

HIGH SCHOOL BUILDINGS, PLACE OF GENERAL MEETINGS.

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THE
DOMINION EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

THE MINUTES OF PROCEEDINGS,

WITH

ADDRESSES, PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS,

OF THE

First Convention of the Association

HELD AT

MONTREAL, JULY 5-8. 1892.

PUBLISHED BY THE ASSOCIATION

Montreal:

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HISTORY OF THE DOMINION EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

In October, 1867, the Provincial Association of Protestant Teachers of Lower Canada held its Convention in the McGill Normal School, Montreal, the then Dr. Dawson, now Sir William Dawson, President, in the chair. Dr. Dawson read a letter from the President of the Provincial Association of Ontario, advising the appointment of a Committee to take steps for the establishment of an Educational Organization for the whole Dominion.

Professor Robins moved: "That a Committee be formed to mature a plan for a connection with the different Associations of the Dominion of Canada." The motion was carried, and the following were appointed a Committee in accordance with the resolution:—Prof. Robins, Mr. Wilkie, Inspector Hubbard and Dr. Dawson.

At the next Convention, held in Richmond, P.Q., in August, 1868, Dr. Dawson reported that the Committee had not yet obtained sufficient information, and on motion the Committee was continued for another year. Dr. Robins, at the Waterloo Convention, in 1869, reported that it did not appear likely that such an organization as a Dominion Educational Association could be formed for some years to come. For twenty years no further action was taken of which we have any record. At the Convention held in the McGill Normal School, Montreal, in October, 1889, Dr. Eaton, of the McGill University, addressed the Convention on the subject of a "*Dominion Conference of Teachers*." This was referred to the Executive Committee of the Association for action.

At the first meeting of the Executive, the matter was taken up, and correspondence was at once begun. At a subsequent meeting the Rev. E. I. Rexford was sent as a delegate to the Ontario Association; and Dr. Kelly to the Maritime Provinces.

At the meeting of the Quebec Association, in Montreal, 1890, Mr. E. W. Arthy, secretary of the Executive Committee, reported that letters had been received from Mr. U. E. Archambault, superintendent of Roman Catholic Schools, Montreal, stating that there was a prospect of the Roman Catholic Teachers joining such a body; from the Hon. Mr. Ross, Minister of Education, Ontario, encouraging the movement, provided it is undenominational in character; from Superintendent Crochet,

of Fredericton, who did not think the plan feasible; from Principal Anderson, Charlottetown; Principal Hay, St. John, N.B.; and Principal Mackay, Halifax, N.S., expressing sympathy with the idea, but objecting on the score of travelling expenses to be incurred in attending the meeting of Delegates. A resolution was read from the Ontario Teachers' Association, expressing their appreciation of the address of the Rev. Elson I. Rexford, who had been sent as a delegate, and announcing that Mr. W. Houston had been appointed delegate to the Quebec Association.

It was then moved by the Rev. Ernest M. Taylor, seconded by the Rev. Dr. Adams, and resolved:—"That whereas at a meeting of our Association, held in August, 1869, in the village of Waterloo, P.Q., a Committee previously appointed, with Dr. S. P. Robins as chairman, to consider steps to be taken relative to the formation of a Teachers' Association for British North America, had the matter under consideration, and conferred with Provincial Associations for the purpose, and reported that there was not then such co-operation as warranted proceeding further at the time; and whereas, this Association has never fully lost sight of such a scheme, which received a fresh impetus at our Convention last year through Dr. Eaton's paper before the Association; and whereas a Committee was appointed to take steps in the matter; and whereas said Committee took immediate steps to bring the matter before the favorable notice of the different provinces by correspondence with prominent Educators in each, and by sending delegates to two Associations, namely, the Rev. Elson I. Rexford, B.A., president of this Association, to the Ontario Association, and Dr. Kelly to the Maritime Provinces; we as an Association hereby reaffirm our previous action in relation to the formation of a Dominion Association of Teachers, and hereby instruct our Secretary to inform the Ontario Teachers' Association that we have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of the Resolution of the Ontario Association, and hereby give our assurances of a hearty co-operation in the formation of a Dominion Teachers' Association."

On the 16th of July, 1891, a meeting of the Canadian Teachers in attendance upon the National Educational Association Convention of the United States, then being held in Toronto, was held in the Toronto Normal School.

Mr. W. McIntosh, president of the Ontario Teachers' Association, occupied the chair, and the attendance was representative of all departments of Educational work in the Dominion.

Addresses were delivered by Rev. E. I. Rexford, secretary of the Protestant Committee of the Council of Public Instruction of Quebec,

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Principal Calkin, of the Truro Normal School, Nova Scotia; Dr. Allison, superintendent of Instruction for the Province of Nova Scotia; Dr. Bryce, professor in Manitoba University; Mr. Grimmett, of Moosomin, N.W.T.; Mr. J. L. Strong, of Goderich, representing the High School teachers; Mr. G. H. Smith, inspector of Schools in Wentworth; Mr. Smith, of Brandon; and Hon. G. W. Ross. The subject of a Dominion Teachers' Association was admirably treated by the latter, and the desirability of forming such an organization at once was the principal theme of the various speakers.

On the following day, the 18th July, the Canadian Teachers re-assembled for the purpose of organization, at which meeting the Rev. Dr. Burwash, of Victoria College, moved, seconded by Dr. Bryce, of Manitoba College:—

That, in the opinion of the representatives from the different Provinces of the Dominion, present, it is desirable that an Association for the Teachers of the Dominion of Canada should be formed, to be called "The Educational Association of the Dominion of Canada."

In support of this, the following gentlemen spoke on behalf of the various Provinces:—Hon. John Robson, Premier of British Columbia, and Acting Minister for that Province; A. H. Smith, Moosomin, for the Northwest Territories; Dr. Allison, superintendent of Education, Nova Scotia; and Principal Calkin, of the Normal School, Truro, Nova Scotia; Rev. Elson I. Rexford, Montreal, and E. W. Arthy, Esq., secretary for the Montreal Protestant School Board, for Quebec; Dr. Rand Mac-Master Hall, formerly of New Brunswick, and John March, M.A., secretary St. John Public School Board, for New Brunswick; Dr. Bryce, Manitoba University, D. J. Goggin, principal Normal School, Winnipeg for Manitoba; W. McIntosh, president Ontario Teachers' Association A. MacMurphy, Jarvis Street Collegiate Institute, Toronto, and others, for Ontario. The resolution was carried unanimously and with much applause, all agreeing with the view expressed by several of the speakers, that the time for action had come.

THE COUNCIL APPOINTED.

It was then agreed, upon motion, that a provisional council be appointed with power to add to their number, such council to consist, in the first place, of (1) The Superintendents or Acting Ministers of the various Provinces, (2) The Presidents of the Universities of the Dominion, (3) The Principals of the Normal Schools or Schools engaged in the teaching of pedagogy, (4) The Presidents of all existing Teachers' Associations throughout the Dominion.

In the case of Ontario it was thought wise to add the Presidents of the different sections of the Association.

THE PERSONNEL OF THE COUNCIL.

Under this arrangement the Council stood as follows:—

ONTARIO—

Hon. G. W. Ross, Minister of Education; Sir Daniel Wilson, President of Toronto University; Dr. Grant, Principal Queen's College, Kingston; Provost Body, Trinity College, Toronto; Rev. Dr. Burwash, Principal Victoria College; Dr. Rand, MacMaster Hall, Toronto; Rev. J. M. McGucken, Ottawa University, Ottawa; W. MacIntosh, President Ontario Teachers' Association, Madoc, Ontario; J. J. Craig, President Public School Inspectors; A. P. Knight, Kingston, President High School Teachers; S. B. Sinclair, Hamilton, President Public School Teachers; Mrs. Newcombe, President Kindergartners; Thos. Kirkland, Principal Toronto Normal School; J. A. MacCabe, LL.D., Ottawa; J. L. McLellan, LL.D., Principal School of Pedagogy, Toronto.

QUEBEC—

Hon. Gédéon Ouimet, Superintendent Public Instruction; Rev. Abbé Laffamme, President of Laval University; U. E. Archambault, Superintendent Roman Catholic Schools, Montreal; Rev. Dr. Adams, President Lennoxville University; Sir William Dawson, Principal McGill University, Montreal; Rev. Abbé Verreau, Principal Jacques Cartier Normal School; Rev. T. G. Rouleau, Laval Normal School; Dr. Robins, Principal McGill Normal School, Montreal; F. X. Boileau, President R. C. Teachers' Association; Rev. E. I. Rexford, President Protestant Teachers' Association of Montreal; E. W. Arthy, Secretary Montreal Board of Protestant School Commissioners; G. W. Parnelee, B.A., English Secretary, Department of Public Instruction, Quebec; G. L. Masten, Coaticook, P.Q.; Wm. Patterson, M.A., Montreal.

NEW BRUNSWICK—

Dr. Inch, Superintendent Public Instruction, Fredericton; Dr. Harrison, New Brunswick University; Eldon Mullen, Principal Fredericton Normal School; Headley Bridges, Inspector Public Schools; John March, M.A., Secretary School Board, St. John, N.B.; F. H. Hayes, Superintendent St. John City Schools; Rev. Abbé LeFavre, Académie de St. John; W. M. McLean, B.A., H. C. Creed and George U. Hay, Ph.B., St. John.

NOVA SCOTIA—

Dr. Allison, Superintendent of Public Instruction ; Principal J. B. Calkin, M. A., Truro Normal School ; Dr. Forest, President Dalhousie University ; Rev. Dr. Sawyer, Acadia ; Rev. Dr. Willet, King's ; Rev. Dr. McNeil, St. François Xavier ; Dr. A. H. Mackay (now Supt. Pub. Instruction) ; Alex. Mackay, President Summer School of Science, Maritime Provinces ; A. Cameron, Yarmouth ; J. B. Oaks, Wolfville.

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND—

The Superintendent of Public Instruction ; Dr. Anderson, Principal Prince of Wales' College and President Provincial Teachers' Association.

NEWFOUNDLAND—

The Superintendent of Public Schools.

MANITOBA—

Hon. D. McLean, Acting Minister of Education ; the Bishop of Rupert's Land ; Dr. Bryce, Principal of Winnipeg University ; D. J. Goggin, Principal Winnipeg Normal School ; D. J. Wright, Principal Provincial Teachers' Association ; W. A. McIntyre, D. McIntyre, D. H. McColmun, Rev. Father Cherrier, N. Bowif and F. H. Schofield, Winnipeg.

NORTH WEST TERRITORIES—

The Bishop of Saskatchewan ; the Chairman of the Board of Education ; A. H. Smith, President Teachers' Association, Moosomin ; James Brown ; J.-A. Calder.

BRITISH COLUMBIA—

Hon. John Robson, Premier and Act. Minister of Education ; Dr. S. D. Pope, Superintendent of Education ; Inspector Wilson ; H. M. Stramberg and Alex. Robinson, Victoria.

ORGANIZATION.

Immediately after the close of the General Meeting the Council met to organize. The following officers were unanimously elected :—

President, Hon. G. W. Ross ; Vice-Presidents, the Superintendent and Acting Ministers of Education ; Secretary, Rev. Elson I. Rexford B.A., Montreal ; Treasurer, E. W. Arthy, Montreal.

The following gentlemen were appointed a Committee on Constitution :—Hon. G. W. Ross, Drs. Burwash, Bland and McLennan and Mr Kirkland, with power to advise with the Provincial Superintendents of Education.

The following Committee on Programme was also appointed:—Rev. Elson I. Rexford, Convener; Sir William Dawson, Dr. Mc Lennan, Messrs. Goggin, Calkin, Hayes and Anderson.

The Executive Committee were given authority to fix the time and place for meeting, and appoint sub-committees on entertainment and transportation.

This is, in brief, the history of the origin and of the Provisional organization of the Dominion Educational Association.

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HON. GEO. W. ROSS
President.

CONSTITUTION OF THE DOMINION EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

ARTICLE I.—NAME.

This Association will be styled the Dominion Educational Association.

ARTICLE II.—DEPARTMENTS.

Sec. 1. It shall consist of seven Departments:—the first, Kindergarten; the second, Elementary Schools; the third, Higher Education; the fourth, Inspection and Training; the fifth, Industrial Education; the sixth, Art Education, the seventh; Musical Education.

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

ARTICLE III.—MEMBERSHIP.

Sec. 1. Any person interested in the work of Education shall be eligible to membership. Such person may become a member of this Association by paying one dollar, and may continue a member by the payment of an annual fee of one dollar. On neglect to pay such fee the membership will 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. 1. 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.

Sec. 2. 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 second day of each regular meeting, a majority of the votes cast being necessary for a choice. They shall continue in office until the close of the regular meeting subsequent to their election, and until their successors are chosen, except as hereinafter provided.

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, but no person shall be elected to any office of any Department, or of the Association, who is not at the time of the election a member of the Association.

Sec. 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 who is present shall preside; and in the absence of all Vice-Presidents, a *pro tempore* chairman shall be appointed on nomination, the Secretary putting the Question.

Sec. 6. 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 of 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 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 with vouchers for the latter, which accounts, ending the first day of July each year, he shall render to the Board of Directors. The Treasurer shall give such bond for the faithful discharge of his duties as may be required by the Board of Directors; and he shall continue in office until the first meeting of the Board of Directors held prior to the meeting of the Association next succeeding that for which he is elected.

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; shall make all necessary arrangements for its meetings; and upon the written application of ten members of the Association for permission to establish a new Department, they may grant such permission. Such new Departments 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.

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 regulation it may appoint, provided that the expense of such meeting shall not be a charge on funds of the Association except by order of the Association.

Sec. 4. The Board of Directors shall hold their regular meetings at the meetings of the Association, and not less than two hours before the assembling of the Association.

Sec. 5. Special meetings may be held at such other times and places as the Board, or the President with the concurrence of five 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 of 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.

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 the bills approved by the Board of Directors.

8. 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 Association, upon approval of the Executive Committee.

CONSTITUTION

DE

L'ASSOCIATION D'ÉDUCATION DU CANADA.

ARTICLE I.—NOM.

Cette Association portera le nom suivant : ASSOCIATION D'ÉDUCATION DU CANADA (*Dominion Educational Association*).

ARTICLE II.—DÉPARTEMENTS.

1ère Division. L'Association comprendra sept départements : le premier, les Jardins de l'Enfance (*Kindergarten*) ; le deuxième, les écoles élémentaires ; le troisième, l'éducation supérieure ; le quatrième, l'inspection des écoles et les écoles d'application ; le cinquième, l'éducation industrielle ; le sixième, l'éducation artistique ; le septième, l'éducation musicale.

2me Division. On pourra organiser d'autres départements de la manière voulue par cette Constitution.

ARTICLE III.—AFFILIATION.

1ère Division. Toute personne intéressée au progrès de l'éducation pourra devenir membre de l'Association en versant la somme d'une piastre, et elle pourra continuer son affiliation en versant la somme d'une piastre, annuellement. Elle cessera d'être membre si elle néglige de payer cette contribution.

2me Division. Chaque département pourra prescrire ses propres conditions d'affiliation ; mais aucune personne ne pourra être affiliée ou initiée si elle n'est pas déjà membre de l'Association générale.

3me Division. Toute personne éligible à la position de membre pourra devenir membre à vie en versant, une fois pour toutes, la somme de dix piastres.

ARTICLE IV.—OFFICIERS.

1ère Division. Les officiers de cette Association seront : un prési-

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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 Division. Le président, les vice-présidents, 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, tel qu'ils le jugeront à propos.

3me Division. A moins d'ordre contraire de la part de l'assemblée, l'élection des officiers de l'Association se fera par voie de scrutin, le deuxième jour de chaque réunion régulière, et le choix devra se faire à la pluralité des votes donnés. Ils occuperont leurs emplois respectifs jusqu'à la fin de l'assemblée régulière qui suivra leur élection, et jusqu'à ce que leurs successeurs aient été choisis, excepté dans le cas ci-après indiqué.

4me Division. Chaque département sera administré par un président, un vice-président, un secrétaire et par tout officier jugé nécessaire à l'administration de ses affaires; mais aucune personne ne sera élue à l'emploi d'aucun département ou de l'Association, si, à l'époque de son élection, elle n'est pas membre de l'Association.

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

6me Division. Le secrétaire devra faire un rapport complet et exact des délibérations des assemblées générales de l'Association et de toutes les assemblées du Bureau des Directeurs, et fera toute la correspondance que les Directeurs lui indiqueront, et il devra apporter avec lui à toutes les réunions de l'Association et du Bureau des Directeurs les registres tenus par lui. Le secrétaire de chaque département devra encore remplir les devoirs appartenant usuellement à sa charge, et conserver une liste des noms des membres de son département.

7me Division. Le devoir du trésorier sera de percevoir, d'après les instructions du Bureau des Directeurs, tous les deniers payés à l'Association, et qu'il placera en garde sûre; il devra aussi employer ces deniers seulement d'après l'ordre du dit Bureau; il tiendra un état fidèle de ses recettes et de ses dépenses, avec, pour celles-ci, les pièces justificatives, et il devra rendre ses comptes, finissant le premier jour de juillet

de chaque année, au Bureau des Directeurs. Le trésorier devra donner toutes les garanties que pourra exiger le Bureau des Directeurs touchant l'accomplissement fidèle des devoirs de sa charge; et il conservera sa position jusqu'à la première assemblée du Bureau des Directeurs qui sera tenue antérieurement à l'assemblée de l'Association suivant immédiatement celle à laquelle il a été élu.

8me Division. Le Bureau des Directeurs aura le pouvoir de remplir les vacances survenant parmi ses propres membres; il devra soigner 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 de ce 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.

1ère Division. Les assemblées de l'Association se tiendront aux jours et lieux que déterminera le Bureau des Directeurs.

2me Division. On pourra convoquer des assemblées spéciales sur demande de dix membres du Bureau des Directeurs.

3me Division. Tout département 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 Division. Le Bureau des Directeurs devra tenir ses assemblées régulières dans le local assigné aux assemblées de l'Association, et pas moins de deux heures avant la réunion de telle assemblée.

5me Division. Il pourra y avoir des assemblées spéciales du Bureau des Directeurs à des jours et lieux que le Bureau ou le président pourra déterminer concurremment avec cinq autres membres du Bureau.

6me Division. Chaque nouveau bureau devra voir à 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.—RÈGLEMENTS.

On pourra adopter, par deux tiers des votes des membres de l'Association, tout règlement qui ne sera pas incompatible avec cette Constitution.

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ARTICLE VII.—AMENDEMENTS.

On pourra échanger ou amender cette Constitution à une assemblée régulière ou par le vote unanime des membres présents, ou par les deux tiers des votes des membres présents, pourvu que dans ce dernier cas tel changement ou amendement ait été proposé par écrit à une assemblée régulière précédente.

RÈGLEMENTS.

1er. A chaque assemblée régulière de l'Association, on devra former trois comités : un pour la nomination des officiers, un pour la nomination des membres honoraires, et l'autre pour les résolutions.

2me. Le président et le secrétaire devront certifier pour le trésorier tout compte approuvé par le Bureau des Directeurs.

3me. Chaque membre de l'Association aura droit à une copie des délibérations.

4me. 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 l'auteur, excepté que ce soit avec le consentement de l'Association ou du département intéressé ; et l'insertion de tels document, conférence ou adresse ne se fera pas au Régistre des Délibérations sans le consentement de l'Association et sur approbation du Comité Exécutif.

ELSON I. REXFORD,
Secr. A. E. C.

Officers of the Association.

PRESIDENT.

HON. GEO. W. ROSS, Minister of Education for Ontario.

VICE-PRESIDENTS.

HON. GÉDÉON OUMET,	Quebec.
JOHN MACMILLAN,	Ontario.
DR. INCH,	New Brunswick.
DR. MACKAY,	Nova Scotia.
D. J. MCLEOD,	Prince Ed. Island.
DANIEL MCINTYRE,	Manitoba.
STEPHEN POPE,	British Columbia.
JAMES BROWN,	North-Wt. Territor.

SECRETARY.

REV. ELSON I. REXFORD, Montreal.

TREASURER

E. W. ARTHY, Montreal.

DIRECTORS.

S. B. SINCLAIR,	Hamilton.
JAS. L. HUGHES,	Toronto.
U. E. ARCHAMBAULT,	Montreal.
DR. KELLEY,	Montreal.
G. U. HAY,	St. John, N.B.
A. MCKAY,	Halifax, N.S.
DR. ANDERSON,	Charlottetown, P.E.I.
A. S. ROSE,	Winnipeg, Man.

The Dominion Educational Association.

MONTREAL, JULY 5-8, 1892.

MINUTES OF PROCEEDINGS.

THE FIRST DAY.

Meeting of Welcome.

The First Convention of the Dominion Educational Association met at 2 p.m., 5th July, 1892, in the High School Buildings, Montreal.

The Convention was called to order by Sir William Dawson, Principal of McGill University, who delivered an address of welcome.

Addresses of welcome were also delivered by Hon. Gédéon Ouimet, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Quebec; Dr. Heneker, Chairman of the Protestant Committee of the Council of Public Instruction, Quebec, and chancellor of the University of Bishop's College, Lennoxville; Rev. Abbé Verreau, representing Laval University, Quebec; Rev. Dr. Adams, Principal of Bishop's College, Lennoxville; Mr. A. D. Lacroix, in the name of the Roman Catholic Teachers of Quebec; E. W. Arthy, Esq., president of the Provincial Association of Protestant Teachers of Quebec.

Addresses in reply were made by the President of the Association, on. G. W. Ross, Minister of Education for Ontario; Dr. J. R. Inch, Superintendent of Education, New Brunswick; Dr. A. H. Mackay, Superintendent of Education for Nova Scotia; S. B. Sinclair, Esq., president of the Ontario Teachers' Association.

After announcements by the Secretary the Convention adjourned.

CONVERSAZIONE AT MCGILL COLLEGE.

Tuesday evening, July 5th, the members of the Dominion Educational Association were entertained by Sir William Dawson, principal of McGill University, in the Redpath Museum. The guests were received as they arrived by Sir William Dawson, Hon. Geo. Ross, Dr. A. H. Mackay and Mr. E. W. Arthy.

Short addresses were delivered during the evening by Sir William Dawson; Rev. Dr. MacVicar, chairman of the Protestant Board of

School Commissioners, Montreal; Dr. Robins, principal of the McGill Normal School; and by the President of the Association.

Music and Refreshments were provided during the evening.

THE SECOND DAY.

WEDNESDAY, 6TH JULY.

Morning Session.

The first regular meeting of the Dominion Educational Association was held this morning in the Assembly Hall of the High School. Present the Hon. G. W. Ross in the chair and a large attendance of members. The President presented, on behalf of the Provisional Committee on Constitution, a report submitting a first draft of the Constitution for the Dominion Educational Association. On the motion of Mr. Carlyle, of Woodstock, Ont., the report was referred to a Committee representing the several Provinces of the Dominion to be named by the President, with the request that they should report to the next meeting of the Convention. A communication was read from the President of the National Educational Association of the United States, conveying cordial greetings, and inviting the members of the Canadian Association to attend the Convention at Saratoga Springs on the 12th inst. The Secretary also stated that the President of the National Educational Association hoped to be in Montreal on Friday next, and to attend the meetings of the Association.

The President and Secretary were requested to prepare and forward a suitable reply. After several announcements had been made by the Secretary, the President called upon Dr. A. H. Mackay, Superintendent of Education in Nova Scotia, to read his paper on "*The True Scope and Function of the High School.*" After the conclusion of this able paper an interesting discussion took place in which the following gentlemen among others took part: Mr. John Millar, Dep. Minister of Education for Ontario; Mr. John Walton, of Hull; Mr. John McMillan; Mr. S. McMaster, of Toronto; Mr. Tamblin, of Whitby, Ont.; Mr. Carlyle, of Woodstock; Mr. McGregor, of Almonte; Mr. Jantieson, of Morrisburg; Dr. Hare, of Whitby; Mr. G. U. Hay, of St. John, N.B.; Mr. Wardrope, of Lachine.

Dr. Mackay replied to the various points raised in his paper, and closed the discussion. The President then announced that he had appointed

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the following Committees:—Committee on Constitution—first, the Superintendents of Education of the several Provinces, Dr. Robins, Quebec; S. McMaster, Toronto; A. S. Rose, Winnipeg. H. M. Stamberg, of British Columbia; G. U. Hay, New Brunswick; Principal Calkin, Nova Scotia. Committee on Resolutions,—Geo. W. Parmelee, Quebec; W. Houston, Toronto; J. Marsh, New Brunswick; A. D. Lacroix, Montreal. The Convention then adjourned.

Evening Session.

The meeting opened at 8 p.m. Dr. Inch, of New Brunswick, in the chair.

Miss. Virtue sang "The Love of old."

Mr. J. L. Hughes, of Toronto, delivered an address on "*The Duty of the State in Relation to Education.*"

Miss. Virtue sang "Come back, sweet days of old."

The Hon. Geo. W. Ross then delivered an address upon "*Educational Tendencies and Problems.*" Adjourned.

THE THIRD DAY.

THURSDAY, 7TH JULY.

Morning Session.

The Convention opened at 9 a.m., with the Hon. Geo. W. Ross in the chair.

The minutes of the preceding sessions were read and confirmed.

Dr. Inch submitted the report of the Committee on the Constitution which was amended and adopted in the following form:—

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 to membership. Such person may become a member of this Association by paying one dollar, and may continue a member by the payment of an annual fee of one dollar. On neglect to pay such fee the membership will 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. 1. 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 existing officers of the several departments.

Sec. 2. 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 second day of each regular meeting, a majority of the votes cast being necessary for the choice. They shall continue in office until the close of the regular meeting subsequent to their election and until their successors are chosen, except as hereinafter provided.

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; but no person shall be elected to any office of any department, or of the Association, who is not, at the time of the election, a member of the Association.

Sec. 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 vice-presidents, a *pro tempore* chairman shall be appointed on nomination, the Secretary putting the question.

Sec. 6. 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 hold in safe keeping, all moneys paid to the Association; shall expend the same only upon the order of said Board; shall keep an exact account of his receipts and expenditures, with vouchers for the latter, which accounts, ending the first day of July each year, he shall render to the Board of Directors. The Treasurer shall give such bond for the faithful discharge of his duties as may be required by the Board of Directors; and he shall continue in office until the first meeting of the Board of Directors held prior to the meeting of the Association next succeeding that for which he is elected.

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.

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 at the place of the meeting of the Association, and not less than two hours before the assembling of such meeting.

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.

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.

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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, except with the consent of the Association or Department affected, nor shall any such paper, lecture or address be published in the volume of Proceedings without the consent of the Association, upon the approval of the Executive Committee.

E. D. Warfield, Esq., LL.D., president of Lafayette College, Pa., then delivered an address on "*The Relation of the School to the University.*"

George U. Hay, Esq., Principal of Victoria High School, St. John, New Brunswick, then read a paper on "*Ideal School Discipline and how to Secure it.*"

A discussion followed in which the following persons took part:— John Millar, Esq., Deputy-Minister of Education for Ontario; Dr. Harper, Quebec; Dr. MacCabe, Ottawa.

The Chairman appointed the following gentlemen as Nominating Committee:—

Rev. Elson I. Rexford, Montreal (Convener); Rev. Dr. Adams, Lennoxville; U. E. Archambault, Montreal; Dr. MacDiarmid; Dr. Hare, Whitey; Principal Calkin, Truro; Supervisor Mackay, Halifax; A. S. Rose, Winnipeg; H. M. Stramberg, British Columbia; J. Marsh, St. John, N.B.; Miss Clark, Fredericton; P. C. McGregor, Almonte.

On the motion of Hon. Gédéon Ouimet, seconded by Dr. Inch, it was unanimously resolved: That the Constitution and By-laws be translated into French and entered in the Minute Book in that language, and that the name of the Association in French be as follows:—"*L'Association d'Education du Canada.*"

Evening Session.

The Convention met at 8 p.m. with the Hon. Geo. W. Ross in the chair.

Miss Hollenshead sang "Leave me not, dearest heart."

Rev. Dr. Grant, Principal of the University of Queen's College, Kingston, then delivered an address upon "*Universities and University Extension in Canada.*"

The pupils of Miss. Barnjum, Montreal, gave an exhibition of Calisthenic Exercises.

Dr. Wesley Mills, of Montreal, gave a short address in reference to the physical exercises.

THE FOURTH DAY.

FRIDAY, 8TH JULY.

Morning Session.

The Convention assembled this morning in the High School Hall. In the absence of the President, the Hon. Gédéon Ouimet was called to the chair.

The minutes of the previous morning meeting were read and confirmed.

Dr. Inch drew attention to the fact, that while the Constitution recently adopted provided for a united department of Elementary and Kindergarten work, two separate departments had already been organized. After a long discussion, in which considerable difference of opinion was manifested, it appeared from a show of hands that 34 members were in favor of separate departments and 21 members in favor of the article as in the Constitution. As the Constitution could not be changed except by unanimous vote, on motion of Dr. Robins the vote was made unanimous, and Article I of the Constitution was amended in that sense. It was also unanimously resolved upon motion of Inspector Fotheringham, seconded by Dr. Harper, that Inspection and Normal School training should be united in one department, to be known as the Department of Inspection and Training, and that Article I of the Constitution should be amended in this sense.

Signor R. de la Cueva then presented a communication from the Secretary of the National Education Association of Spain, conveying the greetings of the Association, and suggesting the appointment of a delegate to the October meeting of that Association.

Moved by Mr. Carlyle, seconded by Dr. S. P. Robins: That it affords this Association much pleasure to receive the friendly greetings of the Spanish National Association of Education, through its president, and that it appoints Signor R. de la Cueva as its representative at the forth-coming meeting in Madrid, and that the question of expense be considered by the Executive.

