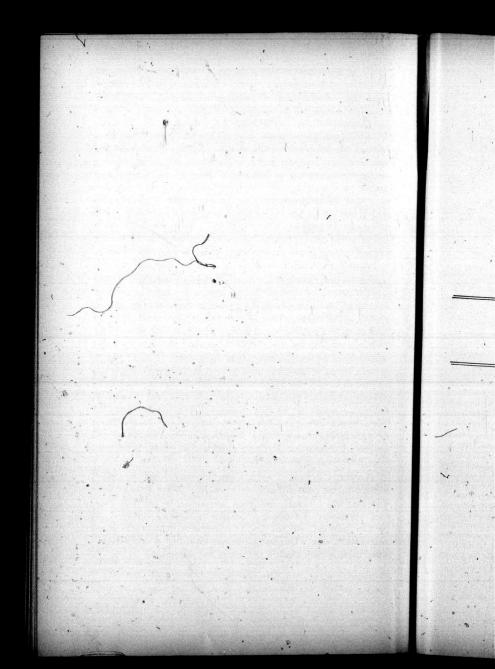
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APPENDIX.

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[THE following Paper was read before the Dominion Educational Association, Toronto, 1895. At the meeting of 1898 it was referred to the committee on resolutions. It is published here for the convenience of a special committee and to facilitate discussion when its report is presented at the next meeting.

THREE GREAT REFORMS—HOW MAY WE HASTEN THEM?

By A. H. MACKAY, LL. D.

[Superintendent of Education, Nova Scotia.]

One of the special functions of a Dominion Educational Association as compared with simply provincial conventions, is the correlation of movements leading to important reforms, which from their nature can not be carried out or even initiated in one province alone, or in one section of the English-speaking world.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

One of these is the reform of our weights and measures in order to throw out of the common schools (Elementary, or Public Schools, as you say in Ontario), the compound rules so called. This not only would lessen the tangle of unnecessary Mathematics now forced on young pupils, but it would give time for a more thorough training in accuracy and rapidity in the great mass of computation work more or less necessary to the every day business of life. The Mathematics of the nondecimal scales of notation can be acquired in the High Schools, by those who need it, at an age when the whole can be understood and assimilated in one hundredth part of the time. This would cause on the part of pupils, a great saving of severe effort, which could be utilized as every one knows, in some more practical way.

But this change in the school work implies necessarily a change in the system of weights and measures used in the whole country,-not in one province only, but in every province of the Dominion, and for a similar reason in the British Empire and the United States as well. If the change could be introduced without much difficulty, every one would say at once, let the change come. The additional simplicity of all common and even uncommon calculations would be a tremendous boon especially to the world of trade and commerce, once the difficulties incident to the act of changing should pass away. Then again the decimal system would put the whole English world of trade and commerce more in touch with the rest of the world, a matter which is becoming so strongly felt in business circles, that not a single great English trade congress is now held without a discussion of the necessity

It is now thirty-one years since the metric system was legalized in the United States, and nearly a quarter of a century since it was legalized in Canada. Our Governments have said to the people, "We give you full liberty to use the new and more simple system." But there is no one showing how it is to be done. The more civilized we become, the more bounden we become to each other, the more difficult is it for the few to follow a different line from the multitude in matters having a

common relation to each. It becomes necessary, therefore, to organize for the simultaneous accomodation of all affected by such changes of common conventions, So long as we are content with the old, the Legislature is not going to disturb us with the compulsory adoption of any thing new for our benefit. For the Legislatures represent us. The last trade congresses held in Montreal, Canada, and in London, England, for example, revealed a growing anxiety in reference to the matter. English catalogues are beginning to give their quotations in the metric as well as in the old English system, for it is found that foreign buyers being better acquainted with the metric system, order German or French goods at higher prices than the English, because they do not understand the English quotations so readily. In all foreign exporting establishments it is necessary to have clerks understanding and using the two systems. But these business firms are not the people to organize for the general introduction of a change of this kind. They may call for clerks who can do the foreign work as well as the home work. They must accomodate themselves to the conditions they find Their business is trade, not education Whose is this work then? Is it not the work of the educators? But the educators cannot well begin by changing the customs in one province or state. The introduction must be simultaneous, probably throughout the whole Empire, at the very least throughout a continent.

I would therefore, suggest that this Association should appoint a Committee to cooperate with similar Committees which may be appointed by the National Educational Association of the United States, and the highest corresponding organizations in Great Britain and in the more important colonies. The object would be to coordinate a movement through the whole English-speaking world to impress on the Education Departments and ultimately on the Governments the advantage of a simultaneous change, and to prepare the people for the same, so that the inconvenience caused would be reduced to a minimum. If the Dominion Parliament, for example, passed an Act this summer making it advantageous to use the metric instead of the old system, the Education Departments of our provinces could have matters so arranged that within one month the whole system could be practically well-known throughout every settlement in each province. The common metric standards are, I assume, now required to be in every school. bulletin from the Education Departments would direct the teacher to instruct each of his pupils to prepare and carry away from the school roughly accurate copies of the various school standards. Within one week every one of each family could have a very good idea of the new system. The old quotations of the market in every community, would very soon be converted into the new; and with very little more difficulty than the change of the old pounds, shillings and pence into dollars and cents a few years ago, we could now introduce the entire decimal system as soon as there is some authoritative intimation that the change is about to be everywhere adopted. Such an intimation is all that we are waiting for now. The only want is the co-ordinating commission or authority which every part of the English-speaking world will feel ready to acknowledge for such a purpose.

The scientific sections of the English-speaking people are practically a unit in favor of the system. In fact it would be a great relief to them, as they would then need only one system, whereas now they need two. If any wooden-headed Saxon does not like the system because the French were the first to put the new idea into effect and turn the same out into the world dressed in orthography Parisian—"metre,"—he can by simply re-cutting the tail of the dress-coat make it a very respectable English costume—"meter"—derived from the Greek, of which

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no one is jealous to-day. He can reflect that as the system is based on the size of the world its utilization after all must more particularly belong to that people who have the most extensive mortgage on the terrestrial sphere. And if such reflections do not smooth away his objections, then you have made a mistake, -it is not an Anglo-Saxon you have in hand at all.