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The Rev. Elson I. Rexford then presented the following report of the Committee on Nominations:—

TO THE PRESIDENT AND MEMBERS OF THE DOMINION EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION :

I beg to submit the following report of the Committee on Nominations:—

The Committee assembled in accordance with previous notice at 2 o'clock Thursday, 6th inst. Present: Rev. E. I. Rexford, Convener; U. E. Archambault, Dr. MacDiarmid, Principal Calkin, Supervisor Mackay, A. S. Rose, J. March, P. C. McGregor, and Miss. Clark.

The Committee agreed to nominate the following officers for the Association:—

PRESIDENT.

HON. GEO. W. ROSS, Minister of Education for Ontario.

VICE-PRESIDENTS.

HON. GÉDEON OUMET,	Quebec.
JOHN MACMILLAN,	Ontario.
DR. INCH,	New Brunswick.
DR. MACKAY,	Nova Scotia.
D. J. MCLEOD, ESQ.,	P. E. I.
DANIEL MCINTYRE,	Manitoba.
STEPHEN POPE, ESQ.,	British Columbia.
JAMES BROWN, Secty. Board of Education,	N. W. T.

SECRETARY.

REV. E. I. REXFORD, Montreal.

TREASURER.

E. W. ARTHY, ESQ., Montreal.

DIRECTORS.

S. B. SINCLAIR,	Ontario.
JAS. L. HUGHES,	Ontario.
U. E. ARCHAMBAULT,	Quebec.
DR. KELLY,	Quebec.
G. U. HAY,	New Brunswick.
A. MACKAY,	Nova Scotia.
DR. ANDERSON,	P. E. I.
A. S. ROSE,	Manitoba.

Respectfully submitted on behalf of the Committee.

ELSON I. REXFORD,
Convener.

On motion of Mr. Rexford the report was received.

On motion of Mr. Scott, seconded by Dr. Bryce, the report of the Nominating Committee was adopted.

The President then called upon the Rev. Abbé Verrean, Principal of the Jacques Cartier Normal School, who gave an interesting review on "*The Educational History of the Province from the earliest time down to the present.*"

Donald J. MacKinnon then read his paper upon "*The Education of Juvenile offenders.*"

Prof. James Seth of Dalhousie College, Halifax, N.S., then followed with a paper upon "*Psychology in its Relation to the Art of Teaching.*"

Evening Session.

The closing session of the Dominion Educational Association was opened at 8 o'clock, with Dr. Inch in the chair. Miss Hollinshead sang "The Lost Chord." The Reports of Sections were received and adopted. The report of the Dominion Committee on Canadian History was submitted and approved.

The report of the Committee on Resolutions was received and adopted.

On motion of E. W. Arthy, seconded by Dr. Mackay, Dr. Inch was appointed to represent the Dominion Educational Association at the Saratoga meeting of the National Educational Association.

Dr. Warfield of Lafayette College then gave a Lecture illustrated with stereoptical views upon "Oxford."

Sir William Dawson then delivered the closing address. Dr. Inch expressed on behalf of the members of the Association their high appreciation of the courtesy and hospitality which they had received in Montreal.

Miss Hollinshead then rendered another selection, and the Chairman declared the first Convention of the Dominion Educational Association closed.

ELSON I. REXFORD,
Secretary.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS.

1. Your Committee desires to report: That the University extension movement is calculated to prove useful as a means of diffusing among those who cannot take advantage of the ordinary university courses, a kind and degree of culture which is not at present to any great extent within their reach; and this Association desires to express its heartfelt sympathy with the "Canadian Association for the Extension of University Teaching" in the prosecution of its work.

2. It appears to your Committee that elementary instruction in all subjects required in a university course should be given in the secondary schools, and not in the university. Your Committee is of the opinion that the curriculum of the universities of Canada should be so adjusted as to relieve the universities of elementary work of this character, thus enabling the universities to devote their energies to the higher departments of culture for which they are specially adapted and for which the usual facilities are provided.

3. That in the interest alike of secondary and of higher education in the different Provinces of the Dominion, it is desirable that all the universities of Canada should agree to adopt a common standard of matriculation. It is suggested that Rev. Dr. Adams, Prin. of Bishop's College; Sir Wm. Dawson; Archd. McMurchy, Collegiate Institute, Toronto; Prin. Forrest of Dalhousie; Dr. Harrison, N.B. University; and Dr. Bryce, Winnipeg, should be a Committee for this purpose.

4. That in the opinion of your Committee the system of education in each Province should be so adjusted, that the work of elementary schools should not materially overlap that of the high schools, and that by a carefully prepared course of study such subjects as are best adapted to the capacities and necessities of each class of school should be limited so that each should do its assigned portion, and not the portion of any other.

5. Your Committee is deeply impressed with the importance of the systematic and thorough inspection of Public and High Schools, and would recommend to the various Departments of Education the careful consideration of this matter.

6. The varied classification of the Schools of the different Provinces has been found to be a matter of considerable perplexity in dealing with

the attainments of pupils who have changed their residence from one Province to another. Your Committee would therefore recommend the adoption of a uniform nomenclature in the designation of the Schools of the Province and the adoption of a course of study for each class, so that pupils so removing from one Province to another may be conveniently allocated to the class which they are best qualified to enter. We would recommend that a Committee consisting of the Minister and the Superintendents of the various Provinces be appointed to consider and report to the next meeting of the Association some general system of classification and nomenclature of schools.

7. Your Committee is greatly impressed with the prevalence of truancy and the irregular attendance of children under 15 years of age at the schools established by the Provinces for their especial benefit. In order to overcome this evil and justify the establishment of a free system of education, it is the opinion of the Committee that the laws with regard to truancy and compulsory attendance of school should be more exacting, and that the proper authorities should in every case be urged to enforce whatever legislation may in the meantime exist in the different Provinces. Your Committee would also recommend that where it appears that absence from school is continuous and voluntary, Industrial schools should be established for the reclamation of the incorrigible and for the punishment of juvenile offenders, in the manner of the Industrial School established at Mimico, near the city of Toronto.

8. Your Committee would specially recommend to the Association the importance of impressing upon the educational authorities the adoption of adequate facilities for a thorough training of teachers in all the public and high schools of the Dominion.

9. The advantages of Kindergarten training in the development of child nature, in the strengthening of its powers of observation, and in fitting the child for the work of the elementary school have greatly impressed your Committee, and, in their opinion, Kindergarten schools should be established as part of the State system in all the Provinces of the Dominion.

10. That in the opinion of this Association the time has arrived when an effort should be made by the various Provinces to assimilate the requirements for teachers' certificates and to provide for recognition of them throughout the Dominion, and it is suggested that the Minister of Education of Ontario and the various Superintendents of the Provinces be appointed a Committee to consider the whole matter and to report to the next Convention.

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11. That this Association, judging by the good effect produced at this meeting by the excellent exhibition of school work and educational appliances, is of opinion that such exhibitions, wherever practicable, should be made a feature of Provincial or Dominion Conventions. The thanks of this Association are due to all those who so promptly and liberally responded to the requests for exhibits.

12. Special thanks are due to the representatives of the Remington Typewriter, Messrs. Spackman & Co., who have gratuitously placed at the disposal of the Convention three typewriters and operators; and this time-saving service has been much appreciated by all who had documents to be written. Readers of papers have, as a rule, availed themselves of these typewriting facilities, and have thus been enabled to deliver their messages with more ease and power, while the furnishing of copies and abstracts to the representatives of the press has materially aided in producing the elaborate and able reports which have appeared in our daily newspapers.

13. That the thanks of the Association are due and are hereby tendered to the Railway and Steamboat lines for reduced rates to the members, to the Montreal Press for Reports, to the Protestant and Roman Catholic Boards of School Commissioners, to the McGill Normal School Committee, to Mr. Tucker for buildings placed at the disposal of the Dominion Educational Association, to the proprietors of the Art Gallery for opening the Gallery to the members, to the Governors of the McGill University for opening their buildings and generously giving a *Conversazione* to the members of the Association, to the local committee, to the teachers who arranged the exhibits, to Miss. Barnjum, to Prof. Couture for entertainment at the evening meetings, to Messrs. Willis & Co. for use of piano, to the retiring officers, and to all others who have contributed to the success of the Convention.

Signed on behalf of the Committee,

GEO. W. PARMELEE,

Convener.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON EDUCATIONAL
EXHIBITS.

MONTREAL, July 10, 1892.

The exhibit of pupils' work in connection with the Dominion Educational Association during the meetings at Montreal were large and important, thanks to the co-operation of the Education Departments of Ontario, Quebec and Manitoba. Besides those sent through the Departments, there were specimens from educational centres in Ontario and Quebec. In the Ontario section the work of the Art and Kindergarten schools attracted much attention, whilst indeed much of that in other lines was excellent and equally noteworthy. The Quebec section also had its good points. There was an abundance of very fine specimens of map drawing, of mechanical and free-hand drawing, of writing of exercises in arithmetic and book-keeping and of other work. The specimens had been prepared in the Roman Catholic and Protestant schools of the province. The Manitoba exhibit, though comparatively small, was strikingly unique in view of its uniform excellence.

The Exhibition Building was decorated with bunting at considerable expense and the specimens were suitably arranged for public inspection.

The experience of this first effort to exhibit pupils' work on a large scale has brought with it needed lessons as to the standard of excellence required in work of this kind, as to the most tasteful ways of mounting specimens and as to the modes of collecting, displaying and returning them with fullest satisfaction.

These lessons are interesting and, it seems to us, fully worth the time and money which they cost.

Respectfully submitted,

W. PATTERSON,

Secretary.

E. W. A.

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SUMMARY OF TREASURER'S REPORT.

E. W. ARTHY, TREASURER, IN ACCOUNT WITH THE DOMINION EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

RECEIPTS.	
Grant from Ontario Government	\$ 500 00
" " Quebec "	500 00
" " Nova Scotia "	200 00
" " Manitoba "	100 00
" " City of Montreal	500 00
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Membership fees	1800 00
Exhibitors for space occupied	425 00
Interest on Bank account	10 80
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Proceeds	713 00
Expenses	701 26
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Balance	71 75

BULLETIN COMMITTEE.

Proceeds	713 00
Expenses	701 26
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Balance	71 75

DISBURSEMENTS.

GENERAL EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE.

Printing	\$65 50
Advertising	21 88
Stenographer, reporting proceedings	85 40
Dr. Warfield, travelling expenses and expenses of lecture	58 35
Badges	40 00
Lighting	23 80
Rent of telephone	20 00
Cartage of chairs	15 00
Florist	10 00
Services of policemen	10 00
Broken glass	3 60
Rev. E. I. Rexford, Secretary	
Travelling Expenses	8 00
Petty Disbursements	25 38
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Rev. E. M. Taylor, Local Secretary	
Salary	300 00
Office help	31 00
Stationery	27 75
Postage	21 00
Petty Expenses	2 70
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EXHIBITION COMMITTEE.

Help in preparing Exhibits	72 10
Materials and decorations	330 85
Carpenter	200 00
Glazing	5 05
Cartage	8 00
Printing	34 50
Stationery	2 85
Petty Expenses	9 22
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RECEPTION COMMITTEE.

Printing	51 25
Advertising	15 86
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TREASURER.

Clerical help	26 00
Printing	13 00
Stationery	10 00
Petty Expenses	15 85
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Balance on hand	\$1582 47
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Audited and found correct,

ELSON I. REXFORD,
E. M. TAYLOR.E. W. ARTHY,
Treasurer.

* This balance will be reduced by about \$600.00, the estimated cost of publishing the volume containing the proceedings and transactions of the Association.

REPORT OF THE DOMINION HISTORY COMMITTEE.

For several years past the question of preparing a history of the Dominion of Canada engaged the attention of the teachers at the annual associations in several of the Provinces, but with no satisfactory results. Through the kindness of Mr. J. H. Burland of the City of Montreal, a considerable sum of money was offered as a loan for the preparation of a history of the Dominion of Canada, on condition that such history should be authorized in at least five of the seven provinces of the Dominion. At a meeting of the Chief Superintendents and of other representatives of the different Provinces held at Toronto last year, it was agreed that the preparation and publication of such a history would be greatly in the public interest, and if well written would tend to unify the Provinces and foster a spirit of patriotism throughout the Dominion. It was generally felt, however, that Mr. Burland's offer would place the Committee acting upon it under personal obligation and responsibility, which might ultimately prove embarrassing. Moreover, the opinion of the Royal Society, as expressed at its meeting last May, appears to be that no author would undertake the work on the conditions required.

The importance of the suggestion to prepare a Dominion History, however, impressed itself very strongly upon the Chief Superintendents of the different Provinces; accordingly, an announcement was placed upon the Official Bulletin of the Association, that another meeting would be held in the City of Montreal at the time of the first meeting of the Dominion Educational Association for the further consideration of this question. With this object in view, the Chief Superintendents of the different Provinces held several meetings with the following results:—

1st. It was unanimously agreed that an effort should be made to secure a history of the Dominion of Canada adapted for all the schools of the Dominion.

2nd. It was decided to ask in a public way those who were disposed to undertake this task, to communicate with the Secretary of the Committee mentioned below.

3rd. The initial expense of preparing such a history to be borne by the Educational Department of each Province, in proportion to the number of schools in the province, providing the assent of the Department is first obtained.

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4th. Should the number of competitors for the preparation of such history exceed five, the Committee shall have the liberty of selecting those who in their judgment are the best qualified for the preparation of the proposed history.

5th. The successful competitor shall be allowed the usual royalty of 10 per cent. on the retail price on all books sold. The unsuccessful competitors to be allowed \$200.00 each, provided it appears to the Committee that their manuscripts possess real merit.

6th. The retail price of the book not to exceed 50 cts.

7th. At least four copies typewritten must be submitted for the consideration of the Committee by each author.

8th. It is expected that the book shall not exceed 400 pages, octavo, long primer type.

9th. The Committee shall have the right to choose a publisher of the said history, and to determine all the details of printing, binding, etc.

10th. The time at which the manuscript shall be required shall be announced by the Secretary so soon as the assent of the Department of Education of the different Provinces is obtained for the initial expense.

11th. In the event of any member of the Committee mentioned below submitting a manuscript of such a history, his place on the Committee shall become vacant and shall be filled by the other members of the Committee.

12th. The Committee hereinafter mentioned is expected to revise and examine all manuscripts submitted, to make such suggestions to the author of the manuscript considered most satisfactory as may be deemed expedient, and to report to the undersigned the manuscript which in their opinion should be accepted.

13th. For the better conduct of the preliminary proceedings, Mr. Wm. Patterson, M.A., Montreal, was appointed Secretary of the Committee.

14th. The Committee to which reference is hereinbefore made is as follows :—

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.

Dr. Anderson, Prince of Wales College, Charlottetown.

NOVA SCOTIA.

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

NEW BRUNSWICK.

G. U. Hay, Ph.B., Principal Victoria High School, St. John.

QUEBEC.

Benjamin Sulte.

Dr. Robins, Principal McGill Normal School.

ONTARIO.

W. S. Robertson, B.A., Principal St. Catharines Collegiate Inst.

MANITOBA.

D. MacIntyre, B. A., Inspector of Schools for the City of Winnipeg.

NORTH WEST TERRITORIES.

Charles Mair, Esq., Prince Albert, N. W. T.

BRITISH COLUMBIA.

Member of Committee to be named by Department of Education.

HIGH SCHOOL, MONTREAL.

7th July, 1892.

W. PATTERSON,

Sec'y. of Committee

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ADDRESSES, PAPERS AND DISCUSSIONS

OF THE

GENERAL MEETINGS.

MEETING OF WELCOME.

Tuesday, July 5th, 1892, 2 P.M.

The Convention was called to order by Sir Wm. Dawson, who explained that he had been asked to take the chair temporarily, with the view of inaugurating the business of the day.

The Chairman *pro tem.* (Sir William Dawson) spoke as follows :

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN :—In opening this meeting I think it worth while to say a word or two in regard to education. Ever since the formation of the Canadian Dominion, the oldest educationalists in the country have felt that there was an urgent need of a general union of educators throughout the Dominion. The circumstances of our union as one country have rendered it impossible for the Dominion Government or Legislature to take cognizance to any extent of the matter of education. That affair has been left in our Federal constitution to the wisdom of the different Provinces ; but as we all know it will not do to educate the people of Canada as sectionalists or provincialists, the necessity for a general plan of education has made itself felt. If our people are to grow up as members of one common country with a sentiment for Canada common to all, it becomes imperatively necessary that there should be a union of educators,—a Dominion association irrespective of race, province, origin, creed or language, in the interest of that unity of our people which can alone be secured by the training of our children not as sectionalists but as Canadians, and beyond this as integral parts of the great empire to which we belong. The Federal constitution of Canada therefore may be said to have thrown it upon the men and women of the country to secure that kind of unity which we all desire in regard to the matter of education, and many of us

thought that from the very first something should be done in this direction. The obstacles were many and the delay long, but now we have a prospect of inaugurating a Dominion Educational Association, with the hope that it may be a successful association, and may grow to be a great power in the education of the Dominion. Here in Montreal where we have been working all along on these lines,—for Montreal has always been a cosmopolitan place, a place which has almost all the elements of our entire population, a place representative of all shades of belief, and withal so thoroughly imbued with the spirit of Canadian unity,—here in Montreal we have been thinking for a long time past that something should be done towards establishing an association such as we have here now; and while the movement itself originated in our sister city of Toronto, we are by no means envious, but feel very happy to have the Association hold its first meeting here, and we bid you all a hearty welcome to this City, wishing you every measure of success that you can hope for. And on this occasion we think it right to thank you for instituting what may be called the Dominion Educational Parliament, and that you have made Montreal so to speak the educational seat of government for the time being. In regard to McGill University, of which I have the honor to be the head, I may say that the University cordially welcomes you and will do all in its power to aid and help this Association. We regret that, meeting as you do in vacation time, we cannot welcome you with our full force of professors and students, many of whom are far away, some across the sea in the Old World,—and still in the pursuit of knowledge. But we have our buildings here, and those you can see. Our museum, our engineering building and our physical building are all what may be called unique in Montreal; and our library which is for the moment in a transitional state preparatory to occupying the fine new building given to us by Mr. Peter Redpath, is still an object of much interest. In this new building we shall hope to welcome the Association at some future meeting, and in the meantime you will be heartily welcome at our conversazione to be held at the museum this evening, to which your tickets will admit you. I have now much pleasure in calling upon the Superintendent of Instruction of the Province of Quebec, a representative of the French Canadian element, but an equal friend of the English Educational element, to address you.

HON. GÉDÉON OUMET: (His speech was delivered in French, of which the following is a translation.)

MR. CHAIRMAN, LADIES AND GENTLEMEN: I am happy that the Edu-

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ational Association of the Dominion of Canada has chosen the Province of Quebec for the place of its first meeting, and it is with a feeling of pride that I find myself in the midst of this concourse of distinguished people, belonging to various nationalities and of different religious faiths, who have come from all parts of the Dominion to work with one accord for the grand cause of education. The praiseworthy emulation which will naturally be excited by this assemblage of people engaged in instruction, whose aspirations are all directed to the same end, cannot but produce the best results. As the official representative of the noble cause in which we are all interested, a cause to which I have devoted the best part of my life, I bid you a cordial welcome. In our Province more than elsewhere, we should feel quite free to discuss educational questions, for in no other country does a more complete harmony exist than amongst the men charged with the direction of our school system. In the council as the immediate controller of our system of instruction, the members who are representatives of the Roman Catholics, and those who are representatives of the Protestants, have always worked together with a perfect harmony, and the agreement which exists between them has rendered the accomplishment of my work both easy and agreeable. The different governments which have succeeded each other since the establishment of the present school system have fully understood that they should do nothing to hinder the action of the zealous educational workers, and not one of them has ever placed the least obstacle in the way of the accomplishment of the important reforms which have been suggested from time to time. Moreover the composition of the Council of Public Instruction in our Province offers a most satisfactory guarantee of good administration, and gives assurance that the excellent relations which have existed to the present time between the representatives of the two religious denominations are sure to be continued. This important body whose duty it is to exercise a general direction over all that has anything to do with our system of public instruction, of which I have the honor, in virtue of my office, to be the president, is at present composed of 32 members.

It is divided into two separate committees,—the one consisting of Roman Catholics, and the other of Protestants. Excepting the Roman Catholic Bishops, who are *ex-officio* members, the distinguished men who compose the council are named by the Lt.-Governor in Council. The Roman Catholic Committee comprises 22 members, of whom 11 are bishops. The Protestant Committee is composed of 11 members who have the power to associate with themselves five persons to aid them in their work, and one member is elected annually by the Pro-

vincial Association of Protestant Teachers. These six associate members are not a part of the Council of Public Instruction, but in the Protestant Committee they have the same powers as other members. These committees have the administration of the funds voted by the Legislature for the support of superior schools and for aid to poor municipalities. The secretaries of the Department of Public Instruction, the inspectors of schools, the principals and professors of normal schools and the members of the boards of examiners are appointed by the executive upon the recommendation of one of the Committees, as the case may demand. The Superintendent, although named by the Lt.-Governor in Council, follows the instructions which are given to him by either of the two committees. He is responsible for all the work which comes directly under the Department of Public Instruction. The school inspectors, who are 38 in number, 30 being Roman Catholics and 8 Protestants, are under his immediate control.

The Province of Quebec is sub-divided for the purposes of public instruction into one thousand and nine municipalities, representing 1,217 school corporations, of which 915 are Roman Catholics and 302 Protestants. Each of these municipalities is administered by a body composed of five school commissioners or three trustees.

In these municipalities the persons who profess a religious faith different from that held by the majority of the inhabitants of that municipality may take advantage of the privilege which the law gives them of establishing separate schools, after which the school matters of such persons are controlled by three school trustees, who have the same administrative powers as the commissioners. There are 208 of the dissentient municipalities. The commissioners as well as the trustees are elected by the rate payers belonging to the several corporations; but if for any reason the election does not take place at the proper time each year, they are appointed by the Lieut. Governor upon the recommendation of the superintendent.

I shall content myself, after having given you this brief description of our school system, by adding a few statistics which will give you an opportunity of judging of the general state of public instruction in the Province of Quebec.

Statistics for the year 1890-1891 show that there are 5,439 school houses, of which 4,658 belong to commissioners or trustees, 406 are rented by commissioners or trustees, 376 are used by independent schools. 4,795 school houses are made of wood, 368 are of brick, 276 are of stone. These school buildings and the grounds with them are valued at \$6,578,200.

DIFFERENT INSTITUTIONS.

	Catholic.	Protestant.	Total.
Elementary schools,	3,994	935	4,929
Model schools,	448	41	489
Academy schools,	143	32	175
Normal schools,	2	1	3
Classical colleges,	17	7	24
Universities,	2	2	4
Schools for deaf mutes and the blind,	3	1	4
Technical Schools,			9
Total,	4,609	1,019	5,637

These different schools are attended by 273,616 pupils, of whom 237,522 are Catholics and 36,094 Protestants. The average attendance has been during the past year 204,109, that is to say, about 75 per cent

The number of persons and teachers employed in our Province is 9,428, of whom 6,795 are Roman Catholics and 1,472 Protestants. The majority of the teaching staff is composed of female teachers. They are 7,501, of whom 2,099 belong to various religious communities.

There are 19 Roman Catholic boards of examiners, who hold three sessions per year. In the year 1890-1891 these boards issued 818 diplomas,—664 being elementary, 152 model and 2 academic.

The Protestants have but one central board of examiners, which issued 261 diplomas as follows: 209 elementary, 49 model, and 3 academic.

Since their formation in 1857, they have issued 5,233 diplomas to 1,781 male and 3,452 female teachers, distributed in the following manner: elementary diplomas, 2,678; model diplomas, 2,073; academic diplomas, 482. In 1890-1891 they distributed 288 diplomas to 129 male and 159 female teachers.

SUMS EXPENDED FOR PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

Amount paid by Legislature,	\$457,860.00
Sums contributed by rate payers:—	
In taxes, annually,	\$913,632.00
Special taxes,	79,147.00
Monthly fees,	144,549.00
	\$1,137,328.00
Amt. expended by institutions for superior education,	1,072,731.00
Total,	\$2,667,919.00

I can state unreservedly, without the slightest fear of contradiction, that in no country of the world where the population is composed of different races, professing different religions, are the rights of the minority more respected than they are in the Province of Quebec, where we, the descendants of the pioneers, who have chosen this part of the world which is to be the birth-place of a grand Canadian confederation, recognize that the representatives of the different nationalities who live with us are to be treated as brothers.

In meeting together, in working with one accord, we, whose duty it is to direct the education of our population, will learn to know, and I hope to appreciate, each other better than ever before. In the discussion of educational questions we shall advance arguments necessary to allay the race prejudices which sometimes still exist between people called to work in union for the development and the prosperity of their common country. It was indeed the desire to extend the grand principle of fraternity which should bind us closer together, that the Catholic committee of the Council of Public Instruction declared by a resolution at its last meeting, "that it would be glad to see the Roman Catholic teachers of the Province of Quebec taking part in the Dominion Educational Association of Canada." (Loud applause.)

R. W. HENEKER, CHAIRMAN OF THE PROTESTANT COMMITTEE OF THE COUNCIL OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

MR. PRESIDENT, LADIES AND GENTLEMEN :—After the very flattering words which have just passed from the lips of our chairman, I confess that I approach the subject of my address to you to-day with some degree of doubt and hesitation. I am, as he says, the chairman of the Protestant Committee of the Council of Public Instruction, and as their delegate I appear before you to-day in order to extend their welcome to all who attend this Association, whether they belong to the Province of Quebec or come from outside parts. They, I assure you, feel a deep and hearty interest in this great work which brings us together on this occasion. We, in this Province of Quebec, as my friend, the Superintendent, has explained to you, form one council of public instruction with two great committees. I do not desire to take up your time in going over the ground which Mr. Ouimet has so clearly laid before you, but I wish to point out one or two matters which should be taken up here, and which would seem to me of interest to us all. We are a mixed population in the Province of Quebec,—more mixed than any other population in the Dominion. Now, with reference to our educational

department we have, as I have said, two great committees,—Roman Catholic on the one side and Protestant on the other. The Roman Catholic numbers six-sevenths of the whole, while we scattered Protestants, divided into various ideas of religious faith, number only one-seventh. The problem was therefore a very difficult one to solve as to how the public education of the country was to be carried on. We have, however, I think, solved this difficult problem, and we have found on the part of our Roman Catholic friends a desire to give us justice in all that is reasonable that we could ask from them; and in carrying out our desires the Government has appointed a gentleman at the head of the administrative part of the work of education, in whom as an upright and honorable man we have the most unbounded confidence. I speak of course of Mr. Ouimet who has just addressed you. (Applause.) Whenever anything has to be carried by us we know we have a friend in Mr. Ouimet. He always carries out our wishes to the full. He has never failed us, and I believe we could not have a more just or gentlemanly or courteous man in that position than the honorable gentleman who has just addressed you. Now, the work of our Protestant Committee has been of a very difficult nature. At the time of Confederation, as the Chairman has told you, the work of education was placed in the hands of each Province. With that the Dominion Government had and has nothing to do. The matter of education was relegated to each Province according to those lights which each Province was possessed of to carry it out. Immediately after this an Act was passed in the Quebec Legislature forming the Council of Education, which was then divided into two great Committees, as already mentioned to you. The President of the Council found the work of the superior education of the country in a most lamentable condition. By superior education I mean what are called the academies or high schools of the country. Their first effort was to bring these high schools up to a proper standard, which would enable them to fit their students for the higher walks of life and for those positions for which we require educated men and women in this country. We had some difficulty in doing this, but we worked continuously, and by a system of inspection in these schools we have brought it to pass so that our academies and high schools to-day are second to none in the whole Dominion of Canada. That has been the work of years, and it has caused a great revolution. We have sometimes been subjected to some public criticism on the work we have done and sometimes on the work we have not done. Many indeed thought that we were doing nothing and that our efforts were practically

useless, that we were, in fact, only having a good time, without inaugurating any real improvements in the system; but I tell you that this is wrong, for we have done an enormous amount of work, and that work has told, as we believe, on the welfare of the country, because we now find that in all the better institutions they are prompted with the desire to have a high class education, and we have given them such excellent teachers in consequence of having such excellent examinations, that we were able to turn out a large number of young men and women fit to take their places anywhere in life. (Applause.) There is one great work, however, which we have yet to do, and which perhaps you might have to do also. That work—the very first which we should take up—is the elementary work of the country. The work which is carried on in the elementary schools is not what it ought to be. We are very much handicapped for want of funds. The grant from the Legislature is very small, and we have not enough money even when that grant is supplemented by the grants of the various municipalities. It has been found necessary to spend large amounts of money for public works, and there have been so many demands upon the public purse, that it has been very hard to get the rate-payers to consent to a sufficient tax upon them for the carrying out of this great work. What we require to do is to educate the rate-payer, in order to make him feel the absolute necessity of placing the children upon a proper standard so far as elementary education is concerned. The work, however, is going on in this direction, though it has not been accomplished yet, and I believe in the course of time,—give us a little time; let us do our work slowly but surely,—and I believe in the course of time we shall see the elementary schools of this country holding as high a position relatively as the higher class schools,—the academies and high schools. I do not wish to detain you. There are several other addresses of welcome, and it does not become us therefore to make long speeches. I therefore close by bidding you a hearty welcome to the Province of Quebec, and in this connection I wish you would not confine yourselves in this great and beautiful city, but that you would visit other parts of our Province—our Eastern Townships, for instance, and particularly the University of Bishop's College, Lennoxville, of which I have the honor to be Chancellor, and where we should be proud to show you the work carried on in as beautiful a country as the sun ever shone upon. (Cheers.)

The Rev. Abbé Verreault, who spoke in French, after expressing his own pleasure at being present, remarked that he regretted the absence of Mgr. Hamel, who was to have welcomed the teachers on behalf of Laval

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University. This duty now devolved upon him, and he would do his best to fulfill it satisfactorily. With regard to education in general, he said that he recognized the necessity of having unity in the different systems now in vogue, and that he was proud to think the time had come when the people of Canada, or such of them at least who were interested in education reforms, could behold such a union in the organization which he was now addressing. In the name of Laval University he welcomed the visitors, and said that they would have an opportunity of seeing for themselves the high appreciation shown by Montreal citizens of higher education. The different institutions of the city would amply show this.

THE REV. DR. ADAMS, PRINCIPAL OF BISHOP'S COLLEGE.

MR. PRESIDENT, LADIES AND GENTLEMEN :—I feel very proud at having been selected as one of the speakers on this occasion to take part in the welcoming of this great body of teachers, not only so far as our own Province is concerned, but more especially with reference to those who come from a distance, and I tender you all a hearty and cordial welcome. I could not help thinking when I saw the formidable list of speakers who were to address you on this subject what on earth would be left for me to say when it came to my turn, and now as Mr. Ouimet has described to you the system of our Province, and as Sir William Dawson, who has been almost I might say ever since I was a boy well known as one of the foremost educationalists in the Province, has given you such a rare treat in expressing his views here, speaking of what has been done in the City of Montreal, I was trying to find out whether there was any function left untouched, my last hope being to tell you something at least of Bishop's College, since every other subject seems to have been exhausted. But now, even my last hope has been taken away and disappeared when the Chancellor undertook to explain to you the beauties of Lennoxville, extending to you at the same time an invitation to visit Bishop's College,—an invitation which it is now only left to me to say that I cordially endorse and hope you will avail yourselves of the opportunity to come and see us. Our University is within easy reach, being on the direct route between Montreal and the Lower Provinces, and if you come you will find a hearty welcome, and we will do the best we can to show you what we have to show. Now, in regard to welcomes in general, it is a very important thing to put guests in good feeling with themselves, and I thought that the others having exhausted the subject of welcome generally I would say a word or two of congratulation, not upon the pleasure which the guests must feel at being assembled in this noble hall in

this noble City and this noble Province, but a congratulation upon the work in which they are engaged. This is a subject of congratulation, and one which gives us every reason not only to welcome them, but makes it an honor to welcome them,—because we are engaged in the noble work of education, and therefore we may congratulate ourselves that this City and this Province has been chosen for the first meeting of this Educational Association. I could say a good deal about this, but I shall try to confine my remarks to a very few words. I might say something on the subject of work in the future. I might say something of the work we have been accomplishing and its enormous issues, for the work that we are engaged in to-day has not only to do with the technicalities of education, it has also to do with moral training, and I think I might say that the work which teachers have to do is fraught with immortality. I might also speak of the power which education has for material advancement, and that in a country like ours progression depends entirely upon the influences which are thrown out from the schools, and therefore in this particular we are doing a fertilizing work. I might also speak of the correctness of the standard which teachers throughout the country are seeking to attain, for in having in our care and power the moral well-being and education of the generation which is coming up, what manner of persons are we who are setting an example of moral restraints to those who are placed in our care? I might also speak of rewards attained through our attention to our duties. And in this connection let me say that if we have no enthusiasm for our work, then we are not in our places as teachers; and if we have enthusiasm then it seems to me that no one possesses any happier work than the teacher. I might say a word about purity of life and purity of motive, which are both essential to good citizenship. We hear a good deal about liberty, but liberty without order is just as bad as order without liberty. With liberty and order united it is possible to have those conditions where true life can exist? By a proper combination of the two you will arrive at true life, but without this it is impossible. Let us remember then that above all it is necessary to have honesty and truth, and in this work of education an absence of self-seeking. Now, there is the work of the high school to be considered and the work of the primary school; work for each child and work for each teacher. All these things are very important, and finally there is before us all, I may say, whether we are engaged as teachers or in any other work, the work of making true and good citizens,—a work which seems to me to be founded on the one idea of self-denial and self-sacrifice. And now in the name of everyone in this Province I bid you a hearty welcome to Montreal. (Applause.)

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MR. LACROIX, VICE-PRESIDENT OF THE ASSOCIATION OF ROMAN
CATHOLIC TEACHERS OF QUEBEC.

Mr. Lacroix, who addressed the Association in the French language, bade the teachers from other Provinces welcome in the name of the French Association. He said that this duty fell upon him in the absence of the President, whose position therefore he was temporarily called upon to fill. He stated that he was here to learn as well as to expound, and that whatever the French teachers might see of good in other systems they would be sure to avail themselves of. He hoped that in this connection by comparisons made in the methods of the various provinces, the Convention would result in a great benefit to everyone. He bid them a hearty welcome.

MR. E. W. ARTHY, PRESIDENT OF THE PROVINCIAL ASSOCIATION OF
PROTESTANT TEACHERS, was next introduced, and spoke as follows:—

MR. CHAIRMAN AND FELLOW-MEMBERS OF THE DOMINION ASSOCIATION :—You have listened this afternoon to several admirable addresses of welcome, and the few words that I shall have to say to you will close this part of the programme. In this official bulletin which I hold in my hands you will find a brief history of the Association,—the Provincial Association, which I have the honor to represent,—showing how it came to be organized some twenty-five years ago, as far back as 1867, when the Quebec teachers of this Province made the first though unsuccessful effort to organize a Dominion Association of teachers. Three years ago, in 1889, the question came up again for consideration, and from that time the movement was presented systematically and vigorously. Our Association in Quebec entered into correspondence with prominent educators in the different Provinces, and we sent delegates to their meetings to represent our views upon this matter. As the time seemed ripening for action, the meeting of the National Educational Association last July in Toronto presented a favorable opportunity for gathering together representative Canadian teachers from all parts of the Dominion. That meeting was held, you know with what result. We do not draw attention to these facts in any spirit of self-glorification so far as we in Quebec are concerned. It is true that we do regard with pride and gratification the organization which I see before me to-day, but I hope it is with legitimate pride and legitimate gratification. In the organization of this body we readily yield the first place to the honorable gentleman who will this year preside over the deliberations of this Association, the Hon.

Geo. W. Ross, Minister of Education. Without his influence and ready aid our dream could scarcely have become a reality. The meeting was called last year, and was named in Toronto the Dominion Educational Association. The new organization recognized all this when it appointed Mr. Ross its first president, and it also recognized our more humble efforts when it drew from the Province of Quebec its two next executive officers, and expressed the sentiment that its first official meeting be held in the first City of this Province. What I want to say to you then is that the Provincial Association of the Province of Quebec has reason to extend to you a hearty welcome, and that it finds in this gathering the fruition of its labors and the results of its hopes. The Association that I have the honor to represent will not hold this year its usual convention. It met yesterday for the transaction of necessary business, and immediately adjourned to merge itself in this meeting, feeling that by this step its members would derive the greatest benefit. We are proud to see in Quebec an educational platform so broad that we can stand upon it side by side with our Roman Catholic teachers in this Province. The opportunity thus afforded for the free interchange of thought will sweep away prejudices and will broaden our ideas in every department of educational work. Fellow-members of the Dominion Educational Association, some of you I think we know by reputation and others personally. May the acquaintance formed with you all ripen into friendship founded upon mutual esteem. You are welcome to our fair city. We invite you to inspect our educational system, and we would say to you what the President of the National Association has said to us: "If you find in our system, in our methods, or in our thoughts anything useful or suggestive, 'twas ours, 'tis yours." May your visit to this city be useful, and may you carry away nothing but pleasant memories. If in the future this present gathering for which I have worked and hoped should bring you back to this Province, and perhaps to this city, I would ask you to come back with only pleasant recollections of your treatment here.

The Chairman (*pro tem.*) then said: This brings this part of the programme to an end. There are very many others here whom I would call upon to address you, such as Mr. Archambault and others, but time will not permit us to listen to all that these gentlemen could say to us. I am sure, however, that you may take it for granted that all these gentlemen extend to you a hearty welcome,—a most cordial welcome to our city. It now devolves upon me to call upon the President of the Association to address you. Mr. Ross is the head of the Educational

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Department in the Province of Ontario, and by virtue of his position he is the presiding officer of this Association. Mr. Ross will now address you, and then permanently assume the chair as President.

HON. G. W. ROSS.

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN:—It must occur to every one of you that the duty and the task of replying adequately to such a hearty welcome as has been presented to the Dominion Association from so many quarters is one which no person, no matter how gifted, could perform with comfort or with any confidence that he would succeed at least in the first attempt; and I see I am only going to have one trial at it. I cannot find words to express the great pleasure I feel at the kind reception given to the Dominion Association at its first meeting. I must say, from what I have seen of our good friends from the Province of Quebec, and from what I know of the citizens of Montreal, that I expected myself a very cordial welcome, and I have received it from every person with whom I have come in contact. Indeed, we have had a welcome far exceeding our expectations, and we reciprocate a reception which we have no doubt has been as sincere as it has been cordial. As to the President *pro tem.* of this Association, let me say that we well understand his work. We have heard of McGill, and the great place it has occupied among the educational institutions of this country; of the great endowments and donations it has received; and if we were inclined to be envious,—though there must be no envy in this great republic of letters,—we would only envy the hearts which have so bountifully provided for education in this great institution. We honor such names as Redpath, and Molson, and McDonald, and others who have done so much to honor themselves in presenting to this institution such magnificent gifts. With all the great benefits which we in other places have received, McGill has received benefactions of far greater importance than elsewhere in a Redpath Museum, a library, a scientific hall and in the lifework of the distinguished president who has given the best of his years to its promotion and advancement. I reciprocate also the kind words of our friend the Chief Superintendent from the Province of Quebec. He occupies a happy position, being under obligation to no political party,—a man who has proved himself capable of pleasing Protestant and Catholic, Whig and Tory, all at the same time. (Laughter.) For my part I regret to say I have not been able to do that. In fact, I am so perversely situated that I don't always try. (Laughter.) However, we get along in the Province of Ontario in our own way, and if

it should so happen that by coming in contact with the felicitous principle of doing things in the Province of Quebec we should conclude that a departure from our stilted methods would be good, then perhaps the day may come when someone else, chief superintendent in Ontario, may be as happy in his work as the chief superintendent of Quebec. For the present we accept his assurances of good will, and we rejoice to know that the great Province of Quebec has so able an officer and there is so much good feeling and kindness existing between the various religious branches, for how much that is necessary everybody knows,—we rejoice to know that there is that amount of feeling which enables him to direct the educational institutions of the country in such a way as to produce the best results for Protestants and Catholics, for English men and Frenchmen, and the general prosperity of the Province as a whole. Perhaps we may learn to do better in Ontario than we have been doing. At any rate we shall try. We appreciate on behalf of the Association the kind words spoken by the Chancellor and the Principal of Bishop's College, Dr. Henneker and Dr. Adams. I know a good deal of the work of Dr. Adams, and we rejoice to know that he is living in that beautiful portion of the Province where he is sure to be successful, and where genius would command success no matter how unfavorable the circumstances might be. And we are glad to hear from old Laval, the first University in the Province of Quebec, I believe. We are glad to hear from Abbé Verreau. We are glad to hear from the representative of the Roman Catholic Teachers' Association, and from the President of the Provincial Association of Protestant Teachers. We are glad to know that in the first introduction of our work as the Dominion Association, we are meeting irrespective of religion or nationality.

Here in this Association may be found the representative of the kindergarten, with its interesting methods, and here the public schools, the high schools, the academies and the universities of Canada, together with those religious bodies which are undertaking the great work of education, may all look forward to that wider and broader field from which we feel that this Association is going to reap a harvest by-and-bye.

The question we ask ourselves to-day is: "Are we going to be provincial in our education or are we going to be national?" Politicians for twenty-five years have met at considerable expense in beautiful quarters, erected at a cost of five millions of dollars or close upon five hundred thousand dollars per year, for the noble purpose of making laws for five millions of people, for the noble purpose of governing a territory

larger by five hundred thousand square miles than the United States, larger than Central Europe, thirteen times larger than Germany, and yet I fear we are obliged to say that confederation is not as solidified as it ought to be, and that we (at least in Ontario) do not reach out with aspirations stretching east and west towards that national life which must be a unity if it is going to accomplish its purpose. And when that national life has been felt, as I believe, by every teacher in Canada, in response to a call from Quebec,—and I am delighted in the call coming from this ancient Province,—we said: let us try and do what the politicians have not yet done,—what the public sentiment of this country has not yet done, viz.: to bind together the twenty thousand teachers of Canada, sent in the persons of representatives from the universities, the high schools and academies of this country, and through them declare to the world that Canada is not divided into provincial ideas, but that the sentiments of the Provinces are united into one harmonious whole. I verily believe if I believe anything,—and I certainly do believe a great many things,—that if you come in force as you do to-day,—twenty thousand strong, with that patriotic sentiment which should burn in your minds,—you will so solidify and unite the people of this country that this land will be dearer to them than ever was Mecca to the pilgrim. Take your little school mistress, if you please, shy and retiring, with fifty little boys and girls before her, and there is a map of Canada upon the wall. What an effect it must have upon their minds to be told that that is a map of a country which stretched from the Atlantic to the Pacific oceans, from the 49th parallel of latitude to the Aurora Borealis, and that that country is theirs,—a land whose rivers and seas are teeming with inexhaustible wealth,—a sentiment which puts in their minds a charm which grows and bears fruit for the children of Canada twenty years after. This is what we have to do. This is the first A B C of our instruction, and this is the purpose of our work. If we had but a unification of standard and method, one similar thought, one common aspiration, everyone of these teachers would put his or her hand on that map, and, beginning with Nova Scotia, point out each province till British Columbia was reached,—and I am glad to see that we have here as the first vice-president of this Association a gentleman from Vancouver,—and then he or she would say: "This is your country; all this is yours." (Loud applause.) Ah, yes; from Manitoba they have come, and from the East they are assembling to testify to this great purpose of our Association. But there is something more of a practical character,—a business character, more pertaining to the shop

than what I have already mentioned. I find often as Minister of Education very intelligent and accomplished men and women coming and saying: "I have a first-class certificate from Nova Scotia or Prince Edward Island;" and I ask: "Where is Prince Edward Island or Nova Scotia?" You must go and pass our examination; otherwise we cannot recognize you. That is the condition of education with us at present. We are shouting just now for unrestricted reciprocity between our own country and the United States, and yet in the matter of education we seem to have no confidence in any other part of our own land except our own. Isn't there something wrong about that? If there was a unity of feeling, then the same stuff that makes a good teacher in Prince Edward Island is what we want in Ontario; and if we could here by some means ascertain what would be a suitable common standard for all and work up to that standard, then the citizens of Canada would be citizens indeed. Fancy a man taking the oath of allegiance in British Columbia, and then when he went to Nova Scotia discovering that he had to take it over again there. Yet that is just what we have been doing in the matter of education; for a man who has passed his examination once in one Province will find himself bound to pass it again in another from beginning to end. To change all this is our duty, and we must do it. To bring out a perfect unity in our midst is our duty and we must do it, for oh, how good and pleasant a thing it is for brethren to dwell together in unity. (Laughter.) Can't we do something to express our confidence in each other, and if your standards are not high enough for us, let us indicate what standards we want. There is not so much difference after all between tweedledum and tweedledee. We put up our standards sometimes capriciously, and sometimes we capriciously take them down.

I have perused with great care the various histories in use in all the provinces of this Dominion, and I have found them all to be merely provincial histories, without reference to our common country. Each province recounts the manner of the growth of its parishes, its towns and its vestries, forgetting that by inculcating in the mind of a child ideas which are purely local you are restricting very much his sympathy, and circumscribing very much his political and national horizon. Can't we agree upon certain broad features common to the whole of this Dominion with which we can indoctrinate our pupils, so that when a child takes up the history of Canada, he feels that he is not simply taking up the history of Canada such as the old Canada was, but that he is taking up the history of a great country. We want to get upon some basic idea, to see our members on some Pisgah height from which they can

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look abroad upon the promised land if there be one, and if there be no promised land then let us know it, that we may retire to our tents and die in peace. But I believe this country has a future. I see before me the representative builders of Canada, the men and women who can unify this country, the greatest moral force within this country excepting perhaps our common Christianity,—the men and women who take our boys and girls and so guide and direct them that they become good men and women in the next quarter of a century. I see before me the greatest intellectual force in the country,—the press and pulpit not excepted. The twenty thousand men and women who lay their hands upon the children for two hundred days of the year must have a potency which makes one tremble for their responsibility, and in welcoming us all here let us hope we can say with pride and confidence: "This welcome is not misplaced." Let us rejoice that our profession is recognized by the people of the City of Montreal, by the President of the Roman Catholic Association of this Province,—recognized in such kindly and courteous terms; and we hope as the years go by that this Association, though it may pitch its tent here and there in different parts of the Dominion, will never forget that it has a national purpose; that it is a republic of letters in which there are no dunces; that we are devoted to making democratic institutions, and that we are aristocratic in the sense of giving the highest places to intelligent morality and character, and in this way will we fill the purpose for which we have been organized, a constant motor in the path of this great patriotism which has the making of nations and of individuals. I thank you for connecting my name with this work. I was a country schoolmaster some years ago, and had the delightful task of teaching the young idea how to shoot, and now having graduated from one department to another, I find a pleasure in presiding over a convention that makes its home from one part of the country to the other. "Peace and happiness and good-will to all men" are words that are national and patriotic. I wish them all to everyone present, and I thank you, sir.

DR. J. R. INCH, SUPERINTENDENT OF EDUCATION FOR THE PROVINCE
OF NEW BRUNSWICK, }

The broad, generous and comprehensive spirit of the speech which has just been addressed to this audience leaves but little for me and those who follow to say; and yet ladies and gentlemen and members of the Dominion Association, I am proud to have the privilege of responding to this address of welcome on behalf of the citizens of New Brunswick. I have just come from the meeting of the Provincial

Association of the Province of New Brunswick, an Association which had some 260 or 270 teachers enrolled in its organization. I am sure that if it had not been that the meeting of that Association occurred immediately before the opening of this Association in the City of Montreal, a much larger representation of teachers from my Province would have been present on this occasion; and I must confess that when we from the Lower Provinces visit the great Province of Quebec and the City of Montreal, where we have the opportunity of seeing the evidences of wealth and prosperity which are everywhere present, particularly in such cities as Quebec, Montreal and westward in Toronto, the first feeling perhaps is one of discouragement. When we compare our own environments with yours, we say to ourselves: Is it possible that we can ever emulate the success and prosperity of our brethren in this great Province? Can we ever have such fine school buildings as this in which we are privileged to assemble this afternoon? Can we ever hope to have such complete equipments? Can we expect to extend to our teachers such encouragement as will lead them to look forward with confidence to the future, and give them sufficient emoluments at least as will enable them to cling to their profession and afford the most reasonable competence? There is then, I say, a feeling of discouragement among us, as we have but limited resources and a limited population; but I am happy to say that most of this discouragement perhaps arises from such comparisons as I have alluded to. Apart from that, however, let me say that we feel that we are not simply New Brunswickers or Nova Scotians, but that we belong to this great Dominion; that your honor is our honor; that your greatness is our greatness. In addition to that, sir, it is with some degree of satisfaction that we contemplate the fact that we from this small Province by the sea have contributed in no small degree to the success of the educational work even in the larger provinces, for we must remember to how great a degree we have been the means of filling your universities, and have supplied men who have taken the foremost rank in the various departments of educational work, not only in the Province of Quebec but also in Ontario, so that we truly feel that we need not hide our diminished heads. (Laughter and applause.) When we have the privilege of reckoning as Maritime Province men such names as those of Sir William Dawson, and T. H. Allen of Macmaster University, together with many others, I think we can regard our own circumstances with a great degree of complacency. Indeed, while upon this topic I might say that not long ago I was asked by a friend in Ontario: "Is it not true

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that all your cleverest men leave the Lower Provinces at the first opportunity they get?" I ventured to suggest in reply that the clever and good people of the Maritime Provinces were largely imbued with the missionary spirit, that their ears were always open to the Macedonian cry of "come over and help us," and that they were always readiest to go to that place where there was the greatest need; and I assured my friend that there was no special danger that the supply in these Lower Provinces would be soon exhausted; that there was now growing up among our young people there, under the influences of earth and sky and air and ocean, a sufficient quantity of timber to supply the whole Dominion with just as good specimens as those which we had already added to other Provinces, and that even when the Dominion was supplied we might have a few left for our brethren across the line. Now, these comparisons as between Province and Province may, as we look at them, absolutely cause some discouragement to the Lower Provinces, but yet relatively I do not know that we have any occasion to feel discouraged. In the Province of New Brunswick about twenty-one and a half per cent. of our population is enrolled in the public schools. We contribute about one quarter of our Provincial revenue directly to our public schools. A population of about 325,000 contributes about \$450,000 a year to the support of education, and such progress has been made as must gratify the educationalists throughout the Dominion, and the progress that has been achieved from our lowest grade schools up to our University we have a right to call a success. If my friend, the Principal of the Ladies' High School in St. John, were upon this platform, he could give you some statistics as to the competitive examinations which are held for the degree of Associate of Arts; but in his absence, while I cannot tell you the figures on this occasion, I can assure you that in proportion to the number of competitors the successful candidates from the city of St. John are higher than those from any other school which competes throughout the Dominion. And now, I will not occupy your attention for any longer time, but allow me in closing to reciprocate the sentiments of the learned and distinguished gentlemen who have so cordially presented such a hearty welcome on this occasion.

DR. A. H. MACKAY, SUPERINTENDENT OF EDUCATION FOR THE
PROVINCE OF NOVA SCOTIA.

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN:—I think the best thing I could do would be to say that I agree fully and completely with the hearty way in which

the thanks of our visitors have been returned to the people of Montreal on this occasion. We are thankful that a city which is the commercial center of the Dominion should welcome us in this happy way,—a city that is one of the most beautiful in the Dominion, if not the most beautiful in America, and one which is situated in such a position that I think if there is to be any great future in Canada will be the leading city on this continent. I see there has been a great deal of boasting indulged in by the various provinces, and I suppose I should do something in that line from Nova Scotia. (Laughter.) Though it would not be very safe for me to brag very much about Nova Scotia in this great commercial center, still I might inform you that there is one point where we certainly surpass you and every other city in the Dominion. Have any of you ever been to Halifax? Well, anyway, for the Dominion of Canada the sun rises in Halifax, and after we have enjoyed its morning's rays and have taken what we want of its fervid glow, we allow the rest of its rays to fall upon the remaining portion of the country from our own little city to Vancouver—the empress of the Pacific ocean. (Laughter.) Well, in addition to that, I know that you think a great deal more of us than you are generally aware of. Every morning that you get up you look towards Nova Scotia, and I hope for yourselves that wherever you are you will always remember that Nova Scotia is the first Province in Canada, for I can assure you that every evening after a troublesome day we look towards the west and think of those other Provinces, which to-day are supplying more than twenty thousand teachers for the education of the youth of our country. I fully agree with what has been said here to-day, and must confess it a pleasure to find that our work is the same everywhere. I find too that some of our best and noblest thoughts have been expressed here in so beautiful a manner that all we can do is to stand aside and admire them. Perhaps some of you will say: If we are really such hearty admirers of the whole Dominion, why do we not have a better representation here? I will explain that to you. This is a great Dominion, and twenty thousand teachers is a very heavy body; but once they are moved, nothing can stop them. How many times had the teachers in the United States met before they could gather together in such quantities as they do to-day? When you selected the place of meeting at such a late date, we found that our schools were no longer in session. We did, however, at the last moment arrange to come up here. We put off our Science school which was to meet only next month, and on this very day in the city of Halifax there is an exhibition going on just as you will see downstairs, and that accounts for Nova Scotia not

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being seen down below. I think I can assure you, however, that if you don't see so much of us here in person it is not because we are not with you in spirit. There is another thought that strikes me at this moment. I understood there was a good deal of diversity in many things between the majority in this Province and the minority. I refer to the alleged differences between the French and English. These differences, however, I must confess I have failed to observe; and when I remember that eight hundred years ago, the ancestors of these French took hold of us and conquered us, I am bound to conclude that they left their impress upon us in such a way as to really make but little distinction between us. The truth is that we have taken that conquest in the most kindly way; for now we boast of our descent from that mixed noble people. Of this people I expected to meet here a later branch, for I hold that we English are really a fusion of the two, and where there is a diversity of surroundings, training and conditions, there we are more apt to learn something new. If we are meeting only with our own people we are not likely to learn something new. So far as the French language is concerned, I am very sorry that I cannot speak it myself. I can read the language pretty freely, however, and if only my new acquaintances in this Province would speak a little, perhaps I might soon get to know it. Our meeting here in my judgment tends to make a second union between these two peoples, and I think if you will look back upon the history of the world you will find that if any nation has been great it has been a nation which has been made up of two or more stocks, for when they combine it appears that somehow the good qualities of the two remain. Speaking of the great good which is going to be done by this Association, there are some educational problems which can be solved in this way. I see that the city of Montreal has sent delegates to London, recommending a certain plan with regard to our own language,—a plan which if put in effect will save us a great deal of work in the schools, and enable us to do some other work instead. It now takes about fifteen minutes to cover with ordinary writing one page of foolscap, and the day is coming when we will no longer write that old crabbed writing. The time is coming, and it is not so very far distant, when from the very beginning our young people will write a shorthand which will shorten our written work three or four times, when everyone from their youth up will adopt a reporter's style which will enable him to write as fast as anyone can talk. For this great end we should all work together, in order to take our place among the English-speaking nations of the world. There is another change coming, too: Our spelling will be

reformed. It is, not a generation since Archbishop Trench called attention to this matter, and expressed the hope that a change would soon be made in this direction. Across the border every person of note in the United States has known that a phonetic spelling is desirable; and if the English language is going to be the great language of the world, and if shorthand writing is coming into general use, we think that simple spelling will come into existence, and we can save years of our work which we can devote to other things.

One thing further, and then I am done. Of course we started up from mere fragments, but there must be a future before us. We can't help coming to the conclusion that there will be. What portion of the continent have we? Is the belt which we possess the best there is? Well, we may not have the corn-growing belt, though perhaps we have the wheat-growing one, but I will tell you what we have got: we have the man-growing belt,—men who have been the foundation of nations from the earliest times. It may be that here the climate is a little rigorous; it may be that ever and anon we have to face the storms of winter, when perhaps sometimes it feels a little cool, but it makes our sinews harder all the same, and enables us to do more manly work than if we lived in a warmer clime, and so we will grow and become just as fruitful in splendid men and women as we can be. We are on a missionary tour, and if we esteem and carry the principles which we possess from those who have gone before us, I am sure our missionary tour will do more good to the world than if we stayed at home. (Loud applause.)

MR. SINCLAIR, PRESIDENT OF THE ONTARIO TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

MR. CHAIRMAN, LADIES AND GENTLEMEN:—Ontario has already been heard from; and what shall I say? I certainly shall not detain you a moment except to tell you that I am glad all the way up, and that is quite a distance. (Laughter.) We, in the Far West, are always glad when anything occurs which gives us the opportunity of gazing upon the unrivalled beauties of this your city; and, in so far as I have the honor and ability to represent the public school teachers of the Province of Ontario, I desire to express our hearty thanks for your cordial welcome, and extend to you our wishes for your success and our gladness that you have succeeded to-day in the inception of the Dominion Educational Association, at once so stable, so symmetrical and so splendid. I have great hopes for this Association. I believe it is the harbinger of great things, and I believe that when we have acquired more age we shall find

ourselves a tremendous power for good in the land. Here is an opportunity to-day for men and women of our country, even though they be only teachers. We want to be able to learn from people in other Provinces, and I am sure that we will. For my part, I am glad to be here to-day, and I shall only echo the sentiments which have been expressed so happily by the friends who have preceded me, and that I believe the possibilities of this Association are great, and that when we catch the inspirations that will come to us by and by, we shall begin to realize the priceless blessing of a universal education for Canada in a system with which our present best achievements can only be compared as the shadows of the morning twilight contrasted with the Prince of Day. (Applause.)

CONVERSAZIONE AT MCGILL UNIVERSITY.

TUESDAY EVENING, July 5th, 1892.

A large and representative company of the visiting teachers of the Dominion Educational Association assembled at the Redpath Museum to enjoy the hospitality of McGill College. The following addresses were made during the evening:—

SIR WILLIAM DAWSON said:—

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN:—In inviting you here this evening we thought we would have you gather in a scientific building, because we felt sure you had all heard of the Peter Redpath Museum, and that some of you would like to see it. This is one of the older science buildings of McGill College, representing the sciences of Geology, Zoology and Botany. Connected with our University are several scientific departments, and the first one that I think the teachers throughout the Dominion should take an interest in is our little observatory, which was gotten up by Dr. Smallwood. This building not only does something for the meteorology of the Dominion, but it keeps time for the public officers at Ottawa, and you will easily understand that this is a very important thing. It keeps time for the great railroads and the shipping of the St. Lawrence. These are things that are very useful and very important to the community. Besides that, the stand of the transit instrument in this observatory is the only one in the Dominion of Canada fixed upon a spot on which exact longitude has been ascertained by comparison with Greenwich. It is the point from which

all measurements in the Dominion are taken. This is indeed the *hora horarum* in Canada, and it is quite worth the while of the teachers to look at it. One of our Lower Province men is in London to-day, doing work with the Assistant Astronomer Royal in attempting to finish up to the smallest hairbreadth the precise position of this instrument in our observatory. The second building to which I wish to direct your attention is the chemical laboratory, fitted up by Mr. McDonald, which, although not large, has been accepted as a model for many laboratories now being fitted up in different parts of the Dominion. Then we have the grand buildings for Applied Science, the gift of W. C. McDonald, to which you are invited on Friday, and which is one of the most interesting within the enclosure. Returning to this building, I wish to direct your attention to the fact that in the upper gallery we have a department occupied for zoological purposes. At the present moment you will observe that the human species is very largely represented in front; but you will see that they are of an advanced type by comparison with the skeleton of the gorilla over in one corner, which some persons think to be the first cousin of humanity. (Laughter.) The whole arrangement of this building is based upon a regular scientific plan suitable for working students, and here, on this floor, we have the geological specimens of the earth, provided for in like manner, not by those standing around me—(laughter)—but by a thoroughly scientific system, beginning with the oldest forms of animal and plant life, going regularly around, until we come to the present period. The idea has been to have the various specimens so arranged that the student may understand what they mean and take advantage of them. On the floor below we have class-rooms and working-rooms, and in the floor below that we have our herbarium. I am sorry to say that the herbarium is devoted at the present time to a purpose somewhat different from that of zoology or botany, being used just now for a ladies' dressing-room—(laughter)—but it represents there, when not so occupied, every known plant which has been discovered in the Dominion of Canada. And, last of all, there is in the floor below something which I think may, to some extent, interest all who are present, and that is a little collection of specimens which we are to use by way of refreshments on the present occasion, which are now ready and which we cordially invite all present to take advantage of. I wish now to ask Dr. MacVicar, the Chairman of the Protestant Board of School Commissioners of this city, to say a few words to the company here assembled.