Then the system is as natural as the present one, when we once become used to it, notwithstanding the largeness of the decimal ratio. The millimeter is the line. The centimeter is the breadth of the nail of the little finger. The decimeter is the handthe breadth of the palm. The meter is the stride or long pace. The square millimeter is the point. The square centimeter is the square nail. The square decimeter is the palm. The square meter is not much more liberal as a unit of "squatting room "than the square yard, but it is no worse. The cubic millimeter is a very fair grain of volume. The cubic centimeter every one has at the top of his finger—the top of his little finger if he is a very great man. And if he is not altogether too big for it, his fist may be enclosed in a cubic decimeter box. And he can have his whole body shipped in a cubic meter box, with room for sufficient packing to enable him to sleep comfortably during transit. As the human body has about the same specific as water, the cubical tip of his little finger gives him a convenient unit of weight—the gram. While the cubical box into which he can thrust his fist gives a convenient unit for the measure of capacity—the liter. These natural measures are just as accurate as the original natural Troy grain, the original king's foot, or the original English, Flemish, Scotch, or French elbow. And if the present terms are too cumbrous there is more than one way in which we might suggest the reduction of their size to a simple monosyllable, or at least to a dissyllable. Thus the technique of all calculations would be enormously simplified, and so would the course of study in the common or elementary schools, which should be complete in itself for all common practical purposes. And after all, such a course, I believe, would be the most logical (from psychological considerations) as well as the most economical introduction to the High School course, while it would be imposing no unassimilable, hardlabor gymnastics on the overwhelming majority, who can never take a High School

SPELLING.

Another much more important and much more difficult reform, which when it comes will save us two years of the effort now uselessly, and I believe injuriously, made in the eight years of our common or elementary school course, is the reform of English spelling. Such a reform cannot be rapidly introduced without the organization of a body which would be recognized throughout the English-speaking world as a sufficient authority for the adoption of changes recommended. The duty of originating a movement for the creation or evolution of such a body lies, primarily, I think, with the higher educational organizations. But why should we seek to change our beautiful English spelling? I fancy I hear some one say who takes great delight in revising with the most precise accuracy the proofs of some of our most perfect specimens of books or magazines. Now I am sorry to say anything which might appear to value at a low rate the accomplishment of perfect spelling, and more especially if that should be the sole accomplishment of which any individual present is chiefly proud. To change the orthodox spelling of English would be to sweep away from him the one accomplishment which he most highly values. What would the saving of millions of dollars to the world be for him whom it should rob of the power of using his sole accomplishment? Simplest vanity! and he is therefore ready to die with his head to the field and his feet to the foe, or in any

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other position in which he may fall. He will die a martyr for the ancient collocation of letters in a word. His fetich is Webster, or Worcester, or the Imperial, or some other little god, who was raised to the rank of a letter-constellation by his servile worship of numerous and lesser fetiches, including the ancient anonymous scholar (?) who first spelled sovereign with a "g," because he did'nt know better; of the man who thought he might as well stick an "I" into what is now our "could," in order that it might bristle a little more like it fellows—"would " and "should." Now every one understands that it is necessary for us to have some authority to follow; but when it comes to saying that we should adopt for ever and ever, the blunders made by ignorant people at different ages, because they are English now, without considering whether they might not be changed with a great deal of advantage to all concerned—this is a position none of us will take. A standard is necessary. But never let us cease seeking for a better standard, when the only one we have is grossly defective from so many points of view.

Is it so very defective? If you ask that question (as many whose attention had been called to the matter for the first time have asked), you must pardon my reference to what many will consider very commonplace facts. We cannot by a simple effort of memory recall what the acquisition of correct spelling cost us. For this reason. Good spellers commenced to spell accurately from the beginning of their reading career. The difficulty of spelling is all merged in their consciousness with the essential difficulty of all youthful learning in general. Many were impressed rather with their success as compared with others; so that their reminiscences in connection with spelling may be those of victory and pleasure. But when we observe the same operation going on at the present day, we see that the greatest worker in the orthographic line spends a very considerable portion of time, and utilizes for the memorizing of useless letters millions of brain cells. The effort is doubly injurious, first as a time-destrover, second, as a useless if not positively injurious mental wear. The latter I believe is positively injurious when we consider the more important mnemonical strata which by the same effort could be made a permanent part of the ever thinking and acting personality of the human soul. But I leave the psychological question for the time problem which of itself is enough to settle the fact that the evil is far too expensive to be tolerated for a single hour longer than necessary.

Dr. Morrell has stated that "eighteen-nineteenths of the men who fail in the civil service examinations fail in spelling, and all of us who have not failed in government examinations know very well what a cost of time and patience it is to have to recall the spelling of words we want to use. I am not ashamed to say that I sometimes do not know how to spell a word until I put it down in writing, and it commends itself to a sort of organ—I cannot call it sight or thought, it is something between the two, and an enormous amount of time is wasted in that way by all classes." He then goes on to show that the loss of the scanty time for education and its injurious mental effects are a great deal worse than the expense.

Will not those who have previously given attention to this subject, feel now the truth of the remark made by Richard Morris, Lecturer on English Language and Literature, at King's College, London, and author of several classic works on Historical English Grammar, when he stated that "adults by some good fortune or other have become proficients in the subject, and have managed to master the intricacies of our orthography, and have become what is rarely found, good spellers, no longer have a true appreciation of the obstacles they have surmounted. All the severity of the previous toil is forgotten and they feel little or no compassion for the young

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Were our read within tv intelligently. school now, representing it English langua is a larger alph not represent a times worse, w of the sounds it association. F 40 combination: an average their of our language spelled according The simple, eup can be spelled a phthisic, awe, co

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I remember con bet represented ce learners who are daily undergoing the drudgery and weariness imposed upon them by the mistakes and blunders of past generations."

When the Roman letters were adopted for the writing of English, it was the undoubted intention to write the English as phonetically as the Latin. If that were done from the earliest times we would now have a perfect history of the development of the language in the literature of the past down to the present day. But although the language changed, the scribes prescribed the same form of spelling, thus erasing so far as they had the power of doing it, all records of the course of evolution of the language, so that at the present day, I doubt if any one can tell when our vowel sounds "a," "e", and "i", for example, diverged from their continental values. In fact, the phonetic spelling of the middle-English "Ormulum" of 800 years ago, which probably made it an object of contempt to the contemporary scribes of the times, has turned out to be the best key in the hands of the philologist to unlock the arcanum of ancient Saxon orthoepy, as that of early English.

Were our language phonetic in its written form, our children could be taught to read within two or three weeks at the longest, anything about which they could talk intelligently. The most unpleasant and monotonous work of their early years at school now, would then vanish. Every sound having its sign and every sign representing its sound, the task is simply mastering some 40 signs. But now the English language has at least 200 signs, some computations put them at 563. This is a larger alphabet than the most of us thought we had mastered. But that does not represent all of the labor we have gone through, for to make the matter ten times worse, when you get one of these 563 signs you can not say for certain which of the sounds it should have, unless you have heard it before and memorized the association. For instance, the sound of "e" in meet is represented by no less than 40 combinations of letters; of "a" in mate, by 34; of "o" in note, by 34, etc. On an average there are said to be 14 different ways of writing the 40 different sounds of our language. The word scissors has been calculated to be capable of being spelled according to good English analogy in no less than 596,580 different ways. The simple, euphonious and beautiful name of this Queen City in the centre of Canada can be spelled according to good analogies Phthawelaughmnthough, Toronto. (See phthisic, awe, colonel, aught, mnemonics, Thames, though.)