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Dr. MACVICAR then said :—

MR. PRESIDENT AND FELLOW-TEACHERS :—I scarcely think it necessary for me to detain you to listen to a speech. Sir William has told you that this is a scientific building and not constructed for the purposes of oratory. However, I desire very particularly to say this : that I join most cordially in all the expressions of welcome which were offered to the Association in the High School Hall this afternoon, having a special interest in bidding you welcome to that building, because it has given me a great deal of thought and hard work to see it brought to its present state of completion. It replaces, sir,—(addressing Sir William Dawson)—an edifice which was very unsuitable, as you know, because you had the opportunity of speaking in it not very long ago, and you took the liberty of intimating to me that it would be a great blessing if it should disappear. That blessing has come to us, and we are glad to welcome such a representative assembly as this in that new High School building of Montreal. Sir William has told you a good deal about the inside of this building and also the outside of it. Well, I am his near neighbor, but I would not venture to tell you what I could say of the *scientia scientiarum* ; but, if you have any taste for older things in the way of books than what McGill Library can show, I should be delighted to have you come to our library. We have no observatory, however, which is so remarkable in its uses and advantages to our politicians in Ottawa, and which, I think, is certainly an institution which should be kept up if it can only keep our legislators on time and send them home a little sooner than they are accustomed to go—(laughter)—but we have a library that is well worth a visit to, and you are cordially invited to inspect it. I again bid you all a hearty welcome, and hope you will carry away with you the strong belief that we are all in hearty sympathy with the spirit and work of your Association, for you are engaged in the greatest enterprise which the human mind can turn its attention to, viz., that of elevating constantly the human race by means of education.

DR. ROBINS, Principal of the Normal School, referring to Sir Wm. Dawson's remark that he was educationally the father of many of the teachers present, said :—It would be cruel for me to detain the children from the table which is spread for them below, because after so many speeches to which we have listened this afternoon, it seems to me that any lengthy remarks would be out of place. Besides, I feel myself to be but an orphan in this world. I have not even the happiness of belonging to an Eastern Province, and nobody is good for anything unless he belongs to an Eastern Province (laughter),—and as I belong to nobody,

but stand alone, a stranger and a foreigner in a strange and foreign land, I feel it is unnecessary for me to pour out my sorrows before you. However, I may say I am delighted to see so many friends on this occasion, and I have been so happy to meet from Ontario friends of my earlier years, friends who knew me in the early days of my struggles, and who know something of the path that I have been pursuing in my attempt to do what lay in my little power to advance as far as possible the educational interests of humanity, and to advance the interests of this Province, that perhaps I feel gladder to-night than any of you assembled here. I must say that I have been somewhat struck with the remarks of the learned Principal of this University with regard to the geological specimens to be found on these shelves and elsewhere. He has called our attention to the fact that we are but zoological specimens ourselves, and it seems that we are looked at only from that point of view. Well, perhaps I might go a little further, and say that when we have ceased to require our bodies, we may find it convenient to resurrect them for subjects, for, if not, a little later on the learned men of the twentieth century will be digging us up and examining us as archaeological specimens, and measuring our skulls to find out to what race we belonged, and still further perhaps, when some thousand years have passed over our heads, our remains may be exhumed as fossils to determine the antiquity of the earth.

HON. GEO. W. ROSS then said :—

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN: It becomes my duty to express on behalf of all the Provinces our indebtedness to Sir William Dawson for the very pleasant entertainment we are now enjoying. Whether we are to become geological or archaeological specimens, I am not going to discuss: I hope none of us will become fossils, however, but that while in the flesh we will show that activity in our various departments that Sir William has shown. We are indebted to Dr. MacVicar for the privilege of assembling in that magnificent building which he has placed in our care, and we must admire the liberal provision that has been made in the High School of the city of Montreal. In some parts of the Dominion we are apt to boast of our high schools, and we have some very fine buildings, but everyone will agree that the city of Montreal excels in its architectural arrangements any building that we have elsewhere in a structure whose internal appointments, though no extravagant amount of money has been expended on it, are particularly fine. And now, let us hope that every person will feel that interest in each other that will enable him or her not to stand upon social dignity, which

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sometimes separates individuals of the same or different professions, but that while we are here we will all of us try to make advantageous acquaintances, so that when we leave this city of Montreal, we may say that we met Miss or Mr. So-and-So, a teacher well known in his particular or her particular department, and that we may carry home the impression of personal pleasure derived from our sojourn in Montreal. In this way we will carry home such pleasant recollections of the interchange of opinions and different ideas, that it will gladden our lives professionally, and give us such encouragement for the future, so that we will avoid the possibility, whatever our career may be in several centuries or hundreds of centuries hereafter, of becoming petrifications or fossils now, by showing that activity in our present lives which so well becomes us in a professional capacity. I thank Dr. MacVicar and Sir William Dawson for this opportunity for addressing you; and when you go downstairs to accept the invitation so cordially given you, you will awake to-morrow for your duties like giants refreshed with wine.

THE SECOND DAY.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 6TH, 1892.

Morning Session.

THE TRUE SCOPE AND FUNCTION OF THE HIGH SCHOOL.

BY A. H. MACKAY, B.A.Sc., LL.D., F.R.S.C., SUPERINTENDENT OF EDUCATION FOR NOVA SCOTIA.

It falls to my lot to open the discussion on that most intricate and debatable subject, "The True Scope and Function of the High School." My desire to be concise may trap me into the appearance of being more dogmatic than I feel. Remember that I cannot express all the qualifications which I may know to be attached to most general statements, nor can I project every surface of a cube at once on the same plane area. I may perhaps be able to open a discussion.

The scope of the High School may first be approximately delineated, on the one hand, by the common school, which in Nova Scotia covers approximately an eight years' course of post-kindergarten and pre-High School work. The ages of pupils at this *terminus a quo* will most commonly be found ranging from 13 to 15. The *terminus ad quem*

may be the ordinary vocations of life, or the teaching profession, either one, two, three or four years after, or the university, medical, theological, law or engineering colleges three or four years after. The common school should have work to do for those below 13. The superior limit should of course be unrestricted as to age. I would not fix a minimum age limit; but I think the entrance examination should be on work requiring, as a general rule, an age as mature as has been mentioned—from 13 to 15.

We may next ask the question: While common school education is admittedly so valuable for the public weal that no one now questions the duty of the State to encourage it by making it free, does education lose its value intrinsically or relatively after it passes the common school stage, so that it should then cease to be free? To this my answer would be: There is a higher education which is even more valuable for the general good, the education of the educators and of the directors of every phase of activity affecting the well-being of the country. This higher education, in so far as it can be conducted on general lines, at least, should also be free.

It may be said, What! do you propose to give High School training to every boy and girl in the country? Would not such a system affect us injuriously from an industrial point of view? Would not boys well adapted for manual labor be made good for nothing by striving to do intellectual labor instead, and so be made good for nothing at the expense of the country?—the country losing his remunerative labor and the cost of schooling him, both together? I would answer: Yes, if the High School is merely a road to some of the learned professions, as theology, law, medicine, and the like. But I would answer: No, if the High School is directing the development of what tends to elevate and advance the country in every direction in which it may advance. There are so many attractions compared with the hard work of the student besetting the young on every side, that the majority cannot complete the common school course. They long for some form of active employment. The school life is not adapted to their mental or physical habits. Experience proves that the average High School work is in this sense too hard for the great majority of mankind—even for those who are not compelled to work early for their bread. There is therefore no danger of the High School becoming too crowded with those not adapted for High School work. The cost of board is protection enough.

There is also another great public advantage in the free High School system. It puts genius in the poor man's child more nearly on a par with that of the rich man. The rich man has still the advantage, as

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his children need not be required to help in the earning of their daily bread. High School fees means discrimination against the child because he is born poor.

The High School is the natural channel through which must rise our university men, our professional men, our directors of the more abstruse and technical industries, our legislators;—in a word, the rulers of our country in each of its interests or departments are likely with few exceptions to pass through the High School. It is an advantage to the country to have those with talent or genius directing its affairs. Experience shows that some of the most remarkable leaders of thought and action arise from the humbler ranks of the poor and middle classes. Do not place a tax of fees on these which would bear more heavily on them than on the children of the rich, and which would, therefore, tend to reduce the number of those fitted to lead and to stimulate useful activity in the State, and to keep out of the virtual ruling class those who perhaps more than any others contribute to the stability of society. When the virtual rulers of a country are drawn from the wealthier classes, we have a governing caste which does not always understand nor reconcile the democracy. Then come strains which may eventually cause the bonds of the commonwealth to snap, and anarchy or revolution to reign until the disturbing elements are consumed. But with every facility given to men of genius to rise from every rank to the ruling caste, we shall have a vast ruling syndicate in full sympathy with all classes and conditions. Those most materially helped by a free High School system are thus most likely to be the strongest strands knitting the democracy in happy and profitable union with the always necessary aristocracy.

There are some people who profess to believe that the interests of the country would be best preserved by making instruction in the three "R's," as they are called, free, and only that. Reading, writing, and the ability to cast up accounts are useful accomplishments, but a man can read and write and cipher and still be a savage. Such learning does not in itself humanize, does not inspire a man with that habit of thought which is essential as a leader to-day. The conditions of society are changing. In spite of the Solomonic paradox that there is nothing new under the sun, the world was never before what it is to-day, and it never will be in the future what it has been in the past. Its everlasting hills, its glacier sheets, old ocean's bed, the long perspective of changing life, proclaim it. And we see that success in our present environment requires some different elements than in the days of yore.

Formerly a man collected goose quills to supply the weapon of the man of letters—the weapon deemed to be stronger than the sword; now with the thunder of machinery he must stamp them out of sheets of steel which no goose can manufacture. Then he collected thousands of pounds worth of lichens to dye society's fancy goods with its short gamut of colors; but now he must understand how to charm out of the black coal dust the infinite hues of the rainbow, or else like the reindeer feed on the lichens in a very arctic world. He then grew wealthy travelling around the shambles and moulding tallow drips to light the drawing-room; he must now understand the mystery of the dynamo and be able to pump with his centrifugal cosmic ether pump, from the blue ambient air or anywhere, the brightest lightning of heaven, and deliver it noiselessly per copper wire, wherever it may be wanted. At this moment the nation which can put into action the greatest number of men who have the skill to invent a new* method which can produce an article at a fraction of a cent less than others, or who can produce the article from a cheaper material or from refuse, is the nation which is capturing the trade of the world and adding new elements of wealth to those already existing within it.

"From these remarks," I fancy I hear some one say, "you talk as if the High School course introduced our young people to the study of our natural environment with the result of directing their tastes and energies to the applied sciences, and of laying a foundation for pre-eminent success in their industrial development." Well, if our High Schools do not, it is full time they should. In language and mathematics, they certainly have been doing good work, directing many to the University for fuller development and starting others a-thinking in profitable channels which have left their impress on our country. The men thus trained are responsible for the advance of civilization. It is the thinkers who have made us what we are. But with our country full of the best workmen, educated merely for their own needs, we would develop simply as bird society develops, reproducing with faultless monotony the work of the past so long as the varying condition of our environment would allow us to exist. This useless higher education, as some would call it,—useless because it does not immediately produce bread,—has in the evolution of society shown itself to be worth harvests of corn and abundance of such substantial pleasures as neither oil nor wine can create.

You will not understand me as saying that the High School should turn out finished the leaders of action in every department of our com-

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plex society. There are universities and technical colleges for that. But the High School is nevertheless responsible for much of the future. For it is in the High School that the boy's thoughts begin to take upon themselves the more meaning complexion of the man's thoughts. It is the critical period. This is what makes it important as compared with the common school,—which, by the way, is most important. The boy begins to think now with a purpose. His mind can grasp far-reaching problems. He feels his possession of power, and must commence to use it. Shall the State offer its assistance at this stage to give an opportunity to develop these various potential forces in as many and as useful directions as possible, or shall it leave the whole matter to what is called chance, or shall it endeavor to train all in one or two specific directions, —train all the dogs to the same tricks?

Those who believe in free education only so far as the three R's will generally shout: "Leave it to nature,—that is, chance."

Our forefathers who did not believe in chance would say: "Give them Latin and Greek, some English and mathematics." How could they admire any kind of trick they knew not themselves, or never saw done by others? And we are no brighter than they were, but we have more opportunities.

With these preliminary thoughts, let us now more narrowly consider the scope of High School work. It must be a university in its *range* (I do not say in its depth) if it is going to turn out persons who can more intelligently than without its aid discharge the duties of the teacher, the farmer, the miner, the mechanic, the manufacturer, the journalist, the duties of the candidates for the Universities, Normal Schools, Law Schools, Medical Schools, Theological Schools, Engineering Schools, etc. I take it for granted that no one will imagine that the High School should prepare a student for any particular trade or profession. That would be an impracticable contract. The function of the High School is rather to assist the student to understand the general principles which underlie these subjects and are common to so many of them.

The course of study should have a wide range, if our work will not have the tendency to lead students to the door of a few professions which will, as a consequence, become overcrowded; while other professions or vocations most agreeable to the student and most beneficial to the State are never thought of, for the reason that there was not even a suggestion in the training of the school of what might be done in these directions.

But how can we "spread" in this way and do work of any educational

value at all? That's the question. I believe we must spread, and that we ought also to do work of educational value whenever we work at all.

A small school with a few masters might form a single course of study with a large nucleus of imperative and a few optional subjects, and possibly some alternates.

A larger school might bifurcate into two courses,—one articulating with the University; the other general, perhaps with options and alternates.

A still larger school might have its classical, scientific and commercial courses, English and other important subjects being more or less common to all.

Let us confine ourselves to the smaller schools, for this case will bring up all the leading points with respect to the scope of work and the function of the High School.

ENGLISH. This should be imperative on all. Students enter able to write and spell perfectly, and to compose simple narrative and description fluently. They master English Grammar and Analysis, and at least a sketch of the history of the language. They study critically a number of prose and poetic authors, finding illustrations constantly of grammatical language development and other theories. They thus acquire correct literary discrimination, and they cultivate their own powers of expression by writing and speaking under criticism. They locate the co-ordinates of the history of English Literature by the study of the line of authors with a sketch and sample of the work of each. These accomplishments are not the peculiar need of a few walks in life. Everyone derives benefit from such training; even the hermit, who has no need to express his thoughts, has in them a source of pleasurable, if not profitable, contemplation.

MATHEMATICS. Advanced arithmetic, including the principles of book-keeping, algebra and geometry, I would make imperative,—and also their practical applications to a limited extent. In the last years I would allow alternatives in special mathematical subjects.

HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY should be imperative and include civics. For the latter we need a special book for each Province probably. In school there is a great tendency simply to memorize chronology and incidents, in spite of the efforts of the teacher to stimulate thought. But that is not the study of history. It is a question as to whether the young student can study history at all until he understands local governments and is capable of taking an intelligent interest in politics.

Therefore, I would not burden the High School student with much detailed history until the last years, when it is more likely to be understood without making costly and useless efforts.

Outlines, for the sake of the accomplishment, and more important, for the sake of knowing the co-ordinates of history, the sequence and time of the more important events, must continue to be mastered from the beginning. Unfortunately, this method without a skilful teacher generally creates a taste averse to the future reading of history, until the student in later life makes the venture and finds out what history is. Geography, too, can be mistaught. The man who crams every geographical fact in the world into his head should be an atlas bound in calf. The High School, however, should enable a person to know how to use his atlas for details, while he has a general and correct idea of the character of each part of the earth as made by nature and modified by art. Some historical detail is absolutely necessary even in the common school history. But these details should be selected with special reference to the development of a proper pride in our institutions and country, and the creation of an intelligent but ardent patriotism.

DRAWING, both freehand and mathematical, should be imperative, not only on account of their practical value, but for the manual and mental training they give. It is also a relief from general study, as are the two following subjects.

CALISTHENIC and MILITARY DRILL should be imperative. They are valuable as an educational alternative, as physical exercise, and as a means of general discipline.

MUSIC (vocal) should be imperative on all having no organic defect in the musical organs. It is valuable as physical exercise and is useful in other respects.

THE NATURAL SCIENCES. This department ranks next after English and Mathematics in importance, I think. There may be many who will dispute this. They are clearly right, too, in their own minds. But when people say that the Natural Sciences are of very subordinate importance, it means, I think, first, that the science they saw taught appeared to be of little educational value, or second, that they have seen no science taught and never realized the advantage of it. They are perfectly satisfied with the education they have themselves received. They speak from experience, in a word. It has always been thus. It could not otherwise be, unless men acquired new ideas simultaneously. Now, I shall admit the premises of the argument:—1st, the science you have observed taught was worth little from any point of view; 2nd, you

have received a tolerable education without any scientific education, so called. But what is the study of the languages? Is it not also the study of the natural history of a very circumscribed portion of the habits of one species of animal? And is it not pursued scientifically? And is it not also studied in the objective fashion? But, of course, it is not the *science* that is objected to. It is the particular *subject* of the science. Why should we introduce into the High School such a multitude of "ologies" once entirely ignored,—for example, Botany, Zoology, Physiology, Physics, Chemistry, Mineralogy, Geology, Astronomy, etc. The list is appalling. Can any useful work be done in so many subjects, and will the usefulness be of appreciable value?

I would say "Yes." The function of the High School for instance would not be to produce a botanist with the accumulated knowledge of that department. To be made so full the student should not be an encyclopædia, he should be a library with brick walls and labyrinths of alcoves. The High School should merely help him to do some true botanical work, say, among the local flowering plants, a little among the cryptogams, not neglecting the fresh water algae with a few microscopical demonstrations, passing, say, from diatoms and desmids and saccharomyces to the bacteria for instance. A few demonstrations illustrating the sterilization of fluids capable of putrefaction would now give him the true key to many points in public and private sanitation, food preservation, health preservation, etc., much more forcibly and accurately than he could acquire the same knowledge by reading in maturer years if he did then take to such reading. Besides, he would now understand the genius of vegetable life. He would be able to see in the vegetable world wonders and possibilities to which others would be stone blind. He would have also learned that he could not deduce from his brain the way in which nature performed these marvels. That, after all, he could not get much more out of his head by deduction than was put into it by observation. The truth would eventually dawn on him in a way not before experienced, that the thoughts of nature are not our thoughts unless we go to nature for them. He would then nerve himself to observe accurately in order to get nearer the truth, and would end by forming a character expressed by the mottoes, "Buy the truth and sell it not."—"Love the truth and it will make you free." When he leaves the High School, too, knowing but little of the much of Botany, he knows it in such a way as to be able to commence further studies in any section offering him good opportunities. The plan is to study a few typical portions of the science in the proper way, and for general

practical purposes he may be said to know some Botany. Elementary work in phenogamic Botany is of course attended to more or less in all our common schools at the present day. In the High School, the general system of the sciences should be fully adumbrated, connecting the points worked out in the laboratory and the field in a consistent whole. And so with each of the sciences so called, one or two only being placed in each year of the course.

Let us refer to only one or more of these, say Chemistry, in order to bring out one or two more thoughts.

The function of the High School is not to make the student a chemist; it is to enable him to understand what chemistry is. He may develop into a chemist with great knowledge and skill in the university, at a technical school, or by private work afterwards. That requires time. In the High School, he is set to work in the laboratory with some material and apparatus, which he cannot conveniently be taught to make for himself. His book is used only as a guide. But his chemistry is picked up from the reactions observed. In the course of time he begins to understand his book as he could not without his experimental work. The book contains only words, not ideas. Having experience, he can now read true ideas into these words. He can now make the experiences of other chemists, which are expressed in words, his own. He can now read chemistry. The function of the High School is to teach him how to acquire the knowledge from nature and note how it is expressed. When this is done he can, from the expressions of others, infer their knowledge within close limits under ordinary conditions. When he finishes his course, all his experiments and knowledge are knit together in some hypothesis which has a place for them all. He has now a general idea of chemistry, knows thoroughly the more common and, for ordinary purposes, the more important facts of the science. As a lawyer he could cross-examine an expert in a case of poisoning. As a physician or druggist he would know that some elements of a possible prescription might be incompatible; and though his knowledge should be small, he knows how and where to get the information he needs. And so on, with Physics and the rest of the list.

Now, let us think what the natural effect of a course of study containing, say, two of such science subjects per year would be. But, first, let me notice that the subjects are not many. They all form one subject,—the study of our natural environment. For convenience sake the groups are formed and named. But they all run into each other, forming that portion of the universe which bounds us. I have incidentally referred to the

character of what I may call the philosophic trend of thought stimulated by such studies. Its effect is also to make a man a searcher after ethical truth. In no class of men in the world, not excepting the theologians, do we as a rule find a firmer morality than among the truth-seekers of Nature. The God of Nature reveals himself most plainly to those who study the works of His hand. I have never yet known a student captured by the study of Nature prove himself to be an immoral man. The supremacy of inevitable law on every hand preaches to him with awfully realistic force, "The soul that sinneth, it shall die."

It also opens fields upon fields of the most enchanting imagination to the student. The Titans piling Mount Ossa on Pelion to storm the high Olympus, in even the most gullible of moments when the mind is lifted higher than Olympus on clouds of tobacco smoke—something I have no experience of—are but pigmies of power compared to the trilling molecules, which in their sportive sweep from the centre of a nitro-glucine explosion puff into Titan-stunning dust the hardest crags of Hellas.

And at what time in the history of literature was there a better opportunity for revelling in stories of spirits and devils, stories about which the world was growing skeptical, although the schoolmen did prove how many thousands of them could dance on the point of a needle, and although the red Indian's medicine-man taught for ages that sickness and death was caused by the entry of evil spirits into the body. Now we have sighted some of these spirits, and find the mediæval schoolmen correct as to their dimension, and the medicine man as to their causing sickness and death. And more than that, we have now grown so wise as to be able to engage some invisible good spirits to fight against and destroy the bad ones, when we cannot destroy them any other way. Here we have discovered material devils and many species of them, but they have not yet fascinated the imagination of our literary men, who still whine that science is destroying the entrancing realm of fairyland. The trouble is, the writers commenced with hobgoblins manufactured out of their own heads, and, like themselves, they fixed them up with ears and eyes and nose and mouth and tail. When the true hobgoblin turned up under the microscope they wouldn't recognize him because he didn't come up to their ideal. Ah! the world was never so full of facts and fancies appealing to imagination as to-day. And to the scientific workers is it all due. I hope no one will infer from these rules against the old domain of mythology (and in favor of the new) that I assume science has left no place in the universe for the metaphysical essences or the theological spirits. On the other hand, and quite the contrary, it suggests that

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the real may be much more strange and much more subtle than the most brilliant imagination has yet shaped it.

But the greatest value from the proper study of nature in the High School is in its direct, as well as in its remote, utility. There are some persons who cannot repress their scorn at the mention of the word: "It is culture we seek, not the power of earning bread and butter." Of course, these people have had their bread and butter earned already for them, and by somebody else, too. So we shall not mind what they say about it. But what is culture? It is a habit which is now or once was useful remotely, if not directly, in gaining some form of pleasure from which eating and drinking was not always excluded. Culture which is not useful is probably injurious, and will, in the course of time, annihilate the fools who acquire it. It is a habit of the human mind to look on new forms of culture as without the prestige of the past, and therefore without tone and therefore not culture. It is not culture because it is not what they had become accustomed to consider culture. But of all cultures, the scientific is perhaps the best, because it tends to enable us to adjust ourselves to our environment. It is the most useful to the individual and the race.

How? The universe touches us on every side. When it is smooth, we are soothed. When it is rough, we are irritated. When we fall against it, we are crippled. When it falls on us, we are ground to powder. The natural sciences teach us how to explore the adamant surface of our universal investment, so that where a cleft may be in the rock we may hide ourselves, and that from where an avalanche is descending we may step aside.

Passing from the figure, we must notice that the proper study of the sciences will also tend to select those who, by nature, are fitted for scientific employment, and cause them to specialize in that direction. This in turn will stimulate new industries, while it will tend to relieve the congestion in the channels leading to overcrowded literary professions. It does good to all and harm to none.

But, I must add this: That much of the science teaching which I have seen was not scientific teaching at all. Much of it could not be said to be harmful—it was positively injurious, and would have better been suppressed than tolerated. Let us turn all such science, falsely so called, out of our schools altogether—Common as well as High Schools. The largest class-rooms in every High School should be its laboratories.

MANUAL TRAINING. I am not prepared, perhaps, to say that this should be an imperative subject. It should be an option, however—wood-work,

especially. It is a relief from other studies. It is physical exercise. It is brain and muscle training. Trades should not be taught. Simply the use of tools in all the typical cases of work. Combined with drawing as it is, it trains the student to express an idea on paper, and to work up into material form an idea expressed on paper. In the Halifax County Academy, the boys who select it take two hours a week, following a prescribed course. It tends also to dignify labor in the estimation of those who require such instruction. While not making a mechanic formally, it enables the student to use his hand readily in any occupation.

Classic and Modern Languages should not be imperative. They can be treated as alternatives or options. Under the present conditions of the world, their study should be encouraged. There are plenty stubborn English-speaking people outside the High School to win the palm of the universal language for our tongue. We will not retard them to any appreciable extent. The virtue of classics as an educator needs no advertisement here. It has always had the best vantage ground for the display of its merits for the past two or three centuries.

With modern education, classical culture forms an ideal man who can live in and understand all ages. In Nova Scotia, our course of study lays down Latin and French in the first year as options, introducing Greek and German in the second year. In the Halifax County Academy, with some three hundred students and ten regular instructors, Latin, although not imperative by law, is taken by all during the first year, on account of the new light it throws on the nature of language and on account of the material bearing it has on English etymology, which is specially developed in connection with it. The majority, of course, continue to take Latin in the succeeding years throughout the course. In Nova Scotia, we are also going to set a premium on a knowledge of Latin even in the lowest grade of our teachers. The reason is not that they are expected to teach Latin in the common schools, but that the teacher should have scholarly instincts developed, that his literary side or side of expression should be specially developed, and that to know even one language properly and the manner of teaching the same, it is well to know at least one other language from the outside, and for that one Latin is undoubtedly the best.

Finally, I think there should be provision to allow of the addition of other subjects to the High School course of any institution which can show to the satisfaction of the Education Department that the subject is worthy of trial, and that it will not interfere with the regular work prescribed for the school, such, for instance, as Phonography, etc. Thus we

shall keep open the road to further improvement by side experiments, while the general system shall be so organized as to prevent any institution from falling below the standard without ceasing to be a public High School.

To sum up: the High School should be made as free as possible with respect to the imposition of fees, so as not to tend to cut off the true aristocracy—the nobility of talent and genius—who happen to belong to the poorer classes for the time being. Merit alone should be the condition of advancement. The High School must be the people's junior university, and as such must give the keys of knowledge to the principles which underlie generally every line of human activity. It should pay most attention to those departments, an accurate knowledge of the principles of which most profoundly affect the interests of the people at large. What these are in detail is yet a debatable question. This convention will be entertained by the presentation of the claims of Classics, English, and manual training in able papers by men of whom we may be proud. This fact, together with my observation of the poverty of laboratory and museum accommodation in the most of our High Schools (I do not refer to Quebec and Ontario now), causes me now to lay more emphasis upon the scientific group at present. When the teacher goes into a country section, he should not only be able to approve himself as a literary man, he should show that his brain has been educated to the ends of its ultimate fibres—into his hands and his fingers. If not filled with all the knowledge of the forest and the field, the water and the air, and the great sky above, he should know enough to know how to go about the solution of the problems which may there be presented to him by the young or the old. He should be the village seer who could point out to his adoring followers the beauty in the rubbish beneath their feet, the stories of the pebbles in the gravel bank, true yet stranger than those of Santa Claus of the nursery. How this pebble came on an arctic sled more strangely drawn than by a reindeer, some of them from the far North. How they rolled and rolled many and many a mile along raging torrents. How worn smooth with wandering, a strange experience at last tossed it into this heap to rest. And then the trees grew over it, and the red man walked over it, and now in the latter days the Canadian school boy taps it with the toe of his boot. And there are the mysteries of the caterpillars and the blights of physiology and sanitation, and marvels everywhere. Such a teacher would make his pupils love the very stones beneath their feet as well as their country. Such a teacher would be a most potent force in developing true patriotism and generally every

virtue, for when young minds are once reverently attracted by the fascinating problems of nature which stud the whole horizon around them, the leisure hour is not so likely to lead them to the injurious pleasures which draw into its vortex the minds which are vacuous.

Where is the common school teacher to get the keys to unlock these treasures of fascinating and useful knowledge stored up in even the most commonplace school section in Canada? He should get some of them in the High School, and should at least learn there where others can be had, and that the treasures are inexhaustible. Let the High School give him keys which will open. He can go on then "opening" afterwards as the occasions offer.

In Nova Scotia our High Schools are free. They are supported by local taxation, as are the common schools; but those ranked as the "County Academies" obtain a special provincial grant on account of which they are free to all from the county who pass the County Academy entrance examination. The examination papers are prepared by the Department of Education. These County Academies are divided into four ranks at present, depending on the number of teachers and the number of duly qualified students attending who have passed the Academic entrance examination. The grants for these four ranks of Academies are respectively, at present, \$500, \$1000, \$1500 and \$1720.

The High School system (consisting of County Academies, which receive special Provincial grants, and ordinary High Schools, some of which are superior at present to County Academies of even the second rank) forms a sort of provincial university according to the law going into effect this year. The High School will be examined by a central provincial board of examiners annually, somewhat as now in Ontario, and provincial certificates of the first, second, third and fourth years will be awarded. These diplomas will be utilized as tests of scholarship for entrance into the Normal School, into the Universities, for the non-professional qualifications of the various grades of public school teachers, etc., etc.

The course of study, which is also the syllabus of the provincial examination, is generally in line with the ideas I have been endeavoring to present. In our fourth year the ground is so extensive, that the options of the previous years expand into two courses with options which are distinguished by the class of subjects, and the two diplomas as the classical and the scientific, either of which institutions which cannot provide for both can follow.

We shall thus have some variety in our High School graduates, and

the country needs variously qualified leaders in its different walks of life work. But although unlike, they should be equally well educated, illustrating the maxim: equality in value, diversity in use.

I have now opened the subject for discussion as I was asked—only that and nothing more. When the discussion commences, I shall begin to do what I really came here for—to learn from my fellow-workers of Canada what the abundance of our varied experiences teaches.

A discussion of Dr. Mackay's paper followed.

MR. JOHN MILLER, Deputy-Minister of Education for Ontario, said :—In order that no time may be lost, I want to give expression to a few thoughts that have come into my mind. Thinking of the remarks made yesterday by Dr. Inch with reference to the many distinguished persons which the Lower Provinces have contributed to other Provinces, I could not help but add that we in Ontario at least appear to have received a large amount of our theories of education from that source, for I judge that most of us are in hearty accord with most of the sentiments that have been expressed by Dr. Mackay; and if the opinions which he gave expression to are the sentiments of the Province of Nova Scotia, I cannot help but think that we in Ontario are not so far from having a system of education which corresponds very closely to that of Nova Scotia at least. In order to be as brief as possible, I wish simply to state that there are two main features which appear to have been discussed by Dr. Mackay: 1st, the advantage of having a system of high school education so provided that it may be open to all,—poor as well as rich, and that the course of study for these high schools should be such as will suit the majority of the pupils who attend. In every free system of education,—especially in every system of education that is provided by the State,—there should, it appears to me, be one principle guiding those who make provisions for that course of study. It is that the course of study should be such that if a student pleases at any period in that course of study he can secure such education as will be of most advantage to him,—that will suit him, in fact, for any calling in life, and that he will secure that kind of education so far, that if he wishes to advance beyond he will have pursued the right course. In Ontario, so far as High School education being free, we have not thought it proper to legislate so as to provide that all pupils may be admitted free to our High Schools, nor have we attempted to require all students that are admitted to these schools to pay a fee. We have thought it wise to leave this matter to the localities, particularly concerned. We have, however, in Ontario I think, so far as the action of the people throughout the various counties are concerned, shown that

there is a very strong sentiment in favor of having High School education as free as possible. In so far as the course of study is concerned which Dr. Mackay has referred to, our system recognizes that the subjects to be taken be divided into three classes: 1st, those that call in the observation; 2nd, those that treat of language; and 3rd, those that treat of reason. We have provided a certain amount of science for our High Schools, and we have given a large amount of attention to the study of language, more particularly to the English language; and we have given considerable attention to mathematics, particularly to arithmetic. We have also thought it wise to have drawing and book-keeping in our High School course, so we have proceeded along the lines indicated by Dr. Mackay, so that if a student goes on to take a University course he is proceeding in the right way; and it seems to me that after he has attended the High Schools, he will have taken up that course of study which will fit him for any career in life to which he intends to turn his attention.

Mr. JOHN WALTON, of Hull, P.Q., then said:—While admiring very much the admirable paper read by Dr. Mackay, there is one statement that he made that I decidedly take exception to, and that is that a person may read and write and cypher and still be a savage. Possibly in the common acceptance of the term he may be a savage, but I claim that even if we go back to the days of early Greece, and follow the history of nations up from that time, we will find that the men who could do this were not barbarians. If indeed this were the case, then the majority of us would come under the term "savages," because the majority of us can read, write and cypher after we have finished our education. Dr. Mackay went on to speak of the subject of the High School, and I presume that each speaker will be inclined to speak of this from his own Provincial standpoint. The High Schools in Quebec do not, I am sorry to say, occupy that high position that they do in Nova Scotia. I am sorry to say that they are not only not free, but they are each one subject to an individual tax. There has been taxed in High Schools where I have had charge as high as six dollars for ten weeks tuition. I am now teaching where the law only allows me to charge twenty cents a month, but this will give you some idea of how it is with us in the Province of Quebec. There is another statement made by Dr. Mackay in which he speaks of the desirability of doing away with all elementary sciences from the schools unless they can be thoroughly taught. Now, it is perhaps a mistake to give a smattering of too many subjects in a school course; but when we remember that the majority of pupils who attend

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High Schools never go beyond that, I say it is decidedly advisable that they should get all the knowledge they can in the High Schools. My experience is in 26 years teaching amongst the High Schools of the Province of Quebec, that of those who go through the academical course, not one of our 28 have ever gone beyond that. After taking that their education is completed. They go into other walks of life. Some follow the vocation of their fathers and never go further. Now, Dr. Mackay says that the subject of Latin is compulsory during the first year's attendance of the pupil in the High Schools of Nova Scotia, and that the next year the study of German is taken up. Now, I would like to ask in that case how much previous knowledge has been obtained by a pupil, and what object there would be to take up the study of Latin for one year only, and the next year to start in German? If the subject of Latin is to be taken up at all, and in the next year German and Greek is to come in, would it not be better to ignore the study of Latin entirely, rather than get what little can be obtained in a one year's course? I am proud to say that the subject of history is required in all our High Schools. I claim that the history of one's own country should commence with the earliest years of a child. The most valuable history I ever learned I learned at my mother's knee, and I claim that no matter from what country a man comes, whether he belongs to a family of English, Canadian, Irish, Scotch or Welsh, he should get his first rudiments of history if he learns nothing else. The subject of geography is a mooted point. Dr. Mackay says we should know something about our own cities, and I agree with him. I think we should get as good a knowledge of geography as we can along with other subjects.

MR. JOHN McMILLAN.

MR. PRESIDENT:—One word or two in regard to a point in the paper we have listened to, and that is in regard to whether the High School education ought or ought not to be free. The claim which is put forward by Dr. Mackay is that our High Schools ought to be free. What I wish to say is, that personally I formerly very strongly held that view. Experience has taught me to change my opinion in that respect, and I believe that experience will change the opinion of everyone who holds the view that it ought to be free. If it ought to be free, it means that the State is bound to give an education ranging up to the full extent of the subject as outlined by the reader of that paper, that is, that citizenship—because that is practically what it means—that citizenship and a

full discharge of our duties as citizens demands that we shall not only give our children the training given in our public schools, but also the training now given in our High Schools. Now, High Schools ought to be largely universities in embryo. The result of such a course will be this: That our Government first of all will not do it. Our Government is represented by our public men. They are not educated up to that standpoint, and if they ever were educated they ought to change their minds. It is not necessary for citizens of this Dominion, in order that they should discharge all the functions of citizenship, to know Chemistry or Biology, or many of the other subjects mentioned. While not detracting in the least from the great benefit that would result from a knowledge of these subjects, yet the fact remains that these things are not indispensable to the exercise of citizenship, and I hold that the State is not bound to educate its citizens beyond the conditions demanded by the all-important functions of citizenship. Now, sir, in one way I think that High Schools will always be free, and I mean that in the sense that they will always be kept supplied with teachers to carry out the work. Now, the next point is, that the highest fee charged in our Province is not a fee which will exclude from our High Schools anyone who has the ability and the means to fit himself for that work. I was going to state that for instance the highest fee charged in the Province of Ontario was \$27 a year, and I think that is not much.

The time of the speaker being here exhausted, he gave way to Mr. S. McALLISTER, of Toronto, who said:—I was glad I was here to listen to Dr. Mackay. He covered the whole ground; but Dr. Mackay, I apprehend, would rather have from me and from some of the others a statement of those points on which we disagree than of those on which we agree. I would certainly not delay the subject of history till the latter part of a High School course, because we have found that even in our public schools pupils are advanced enough in regard to politics and local affairs to take an active interest in the affairs of the country. History can be taught from the beginning, and taught intelligently. I mean, of course, first the history of our own country and then the history of the empire. Now, the subject of history certainly forms a part of our High School studies, because the majority of the pupils there may become intelligent writers or active participators in the legislature of the country or the management of our local affairs, and therefore they should be fully acquainted with it. In regard to the point just brought forward with reference to free education, I agree with the gentleman who has just sat down. I do not think the State is obliged to provide a free educa-

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tion for all pupils, but I think a free education in the public schools is founded upon the idea that that is all that is necessary for the purposes of citizenship. I see the desirability of securing for the High Schools what he calls the aristocracy of the public schools. The plan I think the best to adopt so as to secure the best pupils in our High Schools would be to establish a system of scholarships; and I think that every system of education should have that a part of it, provided there is not free education in the schools. In Toronto there are a certain number of scholarships in the schools, and that assures the best of our pupils, both boys and girls, taking the High School course, and getting a more general education there than they could possibly get in the public schools. Some of our High Schools are free, and the result is a great many people go there who would not otherwise have been able to receive a proper education.

MR. TAMBLYN, of Whitby, Ont., then said:—In regard to free High Schools, I wish to say just a few words. I am most strongly in favor of having them as free as possible, because the fact that fees are charged though small, still operates to keep many poor but talented students in an uneducated condition. What good reason is there that the public schools should be free and the High Schools not? Why should the public schools be free where a dull boy might go to school till he was twenty-one years old, while a bright boy who graduated at twelve years of age was compelled to leave and pay for admission to the High School? I cannot conceive that it is our policy in any way to prevent our boys and girls from receiving as good an education as they wish to get; and by charging fees at all we are certainly putting a barrier in the way of many a pupil receiving a higher education than what he can procure in the public schools. Indeed, I am not at all sure but what this system of free schools should be extended even to Universities, but at any rate do not let us confine our charitableness to the public schools only, but let us by all means extend it to the High Schools everywhere.

MR. W. CARLYLE, of Woodstock, Ont., then said:—I believe that light is coming from the East. Dr. Mackay has made me believe that. I am delighted with his address, which is replete with information and sound doctrine. There was one point, however, that he was not very strong about,—though I am not sure I am going to take him right,—but it seems to me that he wishes to make the High School course extend too far downward. I believe from long experience that thirteen years of age is too young for children to enter upon a high school course.

MR. ROSS:—He said from thirteen to fifteen.

MR. CARLYLE :—Well, that of course relieves the matter very much. Now, in Ontario, the High School work has been spreading in all directions. It has been moving downward to take in the upper part of a public school course, and reaching upward to take in the first year of a college course. Now, it is true that if you cut off the top branch of a tree, it is said to grow at the base if it does not grow upward; but if we are going to cut off the public school course and absorb it in the High School course, then we are going to degrade the entire public school system. If we say, "thus far shall the public school course go and no farther," we must say the same when we come to the High School, and then at once we are going to put a limit upon the aspirations of our public school scholars. The public school is the college of the people. A large majority of our citizens will never realize higher training than our public schools will give them, and, for this reason our public school course should not only be as thorough and efficient as possible, but it should work upward, and our public school course should be such as to keep the attention and employ the energies of our strong boys and girls until they are fifteen or sixteen years of age. Well, under the present arrangement, pupils have the option of continuing their course at the public schools or leaving them and entering the High School, but this of course brings in a difficulty that we are experiencing every day. It becomes a question whether we shall detain our scholars in the public schools after they have shown their fitness for entering the High School. It seems to me that those scholars should be promoted as soon as they have demonstrated their fitness for promotion by passing the examination. I believe, however, that it is a mistake to let the High School course grow downward. I say, let the standard for the public school be high, and let us work up to that. If our limit be a low limit, we are going to degrade our public school system altogether. My experience teaches me that children who are entering the High School from thirteen to fifteen years of age have ~~yet~~ something to learn in the public school before entering the High School. In this connection, too, we should try to recollect that very often many of our pupils at this age have not the physical power to sustain the increased work thrown upon them in the High School course. The truth is that children who get into the High School at too young an age, having reached the goal of their work in the public school, sit down for a year or so before they are able to work for the High School course. I do not believe that there is one person of our High School scholars below fifteen years of age who is competent, mentally or physically, to enter upon a High School course.

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Mr. C. MCGREGOR, of Almonte, then said:—I want to take exception to some of the remarks made by the last speaker. One of the arguments used against the present mode of proceedings is that a large number get into the High School at the present time, and become unfit for the general walks of life afterwards. I think Dr. Mackay touched upon that point very well. He said there would be no danger of the High School becoming over-burdened with members on account of the question of opportunity as well as other things. Now, in regard to this matter of fees, my experience of over thirty years in teaching High Schools is that a high fee would be a very great injustice to the pupils of this country. I know there are many young men to-day who are fulfilling the duties of citizenship well, and who would be excluded if there was any fee charged. I would therefore cast my vote in favor of free schools,—free High Schools,—as indicated by Dr. Mackay. Now, in regard to age, I do not think you can lay down any cast-iron rule because some children are as old at thirteen years of age as others at sixteen; and any person who has been engaged in High School work well knows that if we wish the scholars to become proficient, we must begin as early as possible. I think it would be a great injury if they were kept out of High School until they were fifteen or sixteen. A great deal was said or made of by one speaker. The public school was the university of the people. Now, there is nothing in the world to prevent them from doing the same thing at the present time; but is it fair to the rate-payers and citizens of the town that they should be paying for two sets of schools doing the same work? Opportunity should be given to pupils to pursue whatever course they wish to take, and those who have the inclination to go in for High School work should have the opportunity of doing so, but there is nothing to prevent them from going on in the public schools if they wish.

Mr. J. JAMIESON, of Morrisburg, then said:—One point has been raised which I wish to speak about in connection with this free High School. It was stated here that the High Schools would be very poorly kept if free. I think, however, I am quite right in saying, that although we have free schools, they are quite as well kept in every respect as where a fee is charged. For my part, I think the question has been solved in Ontario in leaving it optional. I know myself that in many instances the attendance at school has been doubled by reason of their being free. We have schools that are well kept, and we have made it a duty for each student to take one year in science, and they take a great interest in it; and I believe where we have a large number of country students coming in, that that is the best course we can take. I encourage

it among the boys that they should take Latin, as I believe that is the proper thing for laying the foundation for a science education.

DR. HARE, of Whitby, said: There is one point which I wish to speak about, and that is: I think unless you can take up the subject of Botany and teach it under the microscope, you had better not teach it at all. So also with Chemistry. I think that High Schools should have a herbarium. Of course I know there are most admirable herbariums in some of the large cities, but they are not general by any means, and I think there is not a High School in the country which could not have such a place. I was in a High School not very long ago in which they had no laboratory, and yet they were teaching chemistry and physics. Now, this is not as it should be. It seems to me that no one could enter that beautiful museum we were in yesterday without receiving some inspiration for study. And so it is that if we are brought in direct contact with nature we love it, and we are anxious to put forward our best endeavors. Now, without a microscope and laboratory, the books disgust the scholar, who then loses all interest in nature and in scientific pursuits. I am glad that our friend Mr. Mackay has so beautifully brought this thought to the front.

MR. G. U. HAY, of St. John, N.B., then said: I must add my testimony to the broad spirit which the paper took, and I think I can add my testimony to two things that Mr. Mackay has asserted with regard to the High School and common school education in the Province of Nova Scotia. In speaking on the subject of High Schools, I must confess that I was a little appalled at some of the statements that have been made concerning fees and the apparatus that seems to be necessary in High Schools. So far, however, as New Brunswick is concerned, the High Schools there are absolutely free in every part. (Applause.) The pupils come in without any fees whatever, not only from the City but from the surrounding country. To give one instance of this I may say that one pupil who passed at the head of our school last year is now taking a good position at McGill University this year, and that pupil came in from the country districts and received tuition in the school for three years free. That is an instance where a broad spirit in regard to the charging of fees has had some good effect. In regard to the subjects to be taught, I agree with the speaker who has just taken his seat, and in regard to the age of children, of course the age at which they are admitted will depend upon their attainments. I do not think that admitting them will be at the expense of the common school at all. The High School should be the line between the common school and the University. It should have teachers,

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who had been trained in the common schools. Take science for example, and one gentleman has said that the subject of Chemistry should not be allowed in the High School ; but does not the knowledge of this subject gained in the High School lay a foundation for that further extension of it which can be secured in the University ? Is not the subject of Latin connected with the subject of English ? Who can teach Latin without making an excellent teacher and pupil in English ? I confess for my own part that the study of Latin is my most valuable aid in the study of English. I have nothing more to say except that I think in the High Schools the sooner we make them free and a part of the common school system of Canada, the better ; and if this discussion this morning shall have any influence in that direction, I shall be very glad.

MR. WARDROPE, of Lachine, then said : When Dr. Mackay came into the land of the rising sun, of course I anticipated a mental treat, and I am glad to say I have not been disappointed. Indeed, when I look around this gathering, I feel that our leaders in Quebec seem to be conspicuous by their absence, and that Quebec should not be left entirely behind. I wish to say something about it. I have been encouraged to do that since Dr. Mackay himself intimated that it was exceptions to his address that he would rather have than favorable criticisms. The Doctor said that after all it was the rich man who pays for the schooling of the poor man ; but is that the case ? The fallacy in this is, that the poor man at least creates his share of the wealth, though he may not by any means acquire it. Now, I contend that it is not the tax-payer that pays the taxes, but the land. The rich man receives more protection from the State than the poor man, and therefore he should be willing to pay more. There is another point in which I must say I was really disappointed. I think he labors under a mistake in regard to the study of history. I think it ought to be taught at the mother's knee ; and if you go and look at the most patriotic nations of the world, you will find that history is begun at the mother's knee. He says that we should not begin the study until the age of 13, but how absurd that really is ! If we could not teach honesty or morality to our children until they are 13 years old, then we need not begin at 13. A man's technical education generally ends at 20. A man is a scholar at 20 or he is no scholar at all. What chance is there to learn history between the age of 13 and 20 ?

Now, with regard to the age at which a child should enter the High School,—and there has been a good deal of talk about that,—I am of the opinion that you must have certain acquirements before the child can enter the High School. Why not make that one of the conditions ? We

know very well that we have children who make better scholars at 11 than others at 15. What hardship is there then in allowing that child to enter the High School, or what reason is there that he should not? According to Dr. Mackay, we are to save two years by teaching phonography, and two years by teaching the principles of phonetic writing. Some gentlemen in the Provinces have given a little account of what the state of the High Schools is there, and perhaps I may be allowed to give you a little information in regard to the High Schools of Quebec. About 11 years ago, the High School of this Province was a very strange institution. Anyone might be elected by the trustees of the localities as the head of the High School. He received no salary, generally speaking. He had to provide fuel and clean the school and mend all the windows that were broken, and for this he received fees that were settled by the trustees of the locality, and they took care they were not too high. I have known cases in which rich farmers have been the greatest enemies of our educational system, and I am certain I am not wrong when I say that has been the case. They opposed the establishment of free schools, and put every obstacle in their way. I am happy, however, to say that this has all been done away with now; and although I acknowledge that in many points our High Schools are not at all what they ought to be, yet, I am proud to say that there are gentlemen standing on that platform to whom we are indebted for making our schools not far behind yours. In conclusion, I might say if you give us a little more time we will prove to you that it will not be our fault if we are any behind. (Applause.)

Dr. A. H. Mackay then closed the discussion. He said: I am very thankful to those who took part in the discussion,—particularly to those who disagreed with me. I know very well that most of the points I have mentioned can be solved only by experiment, but there are one or two points to which I would like to call attention because I am sure that I have been misunderstood. In the first place, there was an exception taken to my statement, that if a person is acquainted with the three R's, he might for all that still be a savage. What I meant to convey was this: that it was not the study of these accomplishments alone that made him really a man. He may have no training in anything else and still be perfect in all these accomplishments. He may be just as selfish a man as the red Indian, and still be educated in these particulars; and the reason why I put it in that way is because in my judgment it is necessary for a man to know as much as he can if he wants to be truly a success in life. Another point: I hope no one understood me to say that we are taking up Latin only for one year in Nova Scotia. Such is

not the case. We begin with Latin, and do not advance to another study in that direction until we have had one year at that. In the study of etymology we find that Latin is of great importance, and that is one of the reasons why we begin with that first. Now, a word has been said about history, and I find I have been beautifully misunderstood there. I did not say that you should not teach any history at all until the pupil had arrived at the age of twelve or thirteen years, but what I did say was that it was unwise to fill up the student's mind with dates and facts pertaining to universal history and cram them in. The average knowledge of history is only the knowledge of the quarrels of school-boys' heroes, and of all that is of real benefit and advantage to the scholar he generally knows nothing. The advantage of learning history is to enable the scholar to think and form conclusions for himself, and this can never be accomplished by stuffing their minds at too early an age.

WEDNESDAY, JULY 6TH, 1892.

Evening Session.

**THE DUTY OF THE STATE IN RELATION
TO EDUCATION.**

BY J. L. HUGHES, M.A., INSPECTOR OF SCHOOLS, TORONTO.

Here is a child ready to receive its education. Who shall educate it? There are four agencies in most countries ready to take charge of it; there are private tutors ready to educate it at home in its father's care; there are private schools; there are church schools; and there are State schools. My duty is to consider the right of the State to establish and conduct schools, and to levy a tax on all for their support, and also to endeavor to make clear the relationship of the State to the other three educational agencies,—the home, the private individual, and the Church.

First, has the State a right to conduct a system of schools, and make every man in the State pay his proportional share towards their maintenance, whether he sends his children to them or not?

The State is an organic unity, composed of individuals. Each individual should be free to do anything to advance his own interests, provided he does not interfere with the rights and interests of his neighbors. The relationships of individuals to each other and to the State must be definitely fixed by laws representing the opinions and the sense of justice of the majority. These laws harmonize with divine justice so far as the

conception of the people of the State is in harmony with truth. To secure just laws, three fundamental principles must be followed :—

1. The State must maintain inviolable certain sacred rights of the individual. It must never interfere to decide his duty to his God; and it should allow him perfect liberty in his home relationships provided he is not cruel or unjust to his family;

2. The individual should be unselfish enough to recognize the fact that his highest duty is to his neighbor, and that his fullest individual growth is possible only when love for his fellowmen is the motive that leads him to action;

3. Individual preferences must be surrendered, when they conflict with the general good or with the will of the majority in regard to the relationship of individuals to each other or to society as a whole. The State exists for the protection of the rights of the individuals that compose it and the promotion of the best interests of society. Two things are therefore clear :—

1. The State cannot grant any right to one individual that takes away a just right belonging to another individual;

2. The State must not allow the supposed rights of the few to prevent the advancement of the real interests and highest welfare of the many.

Granting the correctness of the premises stated, we have only to decide the influence of education on the prosperity and happiness of a nation to find out the duty of the State in regard to it. If it is to the advantage of the State to have the people ignorant, then the State has no justification for the establishment of schools for the removal of ignorance. If, however, ignorance is a menace to liberty and a barrier to progress, it is the duty of the State to see that its people become educated. I do not claim that to do away with illiteracy will eradicate crime, but I do assert the correctness of the following propositions :—

1. The education of the people of any country increases their intelligence and qualifies them for the better performance of their duties in any sphere of life;

2. It gives men and women greater wealth-producing power, and it therefore tends to improve the condition of each individual materially and to increase the national wealth;

3. It enlarges the capacity for happiness by opening up new avenues to the mind and new windows to the soul, and by revealing the wondrous harmonies of creation;

4. It qualifies men to take an intelligent part in performing the duties of citizenship in the exercise of the franchise; and fits them for

the many positions of honor and responsibility to which they may be called in connection with the administration of the public affairs of their country ;

5. It is the only sure foundation on which constitutional government can rest.

Believing that education contributes largely to the happiness, the success, and the usefulness of individuals, and to the stability and highest development of constitutional government, I submit that it is the plain duty of the State in the best interest both of society and of the individual, to make provision for the establishment, the maintenance and the management of a system of schools.

How far may the State go in controlling a system of education ?

1. It should see that schools are established in every part of its dominion, so that no child may be left without the opportunity of receiving an education ;

2. It should fix a minimum standard to be reached by all pupils who are not weak-minded, before they are allowed to go to work, an education limit is better than an age limit. Both may be essential—the age limit to protect the child, and the education limit to protect the State ;

3. It should provide for the thorough instruction, the broad culture and the careful training of teachers, and allow none to teach but those authoritatively licensed to do so ;

4. It should provide for the erection of good school buildings, and give specific directions regarding the minimum of floor space for each pupil, and the proper lighting, the thorough ventilation, and the comfortable seating of the school rooms ;

5. It should prevent the use of poor or improper text-books. It is not at all essential that only one series of books should be authorized in order to do this, but no books should be used in schools without the sanction of the State department of education. The simplest, surest, fairest, *cheapest* way to provide text-books is to do so at the expense of the municipality. Text-books are educational agencies as much as teachers and school houses. The arguments that justify the erection of school buildings and the payment of teachers at public expense apply with equal force to the purchase of free text-books. State Superintendent Dickinson, of Massachusetts informed me recently that it would be as easy to do away with free teachers as free text-books in that State ;

6. It should compel careless parents to send their children to school or have them properly educated in some other satisfactory way ;

7. It should take steps to prevent the attendance at school of deli-

cate children whose physical growth may be retarded by school conditions ;

8. It should not only provide facilities for the efficient education of all in a limited course of study, and compel all to take advantage of it ; but it should also give free opportunities for broad and thorough culture to all who voluntarily wish to obtain it. The highest education provided by a nation should be open to its poorest child.

If every man had children of school age, and if every man was willing to patronize public or State schools, there could be no question as to the justice of a general tax levied on all for the support of these schools. There are two classes on whose behalf objections have been raised to the tax for school purposes : those who have no children to send to school and those who, for educational, social or conscientious reasons, object to send their children to a public school. The justification for the school tax is the same as for any other tax. Whatever is for the benefit of the organic unity of the State must be good for the individuals composing the State. Education reduces criminality and saves public expense for courts, officials and penitentiaries ; it increases respect for life and property, and therefore makes it safer for every citizen to live in the community ; it adds to the wealth-producing power of a nation, and every individual must share in the advantages of a larger distribution of capital ; and it contributes largely to the development of reverent submission to constituted authority, which is the true foundation for individual and national character. As no man can live in a country without sharing in these advantages, whether he has children or not, it is perfectly fair that he should pay his equitable proportion of the expense of securing them. All taxes are paid to secure advantages for the community as a whole, rather than for the direct benefits accruing to the taxpayers as individuals. No man has a just claim to the advantages of residence in a country without helping to provide them.

As a system of public education has undoubted advantages of great value, every man should be taxed for its support.

It should be clearly remembered that a State system of schools or of any other department of public service does not involve the interference of the State in local affairs unnecessarily. The fullest possible liberty consistent with the general good should be accorded to school districts, towns and cities in the administration of schools, as well as in all other matters. The State should not erect buildings, nor appoint teachers. The sections and municipalities should have more liberty than they usually have. The individuals of each district should have direct responsibilities, in order that they may have full opportunity to rise to

the majesty of true manhood. The State, by its laws, and by its system of inspection, should arouse local interest, and stimulate or, if necessary, compel local action on progressive lines in school work. This is in conformity with the soundest principles of constitutional development. State control should never be autocratic or bureaucratic. Local management combined with State supervision secures individual growth by the recognition of individual responsibility, and at the same time protects the interests of the State.

The greatest objection to State schools is based on the argument, that education should be all inclusive in its influence on humanity; that man's religious nature is his highest; that the State cannot teach religion satisfactorily; and that therefore the State should not assume to direct educational matters at all. This position has been taken most strongly by the Roman Catholic Church, although others have taken the same ground.

I agree fully with the position taken by the Roman Catholic Church in regard to the paramount importance of religious training in early youth. Man's spiritual nature must be kept in communion with his Creator, in order that he may reach his highest possibilities even physically and intellectually. All education should be a conscious growth towards God. There is no educational danger greater than that which is threatened by those who would confine education to a mere preparation for life work, and teach only those things necessary "in earning a living." Whatever name it assumes, "practical" or "utilitarian," such a system is monstrous. It is selfish, and narrow, and unjust. It ignores the grandest, the holiest elements of man's nature. Every true teacher should fight forever against such a degrading misconception of education. Every child, the poor man's as well as the rich man's, should have every part of his nature opened to let the light enter.