Now the difficulty of spelling meets us at the threshold of school life. The short simple words first presented to the pupil are so unphonetic in their character that even in our Normal Schools there may yet be found some who argue that the phonic method might be better by an infinitesimal degree for the easy advance of the child, some, who contend that the phonetic method would have the advantage, others, that the "look and say" method might make a gain, and still others, that nothing after all is very much better than the old a, b, ab, e, b, eb, i, b, it.

Let us look accurately into our own experience. I was one of the good spellers, as it were by nature. In a three days' examination on twelve different papers the Examiners had not a single mark against me for a word misspelled. These were the days before I made much acquaintance with any other language than English. Since then my eye has been accustomed to very many examples of cognate words in other languages, as a general rule, more phonetically spelled. I have a suspicion that my eye has now grown more tolerant of an un-English spelling, especially if it deviates from the simpler forms of the same in other languages. But let me to my

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He

w the e and i Hisother cacies onger ity of examples, it was followed by facts producing the conviction that these letters represented rather uncertain sounds. Could was "could" but hould was not "hood," Enough was "enough"; but dough was not "duff." And he who could not readily cram such facts at six years of age, was, of course, a duffer. To the praise of my noble young chums be it said, such rapid changes of base, and such contradictory affirmations were revolting to the innocent consciousness of youth. But the rod was over them, and the spelling book under them, day after day, for years. One cut the school and bands of bondage by running off to sea. Others less bold pined for the day of freedom, in sulky conformity to the rules of the schoolroom. But I could cram. The spirit of game was in it. The winner always feels rewarded by his victory, and is stimulated to further exertion. Like the others, I had at first my faith in the teacher's word, that letters represented certain sounds. My faith required to be modified directly, and its formula might read "Letters represent very uncertain sounds." Eventually I rose to the highest generalization of the underlying principles, and said in my haste-" All men are liars." Unlike my more independent companions, I did not struggle against the constitution of things. I adjusted myself to my environment, and hence my survival, I presume.

Two things we had to study at home in those old days,—spelling and the multiplication table. The latter was nothing. We could discover the mystery of the whole table ourselves by the use of strokes upon our slates, pebbles on the roadside, or by the counting of our fingers. And then we had only fifty or sixty numbers to memorize. But words were innumerable to us; and the arrangement of letters beyond any general law which we could then discover. Our time at home and in school was principally absorbed in memorizing, by ear and eye, the collocations of letters which stood for words. The stars formed interesting clusters in the heavens; but our eyes were always directed to clusters of letters. The sepals and petals of the sweet wild flowers decking the roadside, were grouped in fascinating circles of living colors; but our eyes were doomed to grow dim on the black and white groups of letters. The bird's notes smote the ear with rapturous sensations; but the only hallowed pleasure for us was the successful sounding of grotesque arrangements of letters. Letters letters everywhere! We are becoming as literary as the Chinese.

"Spell Phthisic" (said our amiable and most conventional teacher, whom we all liked). Jim, a little cunning rebel as he was, answers, "T-i-s-i-c."

call July a little culturing report as he was, answers, 1-1-5-1-c.

"No, P-h-t-h-i-s-i-c," said the teacher, and the dialogue went on.

"Why do you spell it with a phth!"

"To show that it is from the Greek and meant consumption."

"Could'nt we know it to be from the Greek and meant consumption, without the phth?"

"Perhaps you could; but you would have to turn up the dictionary for it."

"And if you spell it with a *phth* you needn't turn up the dictionary, need you?"

"No, you blockhead, that is to say, if you knew Greek, the form of spelling would tell you that it was Greek."

"Do English people generally know Greek before they learn to spell English?"

"Of course not. What a foolish question?"

"Well, why did they make the word so that we have to learn Greek spelling before we learn English spelling?"

"Why, because that is the right way to spell, who ever heard of it being spelled any other way? And when you learn Greek it will strike you with much pleasure to see how simple the spelling and meaning of *Phthisic* would have been had you only known Greek before you learned to spell."

"Do all English people, then, learn Greek after they learn to spell so as to be struck with this great pleasure?"

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"Is that is compelled to one boy shoul some of the Elike Greek?"

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Now both custo is to him a purewhich the older tea it himself. But it, it the boy has had so before that is possil agglomerations of characters. "Of course not. But why do you ask?"

"Well,-I was only thinking. But how many do learn Greek?"

"Perhaps 20,000, according to the Encyclopædia."

"And how many learn English?"

"About 100,000,000."

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"And how many 20,000's are there in 100,000,000."

"About 5,000 of course. But what of that?"

"Is that not the same as if every one in a www larger than Pictou should be compelled to spend his time in learning English words with Greek spelling, so that one boy should have the pleasure of seeing, when he comes to study Greek, that some of the English words he learned were specied pretty much, although not exactly,

"You had better hold your tongue, Jim, you are a dangerous boy-to dare to question the proper way of spelling words, which I have by diat of careful labor for years become almost perfect in-in which I have attained more excellence than in You conceited, radical little scamp!-keep mum, and spell

Had Jim been able to quote in retort, what a few years afterwards was stated by one of the most eminent scholars in the English world, A. H. Sayce, Professor of Philology in the University of Oxford, and author of the international text-book, "The Science of Languages," which of the two would have wilted? Here it is, "English spelling has become a mere series of arbitrary combinations, an embodiment of the wild guesses and etymologies of a prescientific age, and the hap-hazard caprice of ignorant printers. It is good for little else but to disguise our language, to hinder education and to suggest false analogies."

The late Connop Thirwall, Bishop of St. David's, author of the "History of Greece," and classical examiner at the Universities of Cambridge and London, says, "I look upon the established system of spelling (if an accidental custom may be so called), as a mass of anomalies, the growth of ignorance and chance, equally repugnant to good taste and common sense."

Listen to the Right Hon. W. E. Gladstone, a statesmen as well as a scholar: "I often think that if I was a foreigner, and had to set about learning English, I would go mad. I honestly could say I cannot conceive how it is that he learns to pronounce English, when I take into account the total absence of rule, method and system, and all the auxiliaries that people usually get when they have to acquire something difficult of attainment." Max Müller adds, "that a child who believes what he is taught in learning to spell the English language, will hereafter believe anything." While Lord Lytton, the novelist, dramatist and poet, with no lack of vim, uses these words: "A more lying, round-about, puzzle-headed delusion than that by which we confuse the clear instincts of truth in our spelling was never concocted by the father of falsehood. How can a system of education flourish that begins with so monstrous a falsehood which the sense of hearing suffices to contradict?"