But man has a threefold nature,—physical, intellectual, and spiritual or religious. It is a fundamental law that this trinity of powers must be trained as a unity in order that their best development may be reached. The body, mind and spirit should be educated in harmony. God created them in harmony. Sin destroyed the harmony, and the great function of education is to restore the lost harmony. Whoever attempts to develop the physical, the intellectual, or the spiritual nature at the expense of the other two is fighting against God, and that can never be done successfully. Man's religious nature may be enfeebled instead of strengthened by attempting to develop it alone, to the neglect of his physical and intellectual nature. "Religion is not a dogma, nor an

emotion, but a *service*." Religious training does not consist in memorizing a creed but in living one. The best creed is useless, if merely stored in the memory; the poorest creed is ennobling if it reveals itself in the simplest unselfish act. No religious principle becomes definitely clear to any mind until it has been wrought out. When insight prompts to action, action in turn gives birth to higher insight. "Faith without works is dead." It was never truly alive. The real, vital meaning of love can only be made clear by loving; we get correct conceptions of truth by being true, of reverence by being reverent, of honor by being honorable, of nobility by being noble. We cannot separate religion and every-day human life. Religion should elevate our daily life, and our daily life is the only way our religion can reveal itself, not merely to others, but to ourselves. It is not necessary for a man or woman to hold certain rank in a church, either Protestant or Roman Catholic, in order to be a religious teacher. Every man or woman whose life is loving and true, and who stimulates others to truer living, is a religious teacher. Your humble woman who in the old red school house beside the country road gives her pupils high ideals of character; who insists that every act shall be performed definitely, and that every letter and figure and line shall be made or drawn accurately; who trains her pupils on the playground to respect the rights of others; who leads them to be patient and self-sacrificing, by her own patient and unselfish life, and by leading them to make sacrifices for weaker, poorer or sorrowing ones; who develops in each child a sense of responsibility for duty by giving each one a proper share in the management of the school; and who defines obedience into conscious respect for constituted authority, and finally ennobles it into a spirit of reverent co-operation with God, is in the truest sense a religious teacher. It is to be regretted that the educational ideal of the past has been the communication of knowledge, rather than the acquisition of power and the training of character; but a brighter day is fast dawning.

We can see evidences of the coming noon, when Protestants and Roman Catholics shall agree in ideals, and be in harmony as to methods. Protestant authorities are rapidly awakening to the fact that character building is the true work of education; and many leading Roman Catholics are already ready to allow the State schools to do all the work of education except the religious training. I listened to the eloquent oration of Archbishop Ireland in St. Paul two years ago, and there was little in it that I could not agree with. I have read Bishop Spalding's exquisite article on "Religious Education in State Schools,"

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and no nobler ideal of a true education has ever been written. As an ultra Protestant I would be very well satisfied with the erasure of one or two sentences. Rev. Thomas Bouquillon, professor of Moral Theology at the Cathedral University of America, has published two very able pamphlets during the past few months in defence of the right of the State to conduct schools, reserving for the Church the right to teach religion. He quotes many authorities, and claims that he gets the authority for his conclusions chiefly from St. Thomas Suarez and Leo XIII.

He says, the State has a right, which is its own, inherent in its very nature and make up, to educate,—that is, to found and manage schools. The right is not absolute, not unlimited, not exclusive; yet it is a real right proper to the State. I say then, the State has a right to found and manage schools, because it must care for the intellectual and moral development of the people. It must care for the intellectual and moral development of the people, because it must secure the common good of the commonwealth. He also grants the right of the State "to exact and enforce a minimum of education," although he thinks there may be circumstances that should make the State hesitate to enforce its right in this respect. The Professor has been sustained in his view by an article in the May number of the *Educational Review*, by Professor Thomas O'Gorman of the Catholic University of America. These are some of the reasons that lead me to hope for the noonday of harmony. I hope ere long that in the public schools conducted by the State, the great, central, dominant aim shall be character building, and I trust that in the accomplishment of this great work, the State may speedily have the hearty co-operation and support of all the churches, Roman Catholic as well as Protestant. The best way in which the churches can aid the State in defining the spiritual nature of the children has not yet been reached. Its discovery is one of the greatest of unsolved problems. It is not the best way for the churches to conduct separate public schools at the expense of the State. If one church gets the right to do this, all churches must be granted the same right. There is no reason, nor justice, nor safety in granting to one individual or to one class or sect special rights or privileges not granted equally to all. If all churches demanded the right to educate their own children at the expense of the State, that is, to conduct schools supported by the State, money and effort would be wasted, a multitude of poor schools would be substituted for the required number of good schools, unity of effort would be lost, national spirit would be weakened, and sectarianism would be intensified.

Denominational national schools carried to a logical limit are an absurdity. Religious training rightly understood is indeed the most important part of education, but sectarianism is not religion. Religion is broadening and strengthening to character, sectarianism is narrowing and weakening.

There are so many of the vital truths essential to the growth of the highest character, believed by both Protestants and Roman Catholics, surely the time will come when an agreement can be reached as to the method of defining them in the lives of the children.

Whatever else may be done, it seems to be fitting that in a Christian State the opening and closing exercises of schools should be devotional, as a reverent recognition of God as the source of wisdom, purity and power. Local rights should be guarded in this as in all other matters. The majority has no right to compel the minority to take part in religious exercises in which they do not believe. Each school district should decide for itself, and then the conscientious convictions of individuals should be respected. The minority sometimes receives too much consideration, however. The minority in a school district should not be allowed to prevent the Christian majority from having Christian devotional exercises in school. No child should be compelled to attend religious exercises by the majority, but neither should any child be kept from religious exercises by the minority. Attendance at the opening and closing exercises should not be compulsory.

The relationship of the State to the other educational agencies, the parent, the private school, and the church, is easily defined. No parent, no private school, and no church school has a right to give a child either an inferior education or an improper education, and it is the duty of the State to protect every child from either result. Professor Bouquillon grants the correctness of this position on behalf of the Roman Catholic Church. He says very frankly: "The State may exact that the schools established by the Church teach a certain minimum. It may even compel the teaching of such branches of knowledge as the circumstances of time and country render necessary to the State's well-being, as, for instance, the English language in this country. And certainly the civil power in the United States would have the right to interfere in the work of church schools, if it were plain that any of them (I argue from supposition) was teaching anarchism or Caesarism to the children confided to it." That is reasonable. That opinion must ultimately prevail throughout the world. Every non-State school should be carefully inspected by the State. The time will soon come when no teachers shall be allowed to

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teach in non-State schools who are not trained and licensed by the State. If the church authorities wish to give the teachers in church schools, a special training in addition to the State training, there can be no objection to their doing so, so long as distinctively church schools remain in existence.

It is not an infringement on the rights and liberty of the parents to insist that private schools and church schools shall be well equipped and conducted by trained teachers. The law compels a parent to respect the physical rights of his own child; surely the law may with equal justice interfere, even with a parent, to prevent injury to the child's mental and moral nature, especially when injury to the child means loss to the State. The State can never advance towards a higher, broader civilization as rapidly as it should advance unless each individual child in it receives its fullest training. It is impossible in the very nature of things for individual parents to understand the fundamental principles and processes of education as thoroughly as those chosen by the State to make the careful study of these principles and processes their life work. The State should therefore fix the standard of general culture to which every child is entitled, and see that it has ample opportunity for receiving it. The parent should have the right to choose the school for his child; but the State should make it certain that he cannot select a poor school, where his child shall not receive a good education. If a parent wishes more definite religious teaching, or more of what are called accomplishments than the State schools can give, he should be at liberty to give these to his child, provided his child's general culture is kept up to the general standard fixed by the State.

I plead strongly for the individual liberty of each parent. Individual liberty and individual responsibility are among the greatest lessons taught to the world by Christ, and the development of the individual is the most wonderful work of the centuries since Christ. I fully agree with the views of the late Cardinal Manning, when he demanded the right of the parent to choose the school in which his child is to be educated, and I have always been sorry when any prelate or other church officer has interfered with the parent's right by threats of church penalties or other punishment for the choice of a school contrary to the wish of the Church. The glorious day is not far distant, however, when the recognition of individual liberty will be universal by all Church and State organizations.

State schools must ultimately supersede all other schools for general culture. They have many advantages: The State is the most complete organic unity of the human family. It includes all sects, all nationalities, and all races residing within its limits.

It is therefore the most perfect agency for securing universal co-operation.

State schools can be better fitted and equipped than any other schools.

State schools are directed and inspected by the wisest and most experienced educators in the State.

State schools bring the children of all creeds, nationalities and races together, so that they grow up with a feeling of unity, instead of separation and rivalry, if not of suspicion and distrust.

State schools make the boys and girls proud of their country, and loyal to it. Patriotism that intensely loves its own land, and is just and liberal towards all other lands, is an ennobling virtue.

State schools give reverence for constituted authority, and qualify for good citizenship.

State schools properly conducted, as they shall be, when educators everywhere are inspired by true motives, develop not only the physical and intellectual, but also the spiritual powers. They should be powerful agencies for moral and religious growth; the religious growth that springs from, and reveals itself through, *true living*; that is expressed in action more than in dogma.

I look for the time when the churches—Roman-Catholic and Protestant—will co-operate with the schools in extending the religious culture of the children in the schools, when the State and the Church shall truly be united, not by formal bonds of law, but by a holy love prompting to united action in the noblest of all duties—the training of the child so that it may grow consciously forever towards the Divine.

ADDRESS OF THE PRESIDENT—HON. GEO. W. ROSS.

MR. CHAIRMAN, LADIES AND GENTLEMEN:—Let me congratulate you upon what I understand has been a very pleasant and profitable afternoon in each section. Of course I could not be at all of them at the same time, and consequently I did not attend any. (Laughter.) I thought I would treat myself to the wonders and liberality to be found in the McGill School of Science, so that when I returned to Toronto I might have a tale to tell which would delight our citizens. I did so consequently, and I was delighted by the trial. Now, I want to say to those present, because it is well sometimes to give fatherly advice, that I hope this interest will continue until the close of the Convention. This is a business convention composed of sensible men and women

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with a sensible president and eight or nine sensible vice-presidents. It is going to be a success. We are here for that purpose, and are capable of making it a success. Now, I have been set down to deliver an address on Educational tendencies and problems. We are as an association in my judgment formed for the purpose of making educational public opinion for the Dominion of Canada. We are here to consider and discuss educational tendencies and educational problems, and to lead the public opinion of this great Dominion on educational questions. That is what I understand to be our purpose. That is the particular responsibility which I have assumed myself in connection with this Association. In our legislative assemblies when educational questions are discussed, you will observe that members of parliament discuss many of these matters with great enthusiasm, but it is generally with the fear of an election before their eyes, and therefore they do it not upon the higher plan of merit or demerit, but sometimes upon the lower plan of expediency, of conservatism or radicalism, which they think will assist their position in coming elections. I mean, of course, that is what some members of parliament do,—not all. It is necessary for us then to erect such high standards as to what is wise, as to what is prudent, as to what is expedient and practical, as will furnish the said members of parliament with a proper standard of duty. I say this is the legitimate function of a teachers convention; it should be one of the primary functions of a Dominion Convention, and I hope the deliberations of this Convention will be recognized from Halifax to Vancouver. Everyone knows this, that we sometimes have theories which are logical enough, but which are necessary to be considered in a thorough manner before they can be put into operation, and the educationalist that is wise is not simply a progressive man but a statesman, who observes the signs of the times, who considers the material he has to work with, and who says: "I will take all I can get; and like Oliver Twist I shall ask for more on every reasonable opportunity." And if we with prudence and with forethought in a conciliatory spirit towards those who differ from us build up educational theories not pure and simple, but solving educational problems in such a way as will appeal to the common sense of the people of Canada, then we will be quite as well governed educationally as we are politically, for we have a good deal of faith in the average intellectual judgment of the people of this country. That is my belief. The tendencies of educational thought have also to be considered in connection with the problems we have to solve. For instance, the whole of Canada has not yet subscribed to the principle of free schools. We want to bear that in

mind and keep it before the public. We want to show the advantages of a free education in all its national bearings to which Mr. Hughes has referred. We want to indoctrinate those who do not agree with it that it is the birthright of every citizen, and that national life depends upon the blessing of education. There is also a question to be considered which refers to the need for more text-books, and there is also the point to be thought of, viz. : of remembering that in addition to the public school there is the high school and the university. Now, the true educationalist surveys the whole system as an organic whole. He views it not simply as an elementary education, but he so divides it into sections that when put together they constitute an organic whole. In limiting our public school system we find this to be the case. We had an able paper from Dr. Mackay on this. In Ontario we are perplexed with this problem,—where it should begin and where end. Having ascertained where the public school ends, we can determine where the high school begins. We will know, too, where university work begins, for that, of course, never ends. Now, I am not going to discuss with you in detail what are the limitations, or should be, of the public school course. I am bound to say, however, that as to the limitations of a public school course I am somewhat conservative—that is, I believe it is the worst thing in the world and the most dangerous thing in the world for a minister of education to extend the public school course beyond its proper and safe limits. It is the easiest thing in the world if you wish the public to believe you are doing an enormous work, to load them up with such a variety of subjects as to impair their usefulness to each other. I am bound to say I am opposed to that *in toto*. Now, then, what are the limits for public schools? After all, the three R's seem to fix the limits fairly well. Call me Tory or Conservative, if you like; these are my limits, and, so far as Ontario is concerned, we have had the honor for a number of years to direct this educational opinion, and now our schools are very closely bounded by the three subjects of reading, writing and arithmetic. So far as reading is concerned, it not only consists in articulating from the printed page, but all that pertains to the expression of thought. For instance, you say you must have history in your schools, but that is only another form of reading, and the pupil will acquire an attachment for reading whenever the books can be made attractive and useful in certain directions. And so it is with geography. I believe there are great mistakes committed in many cases by the way in which the subject has been taught, as some teachers conceive they do not do their whole duty towards the child unless they fill the child's mind with names as a lady fills her

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pincushion with pins and all the paraphernalia of the house. Instead of giving the geography of our country and other countries the practical turn they should have; instead of the child through his reading lesson acquiring a sound healthy idea of the chief traits of his country, which is worth a thousand lists of geographical terms from the beginning of the world to the end of time; instead of getting some interest in the development of national life as the child could get; instead of a child acquiring such taste for reading in its various forms as would benefit him in future life, we cram him full of meaningless names and dates, which are a weariness to the flesh and a disgust to the average Canadian scholar. (Laughter and applause.) Now, I say the public school course should be limited as much as possible to these three subjects. That is the problem we have to solve. Some say that science should be taught. I do not believe it any more than I believe that grammar should be taught. All you can do in the way of giving a child a variety of things to learn is insignificant in the fullest sense of the term compared with what you ought to give him when he leaves school. We know that it is often the painful experience of every teacher that when children leave school they throw their books aside, because schools have been irksome and they have acquired a disgust for the wearisome drudgery. If, however, through the proper selection of subjects, you give the child the key himself, and afford him a taste for expressive reading and facilities for expressing his own thought, you have trained him in a way to fit him to fill a masterful position in life. Show me the man who is willing to read, and I will show you the man who will force his way to the front. Show me the man who can express himself orally or in writing, and I will show you a man who will have an influence on the community. One of the problems we have to solve, which must be done in the light of long experience by the best inspectors and teachers, by men who have observed the results of education,—one of the results to be obtained is to settle with reasonable certainty where the public school course should begin, what should be its scope, and where it should cease; and, having that settled, the next thing is easy. If I were to say where the public school should begin, I should say it should always begin with the kindergarten course. There is nothing to my mind more important before the people of this country than the careful study of kindergarten methods, and the effect upon the child in after life of kindergarten methods. Within the last ten or fifteen years, what have our universities done? They have practically adopted kindergarten methods. They are teaching more and more after kindergarten methods than before, and what are these immense laboratories

but the practical working out by the child's own hands of the inductive processes which are practically kindergarten, and which are the only sound methods known to modern educators. I would follow that up. I am not going to discuss the other two subjects, but I am going to throw out this suggestion: Those who are responsible for a system of education that is covered by extending so far have considered these problems. Unless we are careful that the public school course ends where the high school begins, and the high school ends where the university begins, there is a waste of power, and we are accountable for this waste of power, without producing adequate results. I know universities in which the elements of French and German are taught such as are taught in our high schools in Montreal and all over Ontario. That should not be so. If our universities are going to do it, let us know it and we will drop it in the high schools. The university should do higher work. It should not do elementary work. And it is for us teachers here to-day who are responsible as leaders of public opinion to look over our system from beginning to end,—not to take it up in sections but to look at it in all its points, and see how we can advise our authorities so to limit the whole course that each will cover its ground and no more, and that not one will overlap the other; and that the State which pays for all this will see that the money is expended to the best advantage. We have to deal with this in Ontario. We have not settled it properly; we have not settled it yet; but I believe it may be settled before long if we do our duty. Then another problem we have to solve is how to secure trained teachers for all our schools. We have done a good deal towards this in Ontario. About one-third of the teachers are trained in our normal schools. Quebec is not so far advanced as that, and in the other Provinces but a small percentage of our teachers practically have received the training which they require, and in this respect we are behind the United States and Great Britain and Germany with all its advantages. How are we going to solve that problem? By what processes are we to secure trained teachers for every school? Of course you will all agree with me that it is one of the most important elements in the success of a school that the teacher should receive the best training possible, and we have still another problem in that whether we should combine the professional or non-professional training of teachers together. In Ontario we have separated the professional from the non-professional. With regard to our colleges, we give as much training as possible and a non-professional examination. After that, the teachers attend a model school for four months. Having taught one year on the certificate they are eligible to

any of our normal schools, where they receive a six months' course, and then they are licensed to teach for life. Now, this plan was not always so, and it has only been in operation fourteen or fifteen years. If we attempted to give a professional and non-professional training it would cost two hundred thousand dollars; it costs now about forty thousand. Now, in the State of New York, and in all the cities of the American Union, they have the double course of the professional and non-professional training, including residence at the training college. What is going to be the policy for Canada? It is a matter partly of experience, partly of expediency and partly of social conditions. If you can get more trained teachers by insisting upon a non-professional course, I would say take the non-professional course, and use your normal schools entirely for professional training. I believe we do as good work in our college institutions as is ever done for them when they take their two courses together in the Normal School. Now, supposing I would say: "Here we have a little money at our disposal,"—and sometimes we think we have a little surplus in Ontario, and find hard work to hold on to it,—supposing we would say to a teacher: "You must study in the Normal Schools three years. You must teach there. You will have some practice in teaching, and if you go there you will learn under good trained teachers." But not being able to afford this, the practical solution of the difficulty is the one we have to find. It has worked wonders for the Province of Ontario. Why should it not be useful in other Provinces. In the city of New York, they have seven or eight Normal schools, and in Illinois they have five or six. Now, I say, the greatest good to the greatest number. Better fifty well trained teachers than one hundred indifferently trained, with forty-nine no good. Now, I would like to see this great Association endeavor to solve that problem of training teachers, and would like everyone of you to insist upon all things upon trained people. The Parliament in which I have the honor to have a seat sometimes uses somewhat rough language towards me, and says: "You don't increase the grant for our public schools." I say I can't increase the grant for public schools and persist in my course in continuing the training of teachers, and, if I can't do both, I will do the most important and train the teachers. I say that, if you put one hundred thousand dollars in the training of teachers in the Province of Quebec, you will do better than if the Government gave you half a million. If that is your opinion we want that understood from Prince Edward Island to Vancouver. What would one hundred thousand dollars be in the Province of Ontario? It would be a grant of only one dollar from every rate-payer in the school. You would not know that

the rate-payer had lost it when he had spent it ; but when they send four or five boys to school to get an education the rate-payer then gets hundreds of dollars a year, and the country is hundreds of dollars a year better off because of that training. Can you show me anything more pitiable under the sun than the untrained teacher doing that kind of work which has broken the heart of many an inspector and has brought many a teacher to the grave ! What we want is to raise our schools up to that condition of fitness by putting in trained teachers, that the task of teaching will be delightful, and the pleasures of the school will be far more happy than the pleasures of the home.

There is another problem right here, and that is how to retain teachers in the profession. We like our teachers in Ontario. They are our friends : they are the friends of the State,—young men and women of high standing. Now, strange to say, that in nine years of the administration of my department with eight thousand teachers who have been there, we have cancelled only two or three certificates for immorality during that long period. Now the average life of a teacher is about seven years. Every seven years we have practically a complete change and many leave. Young men teach and get married. Young men teach and use the profession as a stepping-stone to something better. The man who is a success as a teacher will get along anywhere. He will make a successful merchant or professional man, because the qualities that lead to success in teaching are of the highest order. How are we going to keep our trained teachers ? We have had during the eight years of my administration of the department about four thousand trained teachers, and to-day we have only 1600. What has become of the ninety and nine ? Nobody can tell where they have gone. Can anything be done to prevent that ? Now, here I am face to face with a problem I can't solve. What can be done ? What could Dr. Inch or Mackay do in their respective departments ? Isn't it a great loss of power ? We put into the public schools of Ontario 1200 new teachers,—1000 ladies and 200 gentlemen. Every year we put 1200 in and 1200 go out. Those who come in have no experience. The average experience of those who go out is seven years, and we get no experience whatever. This is a tremendous waste and loss to the State. We give free education in the normal schools. Our high schools also, while not absolutely free, are practically so. Every ten years we give a million to our high schools. We have between six and seven thousand in our high schools taking a course free. What can we do ? That is a problem I would like to see this Association sit down to consider. Can we do anything to secure a

better salary for our teachers? We should remember that money will bring the talent and brains from all ends of the earth, and if we are not willing to pay the price for it, it will go where the price can be paid. And in this democratic land of ours thousands are born without anything else to place upon the market except the intelligence which they possess, and that intelligence and education they ought to sell and must sell to the highest bidder. If there is any channel more lucrative than teaching they will take it. They will even take up the noble profession of the law. (Laughter.) And when we consider that the effect which the teacher has upon the character of the child is so tremendous, and great national results follow therefrom, is there any greater national problem which our Parliament should consider at the first moment than doing something to retain the trained teacher? In Ontario my predecessor thought that by providing a superannuation system people would remain long enough to draw a pension. We tried it, and it has been practically repealed. It has been tried in Quebec. In a small way it was tried in England and in Germany. Now, for my part I am opposed to all pensions except in the case of a soldier who risks his life, but still we have this question to face. A man can't afford to throw away seven years of his life, nor can the State afford to lose one-seventh of the trained teachers every year. The effect will be enormous upon the education of our children, and we have to meet it.

Then there is another problem, and that is the unfortunate irregularity of attendance in our children at school. It is a reproach that we say it here to the people of Canada, that the average attendance should only be fifty-two per cent. of the population. The fact is, we have one hundred thousand children who do not attend school at all, and sometimes we say when the reporters are not present that ours is the best system in the world. We say that Nova Scotia does not compare with it, and yet in the face of that declaration we have this other fact, that this hundred thousand of our population do not attend one hundred days in the year. Who is to blame? There is work for us to do here. I sometimes say that besides the licence which we grant we have another licence for teachers, and that is to do missionary work. They should go into the highways and hedges, and ingratiate themselves with the parents, and make themselves so universally beloved that the children could not stay away. That is my recipe for Ontario, and I give it to you for Quebec. I had carried through the house a truant bill, making it absolutely binding upon each parent to send his child to school a whole year except in certain cases. It is the strongest truancy bill on this side of the Atlantic.

and we are going to try it in Ontario. Of course legislation without a sound public opinion at the back is practically useless, and it will take us some time to put the machinery of the law in motion before it produces good results; but if you compel me to pay taxes, I have a right to compel you to go to school. The complement of free schools is compulsory education. I would not be a Cæsar if I had the opportunity, but I do want to say to parents that the magistrate should reach out the arm of the law and take them before the proper court of jurisdiction, and compel them to fulfill this duty towards the State. Is that not a remedy? Yes, and I say that I look more to the educated public opinion which the twenty thousand teachers of Canada can produce in the next ten years to remedy this evil than to anything else. Our public school inspectors, our ministers, our superintendents and our teachers must all accept the great task of so indoctrinating the people of this country at that point as to produce this result. Look at the revolutions produced in society by one or two strong men imbued with great ideas. Wilberforce willed that the slaves of England should be free, and twenty millions of slaves were liberated. Bright and Cobden willed that the free loaf should be in the cottage of every person in England, and the corn laws were repealed and there was free trade in that country. I might specify revolutions by the score brought about by two or three intrepid men. We have an army here twenty thousand strong, each one intrenched in his own little kingdom with from 25 to 40 rate-payers, and I have little doubt if those women who are so sympathetic in their nature and so powerful in their influence when they choose to exert themselves, and those men who are so strong in argument,—I have little doubt if they went to work addressing themselves to the task with proper enthusiasm, there would be a great revolution brought about in this particular direction. Now, we must not feel when we have taught from nine o'clock to four that we have done our whole duty. We must not say we are not responsible for influences beyond this, but we must feel that we are the advance guard of public opinion which is going to revolutionize the country to give us better thoughts and better methods. That is one of the great duties I feel forced upon this Convention.

We have also to deal with another problem, and that is the problem of examinations in public schools, the high school and in connection with our teachers. Now, my idea about examinations is, that they are an intolerable nuisance from the beginning to the end. I have written I don't know how many examinations in my life, and I detested every one of them. I was glad when they were over. I never believed they found

out my weak points or my strong points there. Examinations are a nuisance in connection with public school work. Now, I believe we ought to so organize our public school methods as to get rid almost entirely of the form of examinations. There is no sense to my mind in a teacher who has charge of a school for one or two years putting his boys and girls through an examination extending over three or four weeks. It is cruelty to animals and is not a test of results, but is very disturbing to the school and very unsatisfactory. Give me the man or woman of ordinary common sense, and if he does not know how to promote the class without these formidable examinations, I don't want that teacher at all. It is the daily contact of the teacher with the child that enables the teacher to size the child up and say whether he is fit to be promoted. I believe the Detroit system is proper if carried out; it is of true value; but in our public schools it is worth our while to consider whether we should not spare the souls of children in Canada from examinations. Let us do it honestly and conscientiously, believing that the ground is sure and knowing that we will get the proper result. Take the high school promotion, and you must have formal examinations there, because the schools are competing with others. You can't say to the teachers: "We will allow you so many pupils who are worth first-class certificates." But with regard to this whole question there is a certain mental quality which no one can find out in a formal examination. See how disappointing examinations are. You send up three or four which you don't expect will pass. When they go up for examination they are a little indifferent, and the ardent pupil has worked himself up for the fray, while those who were best up fail in the very hour of trial and do not pass this formal examination. If any of you stood in my office after this examination and saw the poor broken hearts, it would be very painful to you. We sent 2000 up to one examination, of whom 1500 passed and 500 failed, and every one came in with a cambric handkerchief to remonstrate against it. Now, if there was any way of getting at this personal difficulty which the teacher alone discovers and which the examiner cannot find out, we would have a most satisfactory examination. There is a problem there worth considering. And then we have another difficulty with our normal schools. We send up to final examination those who begin our course of study, and we ask them to teach a class of examiners in order that we may see what kind of teachers they are. We take this way of ascertaining results. The nervous teacher fails who is more highly endowed than the phlegmatic teacher who succeeds.

I have gone briefly over some matters which occur to me as worth

engaging the attention of this great Convention. Our object should not be to revolutionize; that might do for an absolute government, but not for one founded on democratic principles. To do good and effective work we must be educational statesmen if we are going to succeed, not setting aside the principles of our fathers in all respects, but reaching forward to the discussion and consideration of methods which our long experience and superior advantages have enabled us to arrive at. We must remember in educational matters as in other matters that "heaven is not reached at a single bound, but that we build the ladders by which we rise from the lowly earth to the vaulted skies." The greatest reforms have been brought about through the wholesome aid of public opinion, and then by a progressive legislation which sometimes very gradually emancipated those who were burdened with prejudices of some kind. Now, then, there is assembled in the city of Montreal a body of solid men and women with a weight of mental reason, with strong ability to grasp educational conditions, with the zeal and enthusiasm which will make us say: If you give us this legislation, we will show you results which will make your hearts glad, and strengthen and improve the moral and social conditions of society. There are conditions with respect to school organizations in this country with which we cannot deal. Our constitution gives the Roman Catholics certain rights and privileges which we are bound to respect and which we will respect under all circumstances; but outside of this, there is a difference of opinion in a thousand things where we see eye to eye, and where we cry: "Let us work together." Where there are constitutional difficulties which separate us, let us respect the constitution and keep off this ground. Every separate school in Ontario says, "Give us trained teachers," and we are doing it to-day. Every separate school says, "Give us the best textbooks that can be supplied, and we will be glad to accept them." They say: "Aid us as far as you can, and let our children be as well educated as they can be under the circumstances;" and we answer back so far as the Department will allow: "Whether in a separate or a public school, we are equally responsible to you for the books you receive, and we will give you the best the country can afford." We are not going outside the constitution, but within the constitution when we say: "Train your teachers, and do it so well that every child in Canada may be so thoroughly educated, that he may show himself worthy of the social surroundings in which he is placed."

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THE THIRD DAY.

THURSDAY, JULY 7TH, 1892.

*Morning Session.*ADDRESS OF DR. E. D. WARFIELD, LL.D., PRESIDENT OF LAFAYETTE
COLLEGE, PA.,

— ON —

THE RELATION OF THE SCHOOL TO THE UNIVERSITY.

I am sure it is a great pleasure that I am here to-day. I find myself at the end of my journey here somewhat worn out; but having been accustomed to look upon Montreal as a sort of city of refuge for worn-out Americans, I made up my mind to come here and see what you were doing, and then go back with some fresh information upon educational matters. I do not expect you to take all I shall say seriously, but I shall expect you to discuss it freely, and I hope I shall be able to strike some criticism here. The question of the Relation of the School to the University is one of the most far-reaching that I have ever dealt with. In every country it presents some peculiar form, and it is quite impossible to deal with it in any country not our own; but there are a certain number of peculiar and familiar forms and a certain number of fundamental principles which can be presented, and which when presented often lead to profitable discussion. In the first place, the purpose of the school seems to me to be much misapprehended. The school has a distinct purpose quite apart from any final termination in the university, and yet the school is a distinct correlation of the university, and we should never forget that the school must fulfill its double purpose. Now, I may be in error, but I hold that the first purpose of all our educational institutions is to make men. The purpose of institutions of higher learning is not to make scholars; that may be incidental to it, but the first purpose of every institution is to make men, and such men that they shall be good citizens. Now, we must admit that men come into this world with various capacities, and we are told to-day that this is due largely to heredity and secondly to environment. These two factors we see on every hand. I do not accept this statement

in full. It seems to me that heredity may be a fundamental principle, but it also seems to me that character, whether derived from heredity or what not, is almost sure to dominate environment, provided it be a character worthy of the name, and so the propositions we have to deal with must begin with a consideration of the original situation, through heredity and environment, and then we must see what powers there are in our own people to overcome them. We must take into consideration what the true purpose of the school is for the greatest number. It will not do for us to do as we have done for so long,—take a certain class out of any community, give it great privileges, and limit those privileges to that particular class, for in that case we put them in such a position that they lose touch with the educational opinions about them. Of course in this country the time has long since passed when the majority of the people have been deprived of the advantages which they were fitted to take, for while we have been apt to class as among the common people the great majority of our citizens, we must not forget that there have sprung up men of great capacity and capability, who are to be moral forces in the next generation, and that we are all common people in one sense of the word, though perhaps not so much so in another. We must recollect that there is a great diversity among us all; indeed this fact is so very striking that you will find men whose ideas are purely technical, and others purely intellectual; and when we choose from such men and give them a distinct career, not because of their fitness for it but because of their own desires, we are doing injury to them and injury to our own community. So, it seems to me that the end and aim of our schools and high schools should be to give as broad an education as possible with as much room for individual development as possible, and then allow such selection to follow from this school training as is compatible with the progress of our country. In pursuance of this idea, we are developing in the United States technical schools,—schools which are technical schools in the highest sense of the word,—not schools of manual training merely, but in the old sense of the word schools which combine mental aptitude with handicraft, which raises handicraft to the rank of artisanship and artisanship to the rank of art. When we go to the old world and look over those wonderful museums, we see there models of what men can do, and it seems to me that it should be our aim to lift all these departments up to a high standard, where art and artisanship are brought into contact, where the public service is well served, and to raise all standards in such a manner that men will understand there is dignity in labor. There is in art something of the mysterious which makes a good many of us fail to under-

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stand it. There was in the law at one time something which, instead of being as it is a mere business calling, had a mystery about it which made the uninitiated think there was some spell about it. So it is with medicine, which consequently acquired a great dignity. And so it is with theology, for men went into that because it seemed to be a calling of extra mystery. Now, I do not believe that any man is infallible, and yet we are apt to think in our younger years that the schoolmaster at least, if not the preacher, is more or less infallible. Moreover, he is very apt to believe that what he knows is all that is worth knowing. The result is that many of our boys come from school with very set ideas of what is profitable and what is unprofitable. Now, it seems to me that the essential nobility of education should be sought for more than its external respectability. True mental development involves the training not of the memory only, but also of the imagination and the will, and for this reason all schools should be so arranged as to produce the most perfect correlation of thought. In our existing arrangements I think we are very apt to forget sometimes that there is something more than memory, and that there is such a thing as imagination and such a thing as will. Now, we have to develop these different departments. We have got to give the child first the impulse and desire, and then we have to inculcate the lessons to be drawn from the exercise of will. Then we have got to have memory, but not necessarily memory by correlation, and then we have got to have imagination, for without all these principles brought into perfect synthesis, the child is not properly taught. What we want is correlation of all faculties. We want all our schools correlated in a line leading up to the university, and that university shall be made as broad as the human mind. This perhaps seems too abstract, but, on the other hand, it works itself out very simply. In the first place, those who go up to the high school and want to go into business must determine for themselves what department it is they wish to enter, and their course of study will be such as to fit them if they wish to go beyond for the university. Now, I think that children should have a knowledge of men of the world, for that has the power of awakening independence in their minds more than any other department of knowledge. So when their minds are beginning to be diverted along business lines, let us awaken their interest in the world, before they go into counting houses in the different parts of the world, and prepare them to be successful men of business. Of course we are to-day criticising the efforts of such men as Mr. Carnegie, but it is a sufficient refutation of the criticism of our educational methods to point out the useful lives that have been led by

men raised in the old classical way. We can point to the beauty and dignity of those lives which have sought for something more than mere business. For a mere business career I do not know that the university is a necessity, but for something beyond that it certainly is indispensable; and if a man can afford after leaving the high school to go on through the university and spend three or four years in college, gathering in the supplies of knowledge which the ages have furnished, he will be able, when he has made a success of life, to enjoy in his older years all the delights and advantages of a cultured mind.

Now, if there is one system of university training which is good, it is the division of those who are seeking honors from those who are not. I often wish we could have a special elective course and not keep back a great many who are injured in that way. There should be some plan of eliminating among pupils that element who are by nature unfitted for a university training, and for this end of course differentiation is important. It should be borne in mind, however, that higher education in this generation should at least include technical education, for this idea has greatly broadened within the last twenty-five years. So far as the relationship between the high schools and the universities is concerned, it seems to me that there can be no dispute as to the very important place which the schoolmaster fills in the university life. Frederick August Wolf, the great German philologist, said nearly a century ago: "If you want the university reformed, you must reform the schools; and the only way to reform the schools is to give them better prepared school-masters." Nor is this a position of antagonism. When the masters are better able to teach, the scholars will be better prepared for the university. Now, some things that the university must demand of the school at present are not higher, but more thorough preparation, and most of all more thorough preparation in English. This thing of jumping from one thing to another is highly prejudicial to true advance. Now, for my part I stand in the United States as the representative of an old conservative theory of education, which does not want to pull men up by the roots to see whether or not they are growing,—which believes in advancing from generation to generation and not from six months to six months. In this connection we believe we must have sound mathematics to begin with. The idea of a man endeavoring to become a specialist in electricity or chemistry without a fundamental knowledge of mathematics is absurd. All these sciences depend more and more upon calculation and less and less upon experimentation. We believe also in early training. We believe a child can begin very early with serious work; and if you begin

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with a child early enough to teach him a few hours of serious work, you are doing a great deal better than if you keep him for a long time studying in the class room.

My idea is, and it is the old Southern idea, that we should teach a child from eight to ten the elements of Latin and from ten to twelve the elements of Greek. It gives the child a better knowledge of his own language, and in every case where I have seen this tried it has always been successful. Beyond a doubt the English language is the most important subject that is taught in our public schools, because the English language in the not far distant future will be the language for science philosophy as it is to-day for business, and that is a point which must not be forgotten. I am glad that Lafayette College claims to have the first professor of the English language in the world. Dr. Francis Marsh, who is perhaps the greatest English theologian in the United States, was elected to the chair of English Literature, and has occupied that chair, and the college has stood for sound English scholarship,—a college which makes all other studies contribute to the knowledge of the greatest language we know of,—the only language which will perhaps some day be universal. Now, very often in looking over Greek and Latin translations it is wonderful to see what queer translations are produced by a boy. The work is so peculiar as a rule that we cannot tell what language these translations are in. On the other hand, however, I doubt whether the thoughts of a boy of fifteen or sixteen on every-day subjects can be translated literally into English. He does not know English as a language, nor has he had any opportunity for scientific taste to be developed. I should like to see each school make an effort to teach the scholars what the English language is historically, what are its possibilities and what its uses. I would like them to teach the young men and women of our country that the English language is no mere jabber that you can take some advantage of or no advantage of, but that if you are going to be a man of business, or a scientific man, or a professional man, you will never amount to much in this generation without you can stand up before your fellow-men and express the thought which you have in your mind in such a way as to carry conviction and make yourself understood. Now, I do not think I am dealing with a subject of small importance or a subject too trifling to allude to. I go to a great many public meetings and to a great many such Conventions as this, and the average teacher in our high schools over in the States at least cannot get up and read a paper without making terrible mistakes in English, and without showing great poverty of thought and greater poverty

of language. They have no idea of sentiment; and no idea of richness of tongue. These things are shown on every side even in the most carefully prepared papers which are read. I wish there could be more trouble taken in this particular. It is a terrible thing to be so poor in expression; to find boys, when you give them an examination paper, say for instance in history, produce a result which is perfectly unintelligible. They know the book and they can tell you a good deal about it, but when they come to write it out they have no idea at all of perspective in the arrangement of language in which to express their ideas. It is often with them, I believe, a purely mechanical habit, and the mechanical part of education is acquired in the school. The college does not expect to do much of this. It expects to take the results of mechanical training and extract therefrom something of an original nature. So it seems to me that this is one of the departments in which the school is absolutely essential to the college. Now, there are a great many things that suggest themselves in these relations. The period at which a scholar should pass from the high school to the university also demands attention. There is no reason why an earlier preparation should not be obtained, provided the preparation is made more definite and more simple,—not so many subjects but a more complete mastery of fewer subjects. That is the training which the university must demand, and I hope you will keep your carefully adjusted school in proper touch with the university by encouraging those who graduate at the university to become teachers in your secondary schools, so that there may be a progress from generation to generation. The whole aim and subject of education is to make men and not scholars—to make men who will be master workmen in whatever they do,—to know how to do the thing they are set to do, and to do it with all their might. We want greater power, not greater ideas, as to whether and why things should be done,—not more criticism but more accomplishment.

Now, I am afraid I have spoken too long, but this is a theme upon which when I once get started I hardly know how to stop. There are so many side-views that I feel inclined to give you a dissertation on, every science I know, so that, if I have been rather prolix, I hope you will pardon me, because of the pleasure it has afforded me to speak to you, and the gratification it has been to me to observe the close attention which you have given to my remarks.

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DISCUSSION.

DR. HARE, of Whitby, then said that he did not want to take up the time of the Convention; but there were some difficulties in the way of advancement in Ladies' Colleges which perhaps some of the members might solve. He thought that the education of ladies was superficial, and that whilst they knew something of music, drawing and fancy work, their literary course was a mere smattering, and something should be done to improve this.

IDEAL SCHOOL DISCIPLINE, AND HOW TO
SECURE IT.

BY G. U. HAY, PH.B., ST. JOHN, N.B.

When I was invited to read a paper before this Association, I felt that it would be both an honor and a pleasure to comply with the request. But the preparations for the close of a year's work and of final examinations bring so many perplexities in their train, that you will all agree with me when I state that such is not the time to prepare a thoughtful paper, nor such a one as should engage the attention of a body of thinkers and critics like this. I trust, therefore, that you will be as forbearing and generous as you are thoughtful and critical; and, for my part, I shall be brief, and shall not, I hope, weary you with many dull platitudes on a somewhat trite subject—"School Discipline, and How to Secure it." "School Discipline" has a somewhat forbidding sound to us at a time when we have turned our backs upon the class-room,—when we from the East join hands with those from the West, either for the first time, or to renew the pleasant associations of other years,—and that, too, in the city of Montreal, which has so many features of interest and beauty, and which for some of us calls up many pleasing recollections of former visits. But your committee, when they sent me this subject, sugar-coated the title in a most inviting way: "*Ideal School Discipline.*" My eye became riveted on the first word, and in a moment of weakness I fell an easy victim. For what time is there or what state of mind that that word "*ideal*" does not come to us like the remembrance of a pleasant dream, recalling the fancies of childhood, or perhaps the high aims and resolves that animated us on the first day of begin-

ning our life-work. When at the close of a day's work all the petty trials and discouragements of life seem to have been crowded together in that one day, may we not shut them out and turn again and again to our ideal—our high resolves—and gain strength to endeavor to realize them.

It is in this spirit that I should like to discuss this question—"Ideal School Discipline and How to Secure it." And if I treat it too much from the ideal rather than the practical standpoint, it is because my lot has been cast in pleasant places in this connection, and because I have seen, I hope, many ideals realized.

As the ideal is individual rather than general—and fortunately it is so—I fear that I may not be able satisfactorily to define my subject, and thus, with an unsubstantial base, rear a faulty structure. From the second part of the title as given me,—“How to Secure it,” I infer that I am expected to treat the subject in a restricted rather than a general way, to speak of what constitutes the maintenance of good order, of the proper guidance of the conduct of the pupils, so that in all the exercises of their every-day life the result shall be the happy and harmonious development of the moral, intelligent and physical natures of those committed to our care; and even in this limited sense the subject admits of a wide treatment on account of the many ideals as to what constitutes good discipline, for the methods of discipline are as varied as the instincts of human nature, and they must ever vary to suit individual natures and the circumstances in which we may be placed. The ideal of one teacher may be the quiet school where everything proceeds with the regularity of clock-work, where a whisper or a fall of a book is regarded as a penal offence. Another's ideal may be the busy, noisy school, where the utmost license is allowed, consistent, of course, with the performance on the part of the pupils of the required work. Both of these ideals—extremes we may call them—are faulty. To gain the uniformity of the one would sacrifice the individuality of the child for a dull mechanism; to tolerate the other would be to restrict education to the acquisition of knowledge—a part only of what constitutes a true education. Our ideal school discipline must be that which has its mainspring in the mutual love and respect of teacher and pupil; which assures the industry and attention of pupils by maintaining good order in the school-room and exciting their zeal and a love for knowledge; and which prevents or represses all irregularities of conduct and tends to train resolute will, steadiness of purpose, and characters capable of self-control. This course of discipline not only assures the actual government of the pupils

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while members of the school, but in the broader sense it is a training for the duties of citizenship. It teaches pupils to govern themselves and shape their life-work after they shall have left school. Further, such a discipline, founded upon love, duty, mutual respect, will extend the influence of the school to the entire community, or, as in Rugby under Arnold or Uppingham under Thring, to a whole empire.

The example of the Great Teacher of mankind is ever present to us, animating us when our ideal seems a failure. We look upon that life with its trials, its sufferings, its accomplishment. Every incident in it has its lesson of duty, forbearance, denial of self for the sake of others, —while the exceeding love of this Great Teacher is the lode-stone which must ever attract us if we would gain inspiration and strength to carry out our cherished ideals.

The ideal school discipline then will be that which makes the acquisition of knowledge go hand in hand with the zealous discharge of duty because it is duty; the subduing of all selfish and personal feelings, and making them subordinate to duty; the teaching of habits of industry, self-control, repressing idle and mischievous tendencies, and in their stead calling out higher motives, thus training for the larger world without the school-room. Finally, that love which loses sight of self, and reaching downward and outward lifts up others. One thought in the valedictory of a graduating class a few weeks ago occurs to me—"Surely, there never was a class more closely bound together by sympathy and friendship than ours. Any honor conferred upon one of its members has ever been to one and all a matter of hearty congratulation, and any sorrow falling to the lot of one of our members was the grief of all." I like to see such a sentiment as this in a class going forth from the school.

How to secure Ideal School Discipline: I would group all the means by which we may secure this under two heads: *First*, There must be love and respect between teacher and pupil. *Second*, The pupil must be in sympathy with his environment.

In regard to the first, I have said before that the mainspring of action in a school, the life that enters into all its exercises, whether of work or play, is mutual love and a sympathy of aim. Indeed, if we had these, —a mutual love founded upon mutual respect, a sympathy of aim, with that aim useful, unselfish and inspiring,—we might say that these comprehend everything, and everything else is included in them. And I use the word love in its highest and best acception, that which springs from duty, from respect, from obedience, gently but firmly insisted

upon, from repressing those inclinations of the child that are shown to be wrong and mischievous in their tendency, an insistence at all times on the performance of right because it is right; that love which is a response to a hearty and spontaneous approval, on our part, of work performed, of duty conscientiously fulfilled. Is it not your experience that pupils respond, slowly perhaps, but surely, to these incentives? I remember, a few days ago, on rising to address a meeting of teachers in St. John I saw before me my first school teacher. Her presence was an inspiration to me; for what I remembered chiefly was her generous approval of what was right,—her quiet but marked disapproval of what was wrong.

In this connection let me speak of the importance of drawing inspiration from ideals. These ideals may be those great teachers of the world, and they may be also from our co-workers and associates of every day. The ideal which we must have constantly before us because it includes all others is that of the Great Teacher of mankind. The higher our ideal, the more will it accord with His teaching and practice. The great teachers of the world—the Arnolds and the Thrings—are ideals to us because they have His life and precepts so indelibly stamped on *their* own life and work. But those who have been our own teachers directly, and those who are associated directly with us as co-workers, and to whose devotion we are a daily witness—these, I say, are the ones also who inspire us with zeal and strength and patience when we would falter in our task. They aid us by sympathy and example, and they are our best friends in the time of our greatest need.

And just here I would like to say a good word for friends we have always with us. They are scarcely friends of the ideal stamp—on the contrary, they are very real. These are our defeats and our discouragements. They are most unwelcome guests when they first intrude themselves upon us, and possibly they shatter many an ideal for us. But if our ideal is of the right stamp, these are the friends who help us to realize it. Discouragement comes to us when we do not see at once the full fruition of our hopes, our work. It is a slow process this building up of character and intellect. We expect results too soon, and we are discouraged because we do not see them. What we expect to accomplish in a few days or weeks can only be accomplished after many years or perhaps in a life-time. I am sure we do not realize even a small measure of what we attempt to do,—and so discouragement comes; but that very discouragement is the greater incentive to achieve what we have attempted if our ideal is the true one. And everyone of us as we

recall past experiences knows full well the sweet uses of adversity. And so it is with defeat. Our most cherished and brilliant schemes fail. So crushing is the defeat sometimes, that all our strength, patience, faith are required to rise again and put on a firm front. But how do we know what is in us until we do meet with defeat? How many of us can recall what blessings these twin friends—defeat and discouragement—have been to us, how they have disciplined us and thus helped us to discipline others.

One ideal in school discipline we often fail to realize; and the failure to realize it comes from not putting ourselves often enough in the pupil's place. This ideal seems to regard the pupil as conscious of his own interest and comprehending his duty to work and obey as a matter of course, and because it is, from the teacher's standpoint, *his interest* so to do. But mature men and women are not always capable of thus directing themselves, and we cannot expect children to do it. Some few may be able to do so, because their natural instincts are to be dutiful and yield a ready obedience, which instincts have been supplemented by careful home training. These are always the helpers, directly or indirectly, of the teacher. Happy if he does not consider them the only pupils *who can be trained*. In that case *they* are the real leaders of the schools. The master of the school is only a figure-head. The *teacher* must be the guide and directing power of the school. The body of teachers in the world—and when I speak of teachers I mean teachers in the most comprehensive sense—must be the guides and directors of the world. This is the highest and broadest ideal we can have, and fortunate it will be for the world when the blind guides—the masters, the lesson hearers—shall be made to see, or if hopelessly blind they shall have been eliminated from this great body.

To secure the ideal school discipline the pupil must be in sympathy with his environment. If we ask ourselves what is the object of a school course, a multitude of answers might be given, the substance of which could be summed up briefly in this statement: it is the preparation for the active duties and responsibilities of life, and it is the preparation, too, for the life beyond this. Now, have we the shadow of a doubt that it was the purpose of a good and all-wise Creator that we should extract as much happiness as possible from this world of ours—and it is a beautiful world—while we live in it? And that this happiness that we get from the world should be reflex in its influence,—that it should enrich us and those with whom we are brought in daily contact? And if we grant the truth of this, it will be easy to show that we

should be able to put our pupils in sympathy with their environment. And if we can be the means of securing for the little world that we are called upon daily to guide and direct the fullest and most harmonious development of their moral, physical and intellectual powers, then we shall have accomplished a great good. But that is a very exalted ideal and one very difficult of attainment, even if we had the pupil under our eyes for a much larger proportion of the twenty-four hours than we have. But the more exalted our ideal and the more difficult it is of attainment, the greater will be our elevation if we strive to attain it. Our efforts may be attended with defeat and discouragement, and we may not be permitted to gain even a glimpse of this ideal promised land—that development of body and mind and spirit that I have spoken of. But the unselfish worker must be trained to endure slow and even imperceptible growth. The seed that we plant in the earth, are we responsible for its growth and perfection? No; our duty is to nourish it, to watch and to wait.

Some of the means to place the pupils in sympathy with their environment.—One great means is to make them accustomed to work, and, I was going to say, plenty of it. But there is an impression among us down by the sea, and I think I have heard it whispered in other parts of Canada, that there are too many subjects taught in the schools; that the teacher is a task master, and is laying heavy tasks and grievous to be borne on the boys and girls. No, that is not a fact. There may be some lesson-hearers who are hard task-masters, who are undermining the constitutions and stultifying the intellects of the boys and girls by a system of cram and useless memorizing. But teachers are not doing their work that way. They are teaching their pupils to think and to work; and such tasks are too inspiring to be burdens. When you enter a school and see the impress of thought and earnestness on the faces before you, that is an index of the quality of the work that is being done there. And what a source of inspiration that is, is it not? to make every face before you bear the impress of honest effort of mental activity. Is there any effort to maintain a proper discipline there? No. Was there any effort to secure it at first? Ah, yes, great efforts, efforts that only those twin friends of ours—defeat and discouragement—could help us to maintain and persevere in. That is the kind of discipline that goeth not out except by work and faith. If you have faith that you can do the hardest thing in the world and then set to work to accomplish it, you will remove mountains—of ignorance, disorder, inattention. Now, what is this hardest work? It is teaching the average boy and girl to think—the *average* boy

and girl. Let us not be deceived into imagining we are doing this if we are leading along the half dozen or so of bright pupils who would think if left to themselves, or at least who would think in a mediocre way sufficient to satisfy the schoolmaster. Do not the vacant looks of the majority appeal to us to come over and help *them*? How long shall we resist the appeal? How many teachers are there yet jostling and swaying in the crowds along the plains at the foot of the mountain? It is the first step that costs, and they have not taken that step to climb to the tableland above, across which is moving that orderly procession of thinkers and workers, their thoughts and work keeping pace with their orderly march and preparing them to scale the greater heights beyond. Now, what, I repeat, can we do, not only for the average boy and girl but for those of the lowest capacity,—for the idle, the indifferent, the shirks? Some of them, nay, all of them, perhaps, will do anything except to think, to observe. They will appropriate and repeat the thoughts of others, and they will not have the remotest idea that they are committing petty larceny. They will read for you, or they will stumble along over the printed page; they will work out problems in arithmetic provided they know what the answer is; they will memorize pages of the text-book, but they will not think. The plain at the foot of the mountain is good enough for them, they argue, if it is good enough for the master; and the master says it is good enough for him, for, good easy soul, he sits in his chair, and points complacently to the mountain, and says, "Come, boys, climb."

And yet these dull ones are not dull outside of the school. Whose fault is it that they are dull in school? I was in a school a few weeks ago where a class was being instructed in geometry; there was plenty of time for thought, an interest, a closeness of attention that never flagged for a moment. There were, in general, just conclusions drawn. Where there was a wrong or impotent conclusion, a just one was reached with admirable patience and skill, but it had to be reached by the pupil from previous steps, no matter what time it took. "There is a lad," said the teacher, "who has been in the school a year; he was the personification of dullness, but about two months ago he waked up, he began to think, and he has been thinking ever since." And when I looked at the steady, earnest gaze of the boy, I felt that the light which had been kindled would, under proper direction, never be quenched. What an inspiration the thought gives that we can put a spark into a dull mind and lighten it up for all time. Now, what waked the boy up, what set him a-thinking? are questions that may help the dull pupil, if it sets us to

working out the problem. But it is a problem that we have all worked out, at least I hope we have. But is it not a problem that we have to work afresh every day of our lives? and though we may vary the processes and formulæ in our method of solution, the answer comes out the same every time, and it is this: that dull face must be made to light up, that listless air give place to the eager look, and an honest, attentive pupil must be made to take the place of that shirker away off in the corner seat.

Will love do this? Will work do this? Is that all? Well, yes, they include all. What makes the school? Is it not the teacher, earnest and intelligent, gathering knowledge and experience as he goes, acting upon the school and the school reacting upon him? This action and reaction leading him to excel the effort of yesterday, and making an ideal for tomorrow that will excel the effort of to-day. The pupils of such a school will give their life and enthusiasm to the teacher in return for the best efforts he has given to them.

DISCUSSION.

MR. JOHN MILLAR, of Toronto.—I would open the discussion by stating that a proposition has often been made which is very erroneous with regard to many teachers. They are good teachers but poor disciplinarians. I am inclined to think that there is no proposition that has less truth in it than that. Poor discipline is invariably the result of poor teaching, for the teacher who has the power to interest and instruct in developing his subject should have no difficulty at all in securing and retaining an attentive audience. The difficulties as regards matters of discipline arise from defective teaching, and that is of various kinds. Teaching may be defective because there has not been proper preparation of the work by the teacher himself. It may be defective because there have been lessons too long and too extensive for the students to prepare for the day. It may be defective because there is no logical arrangement of the subject. It may be defective because there is no variety of illustration. It may be defective because there is too great a disposition to dwell upon something, which makes that particular part of the subject too tedious to the pupils. All this concerns good teaching, and all these faults are calculated to develop those characteristics which are exhibited in the manner of defective discipline. If we want to secure good discipline in our schools we must have teachers well trained,—who know something of those pedagogical

principles upon which good teaching depends, and we will find, I think, that so far as special training in discipline is concerned it is a subject that will almost always follow the study of good teaching.

DR. HARPER, of Quebec.—I agree with the former speaker when he states that good teaching must necessarily lead to good discipline. He has pointed out several defects, but I think he has omitted one which will cover all the others, and that is that we have given a little too much of our time to what may be called shop work. We have given too much attention to the subject itself for the sake of the subject and for the facts which will be drawn out in an examination afterwards than we should have done had we looked at the subject on account of what it stands for, without too much attention to detail. Now, I sometimes find when I visit a school while they understand algebraically what $x + a$ means, it is seldom the case that the pupil can tell me what " x " stands for and what " a " stands for. The same thing applies to other subjects. We are teaching geography for the sake of answering a certain number of questions at the end of the course, whereas if we have one idea before us, and can encourage the pupils to understand the same idea that they are learning about things and not about science, we shall have their attention in such a way that no disciplinarian laws will be required. I had the opportunity of pointing out one or two defects in connection with our system in the Province of Quebec. I think we have a system here in Quebec which may be recognized as a model which can be imitated by the other Provinces, and even the United States. We have been able to get our elementary school right to the university, and we have been able to provide stopping places where the pupil can go into this study or that calling on the way. Now, we have not got perfected this scheme by any means, but we have been able to bring the relationship so close that the one presses upon the other. There is, however, a fallacious feeling abroad, that the universities have still too great an influence on the lower and upper schools. As has also been declared by the reader of the paper, there is a feeling in the Lower Provinces to the same effect. When we understand the various limits to this, and can recognize these various stopping places by means of which one boy can take a commercial course and go into a commercial college, and another can perhaps become a blacksmith then no doubt the general public will begin to have faith in our system and we will have very little of that business. An Ontario man lately told me that they had had this feeling there in his Province, and I know that we have had it within the last year or two here; but I think that feeling has pretty well subsided now, for we will be able to present our

case soon, so that we shall not only have the people of the Province of Quebec with us, but we may have the encouragement from the outside Provinces in imitating a system which we have been able to establish.

DR. McCABE, of Ottawa. — I must respond to this call which has been so kindly given; and if there is one feature more than another which strikes me in regard to this paper, it is the high plane on which the speaker has placed the subject. He has removed it from some of these petty questions of corporal punishment, etc., and has placed the question of school-discipline more justly on the basis of work, as pointed out afterwards by Dr. Harper. He has placed it still upon another plane, which I think is a strong one, viz., the mutual respect existing between the teacher and the pupils, and that mutual interest which they take in the work and in the school. I think if we look upon the subject of school discipline from these stand-points—that is, mutual respect and interest in the work of the school—the problem of school discipline will be as easily solved as any other problem with which we are dealing at the present day.

THURSDAY, JULY 7TH, 1892.

Evening Session.

UNIVERSITIES AND UNIVERSITY EXTENSION IN
CANADA.

REV. DR. GRANT, PRINCIPAL QUEEN'S COLLEGE, KINGSTON.

The ideal University is the perfect expression of the highest civilization. Humanity being organized in nations, the actual University is the expression of the higher life of the nation, the storehouse of its thought, and the guide of its youth to still greater achievements. Like the nation, it must be a tree of slow growth. In both cases, the slower the growth, probably the more valuable the tree and its fruit. In the course of two or three years, buildings may be erected, collections brought together and professors engaged. All that is needed to accomplish these ends is a liberal expenditure of money. But unless there is something more, something greater out of which these have grown, you have not a University, any more than the heterogeneous masses swept from various lands to the plains of the Tigris or Euphrates made a nation. Man lives not by bread alone, but by thoughts or ideas: and the higher

the thought the higher the man. A people, no matter how wealthy or numerous, if destitute of an ideal, is only a combination of atoms without a common life and without a future; whereas poor little Judea, possessed by a great idea, a nation in search of the true religion, is imperishable, just as Greece, the mother of Art, and Rome, the mother of Law, are imperishable.

Judged by the text of my definition, there are few great Universities; and it would be absurd to look for one in Canada yet, or indeed anywhere on this Continent, though there are more institutions that take the name in the United States than in all the rest of the world. Bumptiousness in youth is excusable, sometimes amusing, always preferable to the "umbleness" of Uriah Heep; and consequently one reads with pleasure the headings in our newspapers in different cities concerning the doings of what they each delight to call "Canada's greatest University," or "this great University of ours." I never heard this language during seven or eight years spent in the Old World, I may remark; but that is what might be expected. Not long ago, I met a gentleman connected with educational work in Canada, who had just returned from a visit to Europe and he assured me with impressive gravity that there was nothing to be learned there; that he had visited the Normal and Public Schools, the Academies, Colleges and Universities, and that we were ahead of them in everything! I looked at him with secret delight, tinged only with melancholy when I reflected that the law would not allow him to be stuffed, labelled "a perfect specimen of the Owl," and put into a museum for investigation by future generations.

Canada is not yet a nation. We are only trying to become one, and we are not quite clear as to the best road to travel by in order to arrive at the goal. Some advise us to abandon the experiment and take refuge under the wings of the eagle. Others counsel a partnership with the lion and other whelps of the lion. And others think that we should take to the woods. Our Confederacy is only 25 years old; and it is not ten years since we could go from the East to the West of our country by a modern road. Before these recent dates we were separate Provinces, with little in common but an underlying sentiment and with much that was antagonistic; and when we united, Education was authoritatively declared to be of provincial and not of national concernment. Our Universities are thus, historically and according to the Constitution of Canada, merely provincial, save in so far as they may attract professors and students from a wider field by means of denominational affiliations, intrinsic chances, opportunity or hard cash.