Now both custom and the law force us to consume years of a boy's life in what is to him a pure effort of cram, without the first glimmer of philological interest which the older teacher fancies the boy must somehow feel because the teacher feels it himself. But it is impossible for the teacher to transfer his feeling to the boy until the boy has had some of the teacher's experience. But the spelling must be crammed before that is possible the cramming of what must be to all young children arbitrary agglomerations of letters in many cases lacking the advantages of the Chinese

And what is the time lost in this work. About ten years ago at the suggestion of the then Superintendent of Education for the Province, Dr. Allison, I took some very accurate statistics for the solution of this problem in the town of Pictou, Nova Scotia, of whose schools I was then Principal. I prepared blank forms for each department to contain the names of all the pupils of each. The teacher was instructed to obtain from each parent or guardian an accurate statement of the time taken by each pupil in the study of home lessons—of each home lesson. From these returns it was a very simple thing to calculate the percentage of home study absorbed in the department of orthography. From the time tables in each department, the percentage of time devoted to orthography in the school room was computed. The gross results were briefly as follows:

That is forty-nine per cent, of the whole time of study at home, and in school for the first six years was absorbed in spelling lessons. Or over forty per cent. of the first eight years of school time. But making allowance for other work done incidentally in connection with the spelling, such as the study of definitions, etc., and of incidental reading, expression and elocution in the higher classes, more than twentyfive per cent. of the first eight years of school work was absorbed entirely in overcoming the difficulties of our orthography, such as do not now exist in simplified phonetic languages as German, Italian, Spanish, Danish, and even Welch. is nothing more clearly proved to my mind than that English children is handicapped to the extent of two years' work by the difficulties of our orthography as compared with those of the nationalities above referred to. What a tremendous boon a relief of two years' work would be to our crowded course of study in our elementary schools! What a splendid opportunity would be given for the study of the correct and fluent use of the English language under such circumstances! Now the most of our time is spent in drudgery in what is not English language at all, though so closely connected with it as to create in advance a distaste for the study of the language itself by the unfortunate association.

In the London schools, and in the schools of several of the larger cities in the United States, similar investigations have been made, all proving that the loss of time is from two to three years. Such, beyond the limit of any reasonable doubt, is the time lost in this one feature of our system.

But there may often be worse than lost time in it. Of all tasks for young children, spelling with its polyglot affinities, its half phonetic, half hodge-podge orthography, is the first, as a general rule, to beget a distaste for school life. Those naturally crammers pass. And here we get a glimpse of another possible effect. I fear our spelling in the elementary stages of school life tends to sift from the great current of potential scientific scholarship in its earliest manifestations, the more orginal and inventive minds. The assimilator passes, the inventor is disgusted. No wonder we have no Shakespeares in these days of spelling drill. No wonder so many geniuses arise outside the ranks of the school-trained. Chinese culture may be very delightful to those once intoxicated with it, but the science-loving, commonsense Japs will conquer. "But surely the evil of our system is exaggerated by this presentation?" I fancy some one says. That is just what I wish to have carefully examined.

Max Muller says: "English spelling is a national misfortune, and in the keen international race between all the countries of Europe, it handicaps the English child

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to a degree that seems incredible till we look at statistics." Again he makes a rough quantitative estimate: "Millions of children at school might learn in one year, and with real advantage to themselves, what they now require four or five years to learn, and seldom succeed in learning at all." Read the treatise of Dr. J. H. Gladstone, F. R. S., of the School Board of London, in which he deduces from English statistics conclusions as strong as these I have presented. a line: "If English orthography represented English pronunciation as closely as the Italian does, at least half of the time and expense of teaching to read and spell would be saved." This is strong testimony to the extent to which the English child in his education, and the English language in its adoption by other races are handicapped by our spelling. Gladstone's researches have been very extensive and thorough. Apart from its spelling, the English language is the most concisely expressive, it is said, of all languages; and by reforming its spelling, besides removing the tremendous difficulty of its orthography, it might be made seventeen per cent. more concise. Such considerations, I have no doubt, prompted the following expression from Jacob Grimm, the great German philologist: "The whimsical orthography of the English language stands in the way of its universal acceptance." As compared with the German, the report of the Faculty of the University of Mississippi to the State Legislature, in 1879, makes the following statement in clause 2:-"Spelling hinders our people from becoming readers, (1) by the length of time it takes to learn; (2) by the dislike of reading it induces. An average German learns,

In this connection I quote a few lines from an address of Professor F. A. March, published in a valuable circular from the Bureau of Education at Washington under the National Government of the United States: "Three years are spent in our primary schools in learning to read and spell a little. The German advances as far in a twelve-month. A large fraction of the school time of millions is thus stolen from useful study and devoted to the most painful drudgery. Millions of years are just lost in every generation. Then it affects the intellect of beginners."

He goes on: "We ought then to try and improve our spelling from patriotic motives. If this do not move us, it may be worth while to remember that it has been computed, that we throw away \$15,000,000 a year paying teachers for addling the brains of our children with bad spelling, and at least \$100,000,000 more paying printers and publishers for sprinkling our books and papers with silent letters."

Were our spelling system perfectly phonetic, mechanical reading and spelling could be mastered in less than one year. It is perhaps not generally known that in foreign countries, and even in America and England, our language is taught in some schools at first from phonetic books.

They then pass on to the ordinary English, and find the process to pay. Mrs. E. B. Burnz, of New York, says: "The phonetic teaching in the Fisk school (at Nashville), as elsewhere, proved beyond all cavil, that with phonetic books as much could be accomplished in four months, in teaching to read. as by a year with the common method, and moreover, it showed that there is no difficulty experienced by children in passing from phonetic to the ordinary printed book." How much more william Colburne, of Sturminster, England, is quoted as follows: "My little Sydney. Who; is now a few months more than four years old, will read any phonetic book without the slightest hesitation; the hardest names or the largest words in the Old or New Testament form no obstacle to him. And how long do you think it took me—for I am his teacher—to impart to him this power? Why, something less than eight

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he keen lish child hours! You may believe it or not, as you like, but I am confident that not more than that amount of time was spent on him, and that was in snatches of five minutes at a time, while tea was getting ready. I know you will be inclined to say! 'All that sery well, but what is the use of reading phonetic books? He is still as far off, and may be farther from reading romanic books.' But in this you are mistaken. Take another example, his next elder brother, a boy of six years, has had a phonetic education so far. What is the consequence? Why reading in the first stage was so delightful and easy a thing to him, that he taught himself to read romanically, and it would be a difficult matter to find one boy in twenty, of a corresponding age, that could read half so well as he can in any book." Am I not then under the mark, when I say that two years of school work in Canada are uselessly wasted, and worse than uselessly wasted in spelling.

But suppose some one thinks, "what is said is all true, but it would be a pity to spoil the etymology of our language." I shall then produce a greater authority than the thinker to settle his qualms. Max Müller, Professor of Sanskrit and comparative philology at Oxford, England, author of "History of Ancient Sanskrit Literature," and of "The Science of Languages," shall speak: " An objection often made to spelling reform is that it would utterly destroy the historical etymological character of the English language. Suppose it did. What then? Language is not made for scholars and etymologists, and if the whole race of English Etymologists were really swept away by the introduction of spelling reform I hope they would be the first to rejoice in sacrificing themselves in so good a cause. But is it really the case that the historical continuity of the English language would be broken by the adoption of phonetic spelling, and that the profession of the Etymologist would be gone forever? I say no, most emphatically, to both propositions." On the same point, Professor Savce, of Oxford, says: "We are told to reform our alphabet would destroy the etymologies of our words. Ignorance is the cause of so rash a statement." Henry Sweet, President of the Philological Society, London, says: "The notion that the present spelling has an etymological value was quite popular twenty-five years ago, but this view is now entirely abandoned by philologists; only a few half-trained dabblers in the science uphold it." The regent of the "Illinois Industrial University," Gregory, puts it in this way: "Small men will still decry, and ignorant men will deplore the movement to improve English spelling, but it has within it the force of truth and the energy of a great want."

J. A. H. Murray, Past President of the Philological Society of England, and editor of the great Historical English Dictionary, the greatest compendium of English language lore ever projected, says: "The question of etymology was long ago settled and done with by philologists." It is pitiful to see an expression of Archbishop Trench—uttered, when English philology was in its prescientific babyhood, and scarcely anything was known of our language in its earlier stages save the outward forms in which it had come down to us in manuscript or print—quoted against the rational reconstruction of our spelling. But it is also unfair to Dr. Trench himself, who then stood so well in the front of philology, that we may be perfectly sure that if leisure had been given him to keep pace with the progress of the science, he would now have been second to no one as a spelling reformer. For philology has long since penetrated the mere drapery and grappled with the study of words' not as dead marks, 'but as living realities, and for these living realities it first of all demands, 'Write them as they are; give us facts and not fictions to handle.'"

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real etymologist, the historic student of language, would rejoice above measure to barter every 'historical' item in our spelling during the last 300 years for a strict phonetic picture of the language as spoken at that distance in the past."

Three years required to master English reading and spelling when only a few months would be necessary with a proper spelling! Let our farmers, our laborers and artisans, think of the enormous tax put upon them by this system. Thousands of them cannot find sufficient time to get even a good common school education, a fact largely due to our mode of spelling. Think of the time spent, the sacrifice endured by many of our poorer people, to send their children to school for a short time. But in what are they required to spend their time there? First and foremost, in learning for at least two years of their time, what is not of the smallest sensible value to them, and what, in addition, disgusts tens of thousands with everything associated with school education. What would not those two years allow us to do in our course of study? More language drill—useful in its results; more natural science teaching—attractive in its subjects, preception-strengthening in its influence, reason-training in its effects. Less slavery, more love for study, fewer rebels, more recruits for advanced knowledge. Nothing to lose, everything to gain.

The first names in linguistic scholarship and philology in England and America, have declared in favor of reform, the first names in all ranks.

But it may be urged that language is a natural growth, and that no artificial effort can control it. All right. Then let it grow and remove the artificial and false system of spelling which partly represents the language and partly misrepresents it, leaving no record of its growth when it does grow. Then you may turn around and say, "Oh! it was the spelling I meant. Spelling is a natural growth, and nothing artificial can control it." Indeed! We all know that nothing is more scriptions of law to preserve its present unnatural and injurious form. All we want is some authority to change a bad standard into a good standard. Such an authority must have as absolute power to change for the better as the present authority to preserve for the worse or the past authorities to originate the "sanctified confusion" we are condemned to worship with the sacrifice of our substance and our children.

Artificial authority has made the Italian and Spanish language nearly perfectly phonetic. In 1876, a powerful society was formed in Germany for the simplification of its spelling which even then was almost phonetic. In 1880, by ministerial decree, the simplified spelling went into effect in all the elementary schools, and in April, of 1885, into all the higher schools. That was ten years ago, but the huge inertia of the English people has not yet been overcome, although they are the peculiar people who have really something to reform, and much to gain from it. Academy has come in ahead of us, with the object, it is stated, "of making the task of learning the language more easy by making its orthography more logical, and thereby to facilitate its use by foreigners." We, with a spelling much more illogical are not yet moving, and with an orthography much more formidable to the foreigner, neglect to utilize to the extent within our reach the unparalleled inducements to acquire the English language to-day. In the new Dictionary now being published under the direction of the French Academy, changes are proposed to be made in about 1,200 common words which are to go into use immediately. And these will to some degree change the "look" of the French page, but they will not make the literature any less legible to the reader who has had an hour's practice.

There would be some inconveniences in the changing of our orthography; but they would not be at all serious. It would not make the old literature illegible. It would in fact enable our young people to read in our old orthography at an earlier age than they can now, as some of the experiments to which I have referred seem to prove. Within one year the new orthography would look all right to the most fastidious worshipper of our present silent letters. While the present system would look even more forbidding than that in vogule two or three centuries ago does now. Let us briefly review some of the advantages of the proposed reform.

- Our present alphabet is defective, redundant, and inconsistent; and is not at all used as all alphabets were originally designed to be used, and as they practically used.
- 2. The spelling of English was always changing in its early history although unfortunately not, in conformability to the changes in the language itself and no good reason can ever be assigned why it should be permanently congealed into the rigid, everlasting form of a particular stage of development in the seventeenth century.
- 3. The spelling of many languages has been reformed by the authority of learned academies or governments, as ours is by similar authority restrained from undergoing reform. It is evident, that all required to reform our spelling is the creation or evolution of a rational authority for the purpose.
- 4. It would save at least two years of useless, if not injurious effort in our schools, and give so much more time for the cultivation of the useful, which all of us feel the need of.
- 5. It would shorten all printed and written matter to the extent of perhaps seventeen per cent., thus cheapening all of our literature from the newspaper to the encyclopædia by one-sixth. Every six dollar price would be reduced to five.
- 6. It would make the written words the everlasting records of the changes taking place in the language, and thus give philology a chance in the future which has to a great extent been lost forever by the false and mischievous conceit of the past.
- 7. It would tend to make dialects and provincial accent disappear, and to facilitate the growth of a uniform pronunciation, since analogy would not be misleading as at present.
- 8. It would enable foreigners to learn the English language with infinitely more ease; and with its present potentiality for telegraphic and commercial correspondence over all the world, would rapidly tend to make English the universal language.
 - 9. It would be a great advantage to all English missionary enterprises.
- 10. In a word: This reform would tend to make school life more happy and moral, school work more useful and extensive, literary products and efforts less expensive, and therefore general learning more advanced and profound. And in the great rivalry of European and Asiatic powers, which is becoming keener and keener from year to year, it would give the English races the critical preponderance, as admitted by Grimm, which would determine the ultimate universality of their language, as well as their supremacy in commerce, adventure and arms.

Next I may be asked: "Why have we not this spelling reform already, when its advantages are so great, and the array of names in its favor so authoritative?" I would answer: For more than one reason. It has not been brought to the notice of

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our people. Even our representatives and government officials, in the great majority of cases, have never yet happened to think of it. But the special difficulty is general agreement upon the most practical scheme of reform. wanting no change until a complete phonetic one may be made, which can embrace all languages. Others, simply radical, will accept nothing less than a perfect phonetic system for English, which they would form by retaining all the useful letters at present used, and making new letters for the remaining sounds. And still others will grant nothing more than the omission of silent letters.

This is another illustration of the necessity of making an effort to secure an authoritative deliverance which shall command the assent of at least a decided majority. The essential values of the reasons determining the conviction of the majority will undoubtedly in the long run determine the final acquiescence of all. Is not the joint authority of the "Philological Society of England" and of the "American Philological Association," greater in a matter of this kind, than a oneman dictionary which merely professes to re-utter the crude orthography uttered

WRITING

And finally, when we spell phonetically why should we not write phonographically? Once on a time the artistic monks indulging in the leisure of their monasteries could make each letter a work of art. But now as the world is living faster, time is felt to be so valuable that the shorter method is worth more money as compared with the longer methods. Why should we continue to represent a sound by a drawing containing perhaps two or three straight lines and curves when the same might just as legibly be made by a single curve or dash? Why should not a legible system of short hand be the one taught in the Public School from the first grade upward? The pupil could do his written exercises at home in at least onethird of the time it takes him at present, so that there would not be so imperative a temptation for him to spoil his writing as exists at present. Who does not know that the writing of a schoolboy varies in beauty inversely as the amount of writing he has to do, and that by the time he gets through College even an Assyriologist may be incompent to decipher his hieroglyphics? A very legible short hand can be written in one-third of the time taken to write the same in the ordinary long hand. When leaving the elementary school every pupil would be able to do three times the amount of writing in one hour under such circumstances that he can do at present. Some would be able to report slow speech verbatim. This power would thus become the inheritance of all passing through the elementary schools, and it would do more for literature ultimately than all our present forces combined, as well as reduce written language nearly to the same degree of convenience as speech. And yet the schools would have no new burdens added to them. In fact the burdens would be reduced by the amount of time saved as well as by the amount of material (pencil, ink, and paper) saved. Now, should any one learn short hand, he will find it useless for pur poses of correspondence, and as a consequence its practice is discontinued, and the art may be lost even after the expense of acquiring it. Then, even without school training, people would fall into the short system, because it is essentially more simple than the long system. And only just think how pleasant a prospect it would open to him who could afford to do as much correspondence with one clerk as he can now do

But what system shall we adopt? There is the rub. This matter must be decided for the non-technical educators who are not in a position to settle the matter

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Even if the most of them did attempt to solve that problem by by experiment. experiment alone, they would be only rendering themselves incapable of fairly investigating any other system than the one first tried. It will not do to start one system in one province, another in another province, and so on. That means civil war in stenography, with all the loss to the general public which the struggle for the survival of the fittest involves. Evolution in the future is going to do business on improved principles as compared with the past. It will prevent, under the reign of science, the reproduction of the unfit, and so save all the loss of energy involved first in the rearing of the unfit, and secondly, in the destruction of the unfit. So that under the guidance of the higher reason of man evolutionary change may be hurried on with tenfold the old rapidity, and with an hundredfold less cost to existing organisms. If these abbreviated phonetic characters could also with but little deviation from the written forms, be capable of being set up in ordinary type for the printer, the discovery would be a far greater one for literature and society, than the fabled feat of the Theban Cadmus.

This then brings me to the summation of all I have particularly to say. To enable our educational system to advance rapidly, and at the same time with the minimum disturbance of, or cost to, present society, we must organize, and from the history of the past lay down lines which will produce the conditions we seek without antagonizing unnecessarily any element of our present constitution. This can be done. Should any one doubt it, even the need not say that we should not take the possibility of improvement into consideration.

I then simply propose at present, that we should appoint a Standing Committee of this Association, to confer with similar Committees from co-ordinate bodies of educators in all other English speaking countries, and at least these three subjects be relegated to them to commence with: 1. The universal use of the decimal weights and measures; 2. The simplification of English orthography; and 3. The general introduction of a distinctly legible phonetic short hand.

[This presentation of the subject was made as specified about five years ago, since which time very considerable advance has been made in each of the reforms advocated. For evidence of this see reports of committees of the Imperial Parliament and English trade congresses, of the United States Congress and National Manufacturers' Association, &c. See also the new "Standard English Dictionary published by Funk & Wagnalls, (New York, London and Toronto), the latest editions of the "International" (Webster) English Dictionary, the action of the National Educational Association of the United States and some of its more progressive educationists; and the rapid growth of "shorthand" writing.]

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CONTINUATION OF INSPECTOR BRIDGES PAPER.

[To be read at page 16 as the conclusion of Inspector Bridges Paper. These paragraphs were mislaid by newspaper reporter and not recovered in time to be printed with the rest of the Paper].

To attempt too much or expect too much is a mistake. But it must be admitted that there is no more potent factor in renewing the life of a nation and cultivating true patriotism that the public school, and the nationalization of the school must be recognized as one of the most important of modern educational movements.

As a perpetual inspiration to patriotism every school house should have a flag, and the children should be taught its past history, and its significance as asymbol of justice, liberty, and stable government. They should be taught also that the state is providing the school and the school house for all without distinction of race, class, or creed. In this way will be cultivated not simply a love of country for its past history and the heroic deeds of our ancestors, but a love of country will be fostered for what the country is doing for the children themselves in preparing them for the highest hand best purposes in life. National holidays should be freely used in giving life and vitality to lessons that otherwise might become monotonous. An ignorant people cannot long remain a free people and cannot be a patriotic people.

I have not time to bother with questions of A, B, C, said the great Napoleon to Pestalozzi in 1802. What you desire to come out in the life of a nation that put into its schools, has been a principle of government in Germany, and seventy years later forth from the schools of Germany marched the army that destroyed the last vestige of the Napoleonic empire, and upon its ruins the Republic of France began its regeneration by reforming and reorganizing its schools.

Three hundred years ago Count John of Nassau in the Netherlands, in urging a system of common schools for children of poor families, said: "Soldiers and patriots thus educated with a knowledge of God and a Christian conscience, with churches and schools, good libraries, book and printing presses, are better than all the armies, arsenals, institutions, alliances, and treaties that can be had in the world." And it was with such spirit and conviction that freedom was won, and the forces of ignorance and pride, is, before the free, intelligent, patriotic soldiers of the neighbouring Republic. Ours is a country of magnificent distances but the bright upon the shores of the Pacific, and the ranks of the teachers in the far west are being continually recruited from the east.

The common school is as broad as the nation, and, while it may owe its existence to the exertion of the forces of our higher institutions of learning, its influence for this or for other purposes upon national life must be far greater. Here then in the schools in which the children of the farmer, the laborer, of the mechanic, and of the miner receive their education scanty though it be we must strive to place the distinctively competent teacher, and this is the highest office and duty of those engaged in the work of supervision.

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EDUCATIONAL EXHIBIT.

The School Work on exhibition was not very extensive but some of it was very good.

The Normal School exhibited drawing of the pupil-teachers illustrating Nature Lessons, maps showing physical features, mechanical drawing, physical apparatus, and Kindergarten work.

From the schools of Halifax, chiefly from St. Patrick's and St. Mary's Girls, and Summer Street Schools, there were excellent specimens of writing, maps, and needle work. La Salle Academy had a fine exhibit of mechanical drawings, penmanship, business forms, and book-keeping.

But the most interesting and valuable exhibit came from New Glasgow High School in charge of F. S. Simpson, B. A., now Principal.

Below we give a list of the principal articles with the names of the pupils by whom they were made:-

- Electric Dynamo-Motor-Rubie MacGregor.
- 2. Wireless Telegraphy Apparatus-Rubie MacGregor.
- Wimshursts' Electrical Machine-Rubie MacGregor.
- Electric Dynamo-Motor-Herbert Fraser.
- Electric Gyroscope-Herbert Fraser.
- 6. Field Magnet (of great power)-Herbert Fraser.
- Complete Telephone Plant-Herbert McQueen. 7.
- Galvanometer (high resistance)-Herbert McQueen. 8.
- Aluminum-Foil Galvanoscope-Rubie MacGregor. 9.
- Electrolytic Apparatus (1)-Andrew Fraser.
- 10. (2)-Andrew Fraser.
- Tasimeter (for detecting slight rises in temperature)-Herbert Fraser. 11.
- Microphone (for detecting slight vibrations)-Harry McKenzie. 12.
- 13. Microphone-Herbert Fraser.

10.

- Nicholson's Hydrometer (for determining specific gravities)-Charles 14. Sutherland.
- Sand-pendulum, for tracing Lissajou's curves-Bernard Fraser.
- Organ-pipe with Glass Slide, for studying vibration-Bernard Fraser. 16.
- Sonometer (for studying pitch of sound, overtones and harmonics)-17. Herbert McQueen.
- Apparatus for illustrating "Boyle's Law"-James Douglas. 18.
- Electro-magnet mounted on sounding box-James Douglas. 19.
- Jolly's Balance (for fine weighing)-George MacGregor. 20.
- 21. Apparatus for measuring Focal Distance of a Lense-William Simpson.
- Storage, Battery-William Simpson. 22.
- Thermo-Electric Current Generator-Fred Wright. 23.
- Storage Battery-Fred Wright. 24.
- Magnetic Needle, delicately mounted on brass standard-Fred Wright, 25.
- Induction Coil with automatic make-and-break piece-Thos. McDonald. 26

28 20. 30. 31. 32.

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33. 34. 35

36. 37. 38. 39.

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- Apparatus to illustrate relative Conductivities of Metals—Harry McKenzie. 28. Rotating Machine-George McDonald.
- 29.
- Galvanometer (low resistance)—George McDonald. 30.
- Voltameter-Andrew Fraser.
 - Newton's Disk and Siren Wheel-Walter McNeil. 31. 32.
- Photometer (for illustrating law of varying intensity of light-William Tait. 33.
- Apparatus for proving certain Principles of Reflection—Geo. MacGregor. Apparatus for illustrating relative Heat-conducting Power of Metals-34.
- Centre of Gravity Attachments to Rotator-George MacGregor. 35. 36.
- Incandescent Electric Lamp.
 - 37-Microphone.

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- Galvanoscope. 38.
- Electro-magnet. 39.
- 40. Leyden Jar.
- 41. Air-tube and Fixtures for Siren Wheel.
 - Chladni Vibrating Plate. 42.
- Sounding Box, tuned to C, made by William Tait.
- 44. Hydrometer-Archie Cameron.
- 45, etc. Various smaller pieces.

Nos. 36 to 42 were the work of the teacher and several members of the class acting in partnership.

In addition to the articles enumerated above there was a very tastefully gotten-up cabinet, containing about thirty specimens of the economic minerals of Pictou County the only exhibit of the kind shown. Then there was a whole wall full of pen drawings, geographical, geological and mineral maps, and an industrial map of the County of Pictou, a geological map of the same, botanical and other science drawings, ageological map of Nova Scotia, a mineral map of the same; a few crayon sketches by some of the school boys and girls attending Miss Graham's class; a beautifully mounted collection of wild flowers, specimens of plain and ornamental writing, mathematical exercises, specimen lessons, and scores of other articles, making up by far the largest and most comprehensive exhibit shown by any school.



THE LATE THOMAS KIRKLAND. M. A. Principal Normal School, Toronto.

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institution, was m

THOMAS KIRKLAND, M. A.

[DIED DECEMBER 31, 1898.]

The eminence of Mr. Kirkland as an educationist and the high position which, as principal of the Toronto Normal School, he so long held made him more widely known to the teaching profession than, any man in Ontario, except perhaps, the Minister of Education. His career is a most inspiring example to all young men, especially to all engaged in the work of education, of what may be accomplished by uprightness of conduct, earnestness of purpose and honest, faithful work. Arriving in Canada from Belfast, atter he had taken the sual course of training in the Normal School, Dublin, and while still a youth, he entered upon the duties of assistant master at the Central School, Oshawa. By his own efforts, unaided except by diligence, character and ability, he rapidly rose through all the grades of the teaching profession. In 1863, he became head master of the Whitby High School, which, under his able management, attained an almost provincial fame for its excellence. The reputation which he acquired here as a wise and capable teacher, and the recommendation of the late Professor Young, of the University of Toronto, led to his being appointed science master in the Normal School, Toronto.

This event took place in 1871, and later on, when the principalship became vacant, he succeeded to that office. His management of this important institution has been one of marked success, and unbroken harmony and goodwill among all connected with it, owing largely to the prudence, good judgment and conciliatory spirit uniformly shown by the principal. This was a position thoroughly suited to the desires and tastes of Mr. Kırkland, and he wrought in it with unwearying diligence and with high and great singleness of purpose. Beneath a quiet exterior, and gentleness and composure of manner, there lay and was constantly in exercise in his work a steady, persistent energy and force of character which did not appear on the surface. He loved his profession and was animated and guided by high ideals of its possibilities for doing good. Teaching, in his view of it, was not simply imparting so much knowledge, nor even a means of bestowing only a certain amount of mental training; it was, above all, laying the foundation and building upon it of true, strong and noble character, which again was to be reproduced by the teachers whom he taught in their pupils all over the land. In the wide sphere of work and influence which Mr. Kirkland for so long held, and inspired by these ideals and such a spirit, he came into touch in a very direct way with the very heart and brain of this premier province through his students, and in them exerted a moulding influence for good upon its entire character. His influence did not stop here, for through Ontario, and because of his pupils coming from every part of the Dominion, it was felt, if indirectly, yet to no immaterial degree throughout its whole extent, and also because those who passed through his hands are now to be found in all walks and professions of life. The attendance at the funeral services, alike in Toronto and at Whitby, was an evidence of this. We have seldom seen, on any such occasion, a more representative gathering of men of all classes, creeds and professions brought together to show their respect to a private citizen. His character, as a teacher and head of a large institution, was marked by such sympathy for his students, such personal interest in

them, and acts of kindness toward them, as many of them at least will never forget, and were returned to him in such a wealth of gratitude and affection as falls to the lot of very few.

While Mr. Kirkland did not dissipate and waste his energies by spreading them over too wide an area, his services were by no means confined to his own profession. He was a devoted and armest Christian, and the church, as well as the school, reaped the benefit of his labors. For a time he was a member of the senate of the University of Toronto, of which institution he was a graduate in Arts with honors in all subjects. At his death he had been for years a member of the senate of Knox College.

Conscientiousness in whatever he under-

took was a marked characteristic of the deceased, and his life was spent in constant, wise, useful, and therefore, happy activity. Neither in this capacity as a member and office-bearer of the Church of Christ, nor in any other, so far as we can learn, within the limit of the kind of service which Mr. Kirkland considered himself qualified for, and to which he devoted himself, was he ever known to shrink from any amount of work which it was at all within his power to do. The only people with whom he had no patience and could not tolerate were the work-shirking and indolent. God, in His wisdom, has so arranged that no one man is indispensable to the carrying on of the world's work; but there are those whose places, when they become vacant, it takes several men to fill, and of such was the late Mr. Kirkland. To this willingness to work and capacity for it, there were added such an amiability of disposition and kindness of manner, a patience hardly ever known to be ruffled, and such unselfish thoughtfulness for others as to make it a pleasure to be associated with him.

Any presentation of the qualities and character of Mr. Kirkland would be incomplete which failed to notice what a clergyman of the Church of England, speaking of him since his death, has well described as "the most unostentatious goodness in every relation of life." Ostentation was utterly foreign to his whole nature. No man who had to appear before the public could be more unobtrusive of himself. This, to mention one instance, was especially conspicuous at the celebration of the jubilee of the founding of the Toronto Normal School held a little over a year ago.

Although tolerant of the opinions of those who differed from him and liberal and conciliatory in spirit, he was a man of strong and decided convictions concerning all matters in which he conceived principles of importance to be involved. These he held tenaciously, and, though at the furthest removed from being a man of strife, he would, whenever occasion called for it, fearlessly contend for and defend what he believed to be the right, but always in the spirit of Christian charity.

A character such as that which we have barely outlined, as we know it, and as we believe in accordance with strict truth, could only have been built upon a solid and noble foundation. From his boyhood he was marked by a desire for knowledge, by thoughtfulness, by a love for good books and good companions. While yet quite young he openly made profession of faith in Christ, and his desire and aim to live the Christian life. From this time on to its close he adorned the profession he made. He united with the Presbyterian Church in Ireland, and strongly, but in a spirit of great liberality and goodwill to all Christians of every name, he held his convictions, and lived, and wrought, and generously gave for the spread and upbuilding of the Church of his choice.

Were it permitted us to draw aside the veil which guards and conceals the sanctities of the home and social life, reference might well be made to the large-hearted and ope circle. went ye home. that we hundred was ably of heart

His brother, departed ornament Equally s is the poor be felt by of friends.

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and open-handed hospitality which, through life, he dispensed to an ever-widening circle. Successive classes of students especially, male and female, as they came and went year after year, were welcomed, not only to the heart of their teacher, but his home. The lonely hearts of young men and women, coming strangers to the city, that were cheered, heartened and brightened in this way, may be counted by the hundred, and are found in all parts of the Dominion and far beyond it. In this he was ably seconded by Mrs. Kirkland, whose unfailing tact, courtesy and kindliness

His home life was one of almost ideal peace and happiness, and as husband, brother, friend, in all these relations, it is but the bare, simple truth to say that the departed was a rare and model man. The noble profession to which he was an ornament and strength has, by the death of Mr. Kirkland, suffered a great loss. Equally so has the Presbyterian Church and the cause of Christ. The whole country is the poorer because of his removal from amongst us; but most of all will his loss be felt by his bereaved wife, the family circle of which he was the centre, and a host of friends by whom he was universally and deservedly beloved.

By the Rev W. D. Ballantyne, B. A., in the Westminster.

Aches Ackhu Adams Adams Aelred, Ahern, Allen, Allen, M Allen, S Allen, Allison, Alloysius Allward, Anderson Andrews Angwin, Archibald Archibald Archibald Archibald, Armstrong Armstrong Armstrong

Baker, Elm.
Banks, Kezz
Barclay, Jem
Barnhill, M.
Barnstead, M.
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Barteaux, Mr.
Bartlett, Kate
Bayer, Annie
Beattery, Eliz
Beattery, Mar.

Armstrong, Atchison, Jo Auld, Louis Auld, Mage

Beattie, Frank Bell, Diadem, I Bell, Helen N., Bell, Mary F., Bent, Minnie S.

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Duff. Dwye Dyde

Eaton Elliott Ellis, Estab Etting Evans,

Fairwe

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Fulton, H

Fultz, Flo

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Gardiner,

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Longley, I. M., Lawrencetown.

Longley, Robt. S., Lawrencetown, Ann.

Mack. Mack, H Magee, Marshal Marshal Maxwell Maxwell Maxwell McAdam McAlpine McArthu McArthu McArthu McAulay, MacCabe. McCallum McCallum McCorma McCormac McCulloch McCulloch McCulloch, McCulloch, McCurdy, 1 McCurdy, J McCurdy, I McCurdy, I McCurdy, 7 McDonald, McDonald, McDonald, McDonald, McDonald, I

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McDonald, W

McDongall, E

McDougall, E

McDougall, E

McDougall, Jo

MacDougall,

McGregor, Eil

McHarrie, Ag

Lyle, E

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