But though our past is hardly worth speaking of to others, it is altogether honorable, while the stock we come from gives good ground for hoping that our future shall be of universal interest. Our Universities must be factors of prime importance in preparing for this future. While brag vulgarizes, self-depreciation may mark a lower stage of manhood, and I desire therefore to steer clear of both extremes in taking stock of our University position and indicating what the outlook is and along what lines we should move. This Association is national and not merely provincial. It will be of great service if it tends to free our educational ideals from the blight of sectarianism and the bondage of Provincial red-tape; if it corrects defective standards and leads to a generous emulation; if it inspires us with pride in our common country and gives us the deep conviction that the country is greater than any church or any college; if it teaches us that whosoever strikes a blow for the enfranchisement of the human spirit is our best brother—even though he acknowledge us not, and that he who helps one University is the benefactor of all.

While we cannot boast that we have a great University, we can truthfully say that satisfactory provision has been made for the higher education of our youth in every important section of Canada, and that a comparison of the present with the condition of things fifty years ago fills us with hope. Remarkable progress has been made, especially since the birth of the Dominion, and the progress will be greater according to the development of public and national spirit. In every Province that has a population of over 150,000, there is now at least one University with an honorable record, a good staff of professors, good buildings and an endowment adequate to secure permanency if not extension. Where there is one University so equipped, it is the best pledge that if there are others near it they must rival it in efficiency as well as in pretensions, or sooner or later give up the ghost. In due time, there will be the survival of the one, two or three that are fittest, and therefore the eager advocate for change or the man whose vision is limited by the walls of his own Alma Mater may possess his soul in patience.

In the Maritime Provinces our oldest University is King's, and it might have been the only one there at this day if its authorities had listened to Lord Dalhousie, and, accepting his offer of the Castine fund, thrown open its halls and honors on equal terms to all creeds and classes. They did for nothing soon after what they then refused to do for a great consideration, but it was "too late." Not knowing the time of their visitation, King's has had to see new and vigorous rivals rise up all round it; and one of these—Dalhousie—in virtue of its metropolitan position, the

support of various elements of the population that were formerly divided and the splendid liberality of George Munro, is now, as regards its Faculties of Arts and Law, second to no other Canadian University. This development of Dalhousie, far from injuring, has stimulated the others. King's, Acadia, Antigonish, Sackville, Fredericton—for the Maritime Provinces have as many Universities in proportion to population as the United States—are all doing good work; and as long as that is the case, the existence of different centres is the best form that University extension can take. Extension then is not purchased at the cost of intension. The future may safely be left to the development of secondary education and to the law of survival.

Quebec, with almost double the population of the Maritime Provinces, has only three Universities. Here, too, the dignity and strength of Laval and McGill make it certain that others are not likely to be started elsewhere in the Province, unless by men who have before their eyes object lessons as to the cost. The recent rapid development of McGill, compared with the age of Montreal, shows clearly that Canada feels that she is coming of age intellectually. This city has celebrated its 250th anniversary, but the vigor, if not the life, of McGill begins with the coming to it from my native Province and County of its still vigorous Principal. He knows, and he has recently called attention loudly to, the fact that professional and technical departments, however important, are not sufficient to express the thought or the higher life of a city like Montreal, and that if excessive prominence is given to those adjuncts of a University, the result will be unfavorable to the best culture. I do not mean, by saying this, to depreciate the splendid development of McGill in Applied Science, especially in the departments of Mechanical and Electrical Engineering,—we have nothing like it elsewhere in Canada. And as regards Mechanical Engineering, I do not know of anything better on this Continent. All honor to W. C. McDonald and Professor Bovey for what they are doing. As Canadians we are all proud of them and their work. But let us never forget that neither the High School nor the School of Technology is a University. If the High School should attempt to do the work of the University, and young men proceed directly from it to study Theology, Law, Medicine, Engineering or Applied Science, the effect will be bad for all concerned,—for the University, for the High School, for the study of the special Sciences, for the young man and for the country. The High School does its independent work; but its best work is done when it prepares properly for the institution next to itself in order, and the student who

desires to be educated must not dream of passing from the High School direct to the Professional College. Yet that is done frequently both in the Old Country and here, and there is the greater temptation, the more professional study is magnified and the Arts Faculty belittled. How great a mistake this is from the point of view of what should be the real end in education, culture, and also from the point of view of professional success, need hardly be pointed out. Professor Chrystal, of Edinburgh, has recently testified "that of the few Arts graduates that enter Medicine, a very large proportion are to be found among those that ultimately distinguish themselves by success in their profession." I give the same testimony with regard to Canada. Here, too, "the more haste the less speed."

Ontario has three University centres. Of these, Toronto has the greatest, and there has always been public support sufficient to provide for the University college. This ensured that Colleges elsewhere, if they were to live, must also be properly named. Queen's, I believe, was about the first in Ontario to open University classes, and it is enough to mention March, 1842, as the date, to show how very recent were the stirrings of intellectual life in that Province. As to the staff of Queen's in 1842, Principal Liddell was the Faculty of Theology, and Professor Campbell, subsequently the Principal of Aberdeen University, the Faculty of Arts. A few students had been privately prepared to enter upon Theology, but of the dozen who presented themselves for entrance on the Arts course, the majority were unable to pass the modest matriculation that was required, and "the Faculty" had to give two hours a day during the first session to drill them in the rudiments. This showed clearly that the Province needed secondary education even more than a University. And in due time it got secondary schools, and these have so improved that Ontario is at length prepared to begin University work at something like the proper starting point. What is now needed is a High School curriculum, to harmonize with the University curriculum or the correlation of High School and University work. One would think that the High School Leaving Examination would be the same as University Matriculation; and that, as in Nova Scotia, which seems to be following the example of Germany, there would be a bifurcation of the High School course and two diplomas,—one literary and classical, the other mathematical and scientific, each high enough to allow the holder to enter corresponding sides of the Universities, but neither correlation nor bifurcation have yet been seriously attempted. The greatest praise is due to the people of Ontario for the liberal way in which they are pro-

viding for Secondary Education. Institutes are being erected in towns of from five to ten thousand people, at a cost of \$30,000 and of \$40,000, with excellent libraries and laboratories, and with teaching staff that once would have been considered good enough for a University College. The head master of the High School or Institute is generally styled the Principal, and his assistants are sometimes called Professors, but that title is bestowed so recklessly on this Continent that a High School master may not consider it a compliment. "It is the function of America to vulgarize everything," Lowell once remarked wonderfully, and certainly educational titles have been so vulgarized that a plain man may be excused if he feels reluctant to add them to his name.

Manitoba and the Northwest have only one University, but the teaching is done not by the University but by four denominational colleges. Two of these, the Presbyterian and the Methodist, co-operate, and as all the four are in Winnipeg, their relations to the University may continue for some time, though the elements of permanency are hardly to be found in the present arrangement.

British Columbia is talking of establishing a University, but so far nothing actual has been done.

What may we learn from this rapid sketch of the University position in Canada? Permit me to call attention to five points: 1. That, so far as I know, we have no bogus Universities in Canada, and that if any are started and begin to exercise the degree-conferring power, which unfortunately is so freely granted by legislatures on this continent, every Province has the genuine article, and they are therefore sure to be found out, and—as they say in the House of Commons—"named."

This is no small advantage, because a young man has only one youth; as a rule, that, too, is his only capital, and why should temptations be put in his way to induce him to sacrifice or to make the least out of his capital? We are more fortunate in this respect than our neighbors. Mr. Boyce, when recently visiting the Western States, met an energetic Principal who discoursed eloquently of what his institution was doing and of what "the Faculty" intended to do. He took the liberty of asking concerning the strength of the Faculty, and received an evasive reply in the shape of a glowing prospectus. Pressed, however, for a direct answer, the Principal at last, with most engaging frankness, said, "Well, you see, *at present* the Faculty consists of Mrs. P. and myself, but we have great expectations of an accession to our strength at no distant date." Every year I have proof that this story is, to say the least, "founded on fact." A few months ago I received a letter from a

student of a University in one of the States, who asked on what conditions he could enter Queen's. The composition was suspicious, though not up to the mark of the conversation of some of our teachers who have passed examinations and received certificates. He represented himself as a Canadian, anxious to return to his own country and study for the Ministry. I did not like to tell him what our Matriculation was, as he was already a University student of two years standing, so like a Scotchman I answered his question by asking him how much Latin, Greek and Mathematics he knew. He wrote back as follows: "I passed the entrance to the High School in Ontario some years ago, but finding High School work too hard, I came here, and have since been studying English, Pedagogy, Psychology, and some higher branches. I don't know any Latin or Greek, and no Mathematics except the higher Arithmetic." I do not think that we have anything in Canada that would undertake to compete with that University; but the story suggests how Canada suffers educationally, in Professional and in University education, as it does in other ways, from being so near to the United States. The great Republic has a looser code than other civilized countries as regards educational tests and degrees, the sanctity of marriage, the sanctity of human life, the sanctity of the Sabbath rest, and other matters; but it is only fair to acknowledge that it tries hard to make up for looseness in these things by greater stringency with regard to foreign trade and its own canals. It hates freedom with regard to eggs and such dangerous products as lambs; and as it is characteristic of human nature to hit back when hit, Canada is in a manner forced not only to accept but in a mild way to imitate both the looseness and the restrictions. Do not suppose that I make these references in a hostile or unneighborly spirit. God forbid! We cannot escape from natural contiguity, and we would not if we could. I love our neighbor well; but what is love without reasonable freedom of expression? From whom do we get so much plainness of speech as from our wives?

But, "Oh gath dames, it gars me greet,
To think how many counsels sweet,
How many lengthened sage advises,
The husband frae the wife despices."

2. That the true key to University progress is right Matriculation standards. In this matter, neither the English, Scottish, American nor Canadian Universities have much to boast of. We cannot compare for a moment with Germany, that glorious home of learning, where truth is trusted and where it is sought and loved for its own sake. When I attended Glas-

now University the state of things was deplorable as regards Matriculation as well as in some other respects. The distinguished Professor of Greek, Tushington, of whom Tennyson wrote with equal truth and beauty,

For thou art worthy, full of power,
As gentle; liberal-minded, great,
Consistent, wearing all that weight
Of learning lightly as a flower,

had to spend an hour every day with a junior class that commenced under his guidance with the Greek alphabet. Matters have improved somewhat in Scotland since, though I am not aware that there is a Matriculation examination yet; for as the Professors are paid mainly by fees, and the largest proportion of the fees comes from the junior class, the Professors are not enthusiastically in favor of tests that would take from them half their salary. (Story of the Bishop.) Fortunately, in Canadian Universities, the Professors are paid fixed salaries, and though the salaries are small, the Professors are free from the temptation that besets their Scottish brethren. Our Matriculation examination is, however, not what it should be in any Province, and in some Provinces it is far from being in a satisfactory position. Still, progress is being made.

Clearly, it is impossible to get right Matriculation standards, unless we have good secondary schools, as well as a system that will correlate properly High School and University work. Some phrases tend to make us indifferent to this correlation of forces, and they hide fallacies that are not without danger. When a speaker tells an audience that the High School must be a University in its range, or that it is an embryo University or the poor man's College, and does not guard the statement, I am inclined to think he is the victim of a half-truth, which is the most dangerous form of falsehood. Surely, it is equally true that the Common School is the poor man's College, or that, as Joe Howe used to put it, "the farmer's fireside is the best College," yet it does not follow from the first truth that we can dispense with the High School, nor from the second that we can dispense with the Common School. It is a small spirit that would make the Common School teacher belittle the High School or try to keep his pupils from going to it; and it is equally small for the High School teacher to try and make his own class the be all and end all of Education, and to belittle University work in general, because his own professor ten or twenty years was a dry stick, or he himself a lazy or querulous student. Let us all recognize that we are

engaged in one work and that we need each other, that the work is great, and that it becomes us to bring to it the spirit not of the selfish savage but of the cultivated gentleman.

3. That far from judging Colleges and Universities by the number of their students, the best work is often done where the students are few. In my opinion, we must be prepared for a falling off in the number of students in the Faculty of Arts, as Secondary Education improves, and as new Faculties are formed, the rudiments of which were formerly included under Arts. The best classical work in Oxford is still done in Balliol, which is not one of the largely attended colleges, and the best mathematical work in Cambridge has long been done in Peterhouse, perhaps the smallest of the colleges. The best work in the higher regions of learning, thought, research and discovery is done in the smaller German Universities. The students of these institutions have had a proper preparatory training. They are what we would call honor men or post graduates. Edinburgh University has lately experienced a falling off in the number of its Arts students, but I believe that the cause is partly that better provision is being made in Scotland for Secondary Education, and partly that new sciences and disciplines have arisen, and that these have been grouped into new distinct Faculties, which occupy an intermediate position between the old Faculty of Arts and the Professional Faculties of Theology, Law and Medicine. Thus, too, the number of undergraduates in Arts would be larger in McGill, if the Faculty of Applied Science, with its easier matriculation, had not been formed. But McGill acted wisely in establishing the new Faculty in this great industrial centre. We must not shut our eyes to the needs of a new country and the demands of our own time, and in doing so shelter ourselves under the names of our fathers. Our fathers were wise men, and acted up to their light. Let us imitate not their forms but their spirit. I find that in Kingston and the surrounding counties, our captains of industry are becoming increasingly anxious for a School of Mines and Applied Science generally, and I am quite sure that if the Ontario Government will co-operate with them and establish it, we would have fewer undergraduates in Arts in Queen's, for a time at any rate. When we are asked, how far this specialization would be carried, at what stage it should commence, and to what extent it should receive bonuses or undue encouragement in any way, a thoughtful man must admit that these are serious questions. Clearly, Canada must aim at something higher than to export wheat, lumber, cattle and cheese on a large scale. If the Universities

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will provide no home for learning that is not immediately related to bread and butter, if they are unable to make a stand against the materializing tendencies of the time, we shall be in danger of losing the higher and finer elements of civilization and the best elements of character. There is no sum of money that a nation can accept in exchange for its soul. Let us remember then to weigh as well as to count students, and to weigh them not in the scales of the market-place but of the ideal, in the balances that the good, the beautiful and the true hold in their unerring hands.

4. That we must beware of purchasing so-called University extension at the price of the University. The new movement, if unwisely pushed, may, as President Stanley Hall remarked last year, "leave us without a University worth extending." In my opinion, the proper basis in Canada for this new effort at instructing the people is the High School, aided as far as possible by the University; but until we have in Canada a class of men corresponding to the Fellows of Oxford and Cambridge, the Universities can do little. During the seven months session, at any rate, the Professors are fully worked, and they cannot do justice to their own classes and at the same time to different sets of classes in a dozen towns in the neighborhood. I sympathize with every honest effort to instruct and liberalize men, and am always willing to give my little contribution to it, but I sympathize also with what Professor Chrystal said not long ago in Edinburgh. Here it is:—

UNIVERSITY EXTENSION.

"There has been a great deal of University extension, but very little University intension, in this country of late. It is an excellent thing to interest the population of London, for example, by giving popular lectures on various branches of University culture, and by organizing excursions to Oxford and Cambridge to hear a young University don or two give half a dozen lectures on some tolerably digestible University subject; to take a walk along the banks of Isis or Cam, to see where Eiasmus lived and Newton worked, and where their degenerate successors live and dine (laughter and applause); but, as the advocates of a teaching University for London very pertinently insisted lately, all this does nothing for the higher learning in London or elsewhere. Possibly one or two may be led to take a real University course in this way, but nothing is done to send up to the Universities a supply of young men really fitted to receive the higher culture. All the fuss and restless activity of these movements is, to my mind, a morbid symptom. Much of the energy that is turned

loose in these schemes ought to be concentrated upon higher objects. It would be amusing, if it were not so sad, to hear the magniloquent title of "University Extension Course" applied to six lectures, followed by the indispensable examination to give an air of seriousness to the little plaything. I have no quarrel, however, with University extension, although I cannot regard it with the gravity of some of its promoters. It can do no harm. I merely mention it to emphasize by contrast the idea of the functions of a University as it presents itself to those who aim at doing something more than playing with the higher education of the country."

Great as the difficulty is in the way of this movement in every Province in Canada, the difficulty is greatest in this Province, and yet it is here that the most systematic and combined effort on the part of the Universities has been made to accomplish something practical. All honor to them for this. If they succeed, we shall imitate them. If they fail, we shall honor them for giving the experiment a fair trial. In this as in other matters I look to this grand old Province to set the Dominion an example. The fact that Canada is bilingual is the greatest obstacle to its unification, but what is the glory of man found in so much as in overcoming obstacles? If ever this obstacle is to be overcome, Quebec must show us the way. It can be done if only the leaders of the people accept their government and do their duty like men. Every child whose parents destine him for a University course should be taught from infancy to speak French and English with equal fluency. Yes, more, in every Common School of this Province, French and English should be taught. This may be a high aim, but it could be accomplished; and a population so instructed would in time lead the whole Continent. A man master of two languages is better educated than a man who knows only one; and in our age of the world it is Education that tells. The duty to which I have referred is incumbent on all Canadians. May I not say without giving offence, that it is doubly incumbent on our French-speaking fellow-countrymen? English is the language of this Continent, the language of trade, commerce and industry over the world. It would be as wise to contend with Niagara as to contend with that fact, and I for one, would rather cut off my own hand or pluck out my own eye than send any one who looked to me for guidance out into the stern conflict of modern life, unable to speak the language of fifty-nine out of the sixty with whom he is obliged to compete, and isolated from whom he must be content to remain all his life a mere hewer of wood and drawer of water. That our French-speaking brothers may unite with us in forming

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a great Canadian nation, to which they shall contribute their matchless grace and refinement, as well as the industry, economy and simplicity of life that are the noble characteristics of the peasantry. I wish to see their steps turned to the North-West, instead of to the factories of New England, where they must engage in labor more destructive to health than were the brickfields of old Egypt. The men that have redeemed the worst lands of the Eastern Townships and Eastern Ontario and of the Ottawa Valley deserve to be guided to the fertile plains of the Saskatchewan. Oh! for some great Father Labelle to arise and guide them!

That the time has come for convening a Canadian grand Council, whose business shall be to consider fully, discuss freely our chief Educational tendencies, difficulties and problems, and draw up either unanimous recommendations or majority and minority reports on those that are most pressing; for example, on text-books, the High School curriculum, the training of teachers, the correlation of our Educational forces, the strength and weakness and the actual deficiencies of our Universities, and the lines along which advance may most profitably be made. It may be said that this Association is such a Council. It is not. It is neither a Parliament nor a Council. It is partly a picnic and partly a volunteer movement of much significance and much value, but we have no time to discuss fully, still less to draw up reports on any subject. Dr. Mackay, for instance, read yesterday an excellent paper on the High School Course; but he frankly told us that he was seeking for light rather than speaking dogmatically, and what light could be given him in off-hand five minute speeches?

My idea is that such a Council should consist, say of the eight Ministers or Superintendents of Education in Canada, 16 representatives of the 16 Universities, half a dozen literary and scientific men elected by the Royal Society, and ten or a dozen laymen. I shall call them for lack of a better name; this last section of the Council to represent common sense, lest that quality should not be found in the other sections, and to represent also that valuable class in the community commonly known as "cranks." As specimens of this section, I would take the liberty of mentioning as illustrative names, Mr. William Houston and Dr. Goldwin Smith. I leave it to their friends to tell them which wing of the section they would represent. To my mind the one wing would be as valuable as the other. Now, let Parliament or some wise man set apart \$10,000, to give an honoraria of \$250 each to these Councillors, for in this busy country we cannot afford to work for nothing and find ourselves in board and travelling expenses for more than two or three days. Let them meet in

Muskoka, or the lower St. Lawrence, and spend a month in conference, no man to draw his indemnity who does not attend faithfully. I venture to say that the volume of reports that would be given to Canada by such a body would be a treasure-house, from which every teacher present and public men would draw for many a long day. We are crying for light, we are practical men, too, and we desire light suited to our day and our country. We ask not for the nostrums of this or that individual but for the sober second thought of our best men, after they have heard all that is worth hearing on the subject on which they are to write.

Fellow-teachers and compatriots, something along this line I would like to see attempted, for this is a strenuous age and the race is not to those who are content to drift. Besides, we are living in the critical time of Canada, and, loving our country wisely, we desire to see its brain and heart organized and directed well.

Let Burns teach us a parting lesson to-night. He writes how, as a lad in the harvest field, he could not bear to cut down the thistle, because it was the symbol of Scotland. To him it stood for the long, glorious past; for the ruins of Iona and the ashes of kings and saints underneath; for the dauntless patriotism of Wallace, the untiring valor of Bruce; for the heart of the Douglas, the conscience of Knox and Melville, the brain of Adam Smith and Watt, the songs of Allan Ramsey and Cunningham, and many a nameless bard; for the piety of Rutherford and the more subduing piety of a father and mother whose memories he has enshrined for ever in "The Cotter's Saturday Night." And so, he writes to his friend:

"A wish I had, I felt its power,
A wish that to my latest hour,
Shall strongly move my breast:
That I, for poor auld Scotland's sake,
Some useful plan or bard might wake,
Or sing a sang at last.

The rough burr thistle spreading wide
Among the bearded bear—
I turned my weeding clips aside—
And spared the symbol dear."

O true heart! O true tender! No wonder that Scotland keeps and shall ever keep thee close to her own great heart.

Have not we, Canadians, symbols, too? Is not the Union Jack a symbol of the highest thought that ever descended from heaven to earth: inflexible righteousness blossoming into infinite love; the Cross of St. George, the Cross of St. Andrew, the Cross of St. Patrick, all three bound into one by wreaths of lilies and the maple leaf?

PROF. WESLEY MILLS, speaking of the exhibition of Calisthenic exercises by Miss Barnjum's pupils, said: "These exercises speak for themselves. I am therefore not at all surprised that so large a proportion of the audience are satisfied with what they have seen. I do not know exactly what my appointed task was in reference to this part of the programme, but I suppose I was expected to explain the meaning of all this. Well, first of all, I am not at all sure whether this large audience this evening is due most to the attraction of the Rev. Principal Grant's eloquence, or to the bewitching effect which is the result of these exercises we have just witnessed. I am inclined to think, however, it is due to both. I think there is one effect in these exercises which is so much in consonance with the spirit of our age, viz., the beautiful, that I think our age must be said to be characterized by an advance in the aesthetic more than in any other direction. Now, even in the country parts, those of us who can remember what the country school was twenty or twenty-five years ago can note the very great difference at the present day, even in the direction of the beautiful; but I would like to say a word to-night in regard to these exercises from a teacher's standpoint and in reference to the country school. Now, I think it will be asserted,—and I am quite certain of that from my knowledge of the rural population,—that these exercises are out of place in a country school, because the children have plenty of exercise, in the ordinary sense of the word, coming and going from school. Well, perhaps the idea is not altogether to give exercise; perhaps it is more that which was present to the mind of the old Greek, viz., a study of a mode of harmonious development which from that time to this we have in some measure been seeking after. Now, in all the sections the teachers have heard a good deal about the training and development of the different parts of the body. Well, I think that the main object in these exercises is to assist in that development, and therefore, although it might be proper for me as a teacher of physiology to speak of the physical aspects of these exercises, as I have to address principally teachers and parents this evening,—not physicians or physiologists,—allow me to exclude from my remarks all utterances of a purely scientific character. A very good test of a good teacher indeed is, in my opinion, that he is able to bring on the dull pupils. Almost anybody we know can bring on the clever child, but commend me to the teacher who can bring on the dull one. I think such a teacher exhibits the highest art. Now, these exercises exemplify this particular test, for as the teacher of mental attainments is ever aiming to strengthen

the mental capacities of his pupils, so the teacher of these exercises is aiming to improve those physical parts which require development, and which cannot receive it except in some such methodical manner as this. Now, I would like to see this feature introduced into our country schools, for there it is just as much required as in the city. You know, of course, that man cannot live by bread alone, and even in the country the average pupil requires some attractions the same as in the city. It is the desire for change that induces the country boy or girl to leave the rural districts and seek the town; but if you can make the country sufficiently attractive he will probably stay there. Now, if you begin in the country by introducing whatever is aesthetic and attractive in this way, you will take one step towards retaining your pupils, and I maintain that this is one of the great problems of our age. That these exercises will come into all our schools at some time or other I have no doubt, but there is a lot of hard work to be done with new ideas before you can get them into the majority of heads. In this particular case for a great many years there was one man working alone in this city possessed of ideas and a noble will, who carried out those ideas through good and through evil report, and his influence is shown on the youth of Montreal to-day. This gentleman, the late Mr. Barnjum, has left the impress of his personality on this city, and it will sooner or later be impressed on this country. The ideas which he had and held very much alone are becoming the ideas of the age, and it is no small honor to Montreal that she harbored such a man, and that she still harbors his successor in the person of his sister. To his sister and the efforts she has put forward to keep up the ideas of her brother is due the magnificent entertainment we have witnessed to-night, and I have no doubt whatever that the time is not far distant when such exercises as these will be introduced in every school in the country, and when parents and teachers alike will see the advantages to be gained by their insisting that the children who attend our schools shall be educated in this direction as well as in others. I will take this opportunity of thanking Miss Barnjum for the splendid exhibition with which she has gratified us to-night."

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FOURTH DAY.

FRIDAY, 8TH JULY, 1892.*Morning Session.*

REV. ABBÉ VERREAU, Principal of Jacques Cartier Normal School, then gave an address in French entitled: "Aperçu historique de l'enseignement en Canada depuis le commencement jusqu'à présent." He said that in North America education commenced with colonization. Boston and Quebec were the first beacons from which the rays of education spread over all parts of the colonies. The history of classical education in the Province of Quebec is well known, and many documents are easily found bearing on the subject. Such, however, is not the case with elementary education; many people, even among the learned, being under the impression that it was entirely neglected under French domination. A Canadian writer has even affirmed it, but the contrary is the truth. At that early time no doubt the clergy had it under their control, but the different governors gave it their attention, and it was thanks to their efforts that the first Normal School was established at a time when in Europe they gave but very little attention to such ideas. The public schools were opened regularly in 1634 in Quebec. The French had reached there in 1632. These schools, which were at first situated in the Jesuits College, continued until the conquest in 1759. At Three Rivers there were schools previous to 1664. In Montreal, as soon as there were two children able to attend classes, Sister Bourgeoys gave them tuition. In 1664 a priest of the Seminary of Montreal gave a part of his fortune to establish a school for boys. This school lasted with varying fortunes until 1837. At the end of the last century 300 children attended this school. In the country districts, schools were established as soon as the population became numerous enough. Then it was difficult to group the children, as the houses were scattered through the forests. In 1684 in the whole of Canada there were only 1990 houses, including the cities, with 5000 children, an average of $2\frac{1}{2}$ per house. In 1721 we find 4000 families and 8000 children between Kamouraska and Chateauguay, the two then extreme limits of the country. At that time there were schools outside the cities at Lachine, Boucherville, St Ours, Champlain, Batiscan, Beauport, Island of Orleans, etc. Previous to this time, the institution went along pretty much like the missionary from house to house and from parish to parish, staying over winter in the village. The teachers were scarce; they had to be sent from France,

as in fact the whole personnel of the administration. From 1685 Denonville and the Bishop of St. Vallière wrote to the Minister to have teachers sent out. In 1707 the Intendant Randot forwarded a similar request. To Vaudreuil is due the greatest energy displayed in this work. He had the satisfaction before dying to see a certain number of school teachers arrive in the country. The King had also granted a donation to the Hôpital Charron, at Montreal, to prepare eight teachers every year. This number was certainly sufficient for the times. The great obstacle to the diffusion of learning was not the distance between the houses and the small number of teachers, but rather the social organization, and the condition in which the colonist was then placed of having to take up arms almost at any moment. Canada was a military colony. The leading colonists had themselves served under Turenne and other great French captains. The first thing they inculcated in the minds of their children was the love of fire-arms. Often the child had to act as a man and take up arms at an early age, as Bienville at 12 and Iberville at 14. The speaker concluded his remarks by referring to the progress which had been made since the early settling of Canada, and expressed the hope that the great advance in knowledge and instruction which had been made since then would be continued and increased, so that the people of this country might take their places as one of the best educated nations on the face of the globe.

A letter was then read by Senor Ricardo de la Cueva, conveying the greetings of the President of the Spanish Educational Association to the Dominion Educational Association, and an invitation to the Association to be present at their next meeting, and on motion of Mr. Carlyle, seconded by Dr. Robins, Senor Ricardo de la Cueva was elected a delegate to represent the Association at the next meeting of the Spanish Association, to be held in Madrid, some time in October, 1892.

THE EDUCATION OF JUVENILE OFFENDERS

BY

DONALD J. MCKINNON, PRINCIPAL OF VICTORIA INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL,
TORONTO.

In treating the subject assigned to me, Mr. President, I shall not attempt to discuss it broadly,—to speak of what might be or should be done to save neglected children from crime to usefulness, but rather to briefly outline what has been done and what is being done for so-called

incorrigible boys in the first Canadian school of its kind,—the Victoria Industrial School at Mimico, a suburb of Toronto. This school has been in operation for five years, it owes its existence chiefly to the exertions of Mr. H. Howland, ex-Mayor of the city of Toronto, and Mr. Beverley Jones, the newsboys friend who, with the assistance of the Minister of Education for Ontario and of the Public School Inspector of the city, succeeded in obtaining the legislation necessary for its establishment. The money needed for the erection of suitable buildings was given by the province, by the city and by private contributors in about equal proportions. The cost of maintenance of pupils is defrayed by a fee of two dollars a week paid by the parents if able, otherwise by the city, town or county in which the pupil has last resided for one year, with the addition of \$3,500 yearly granted by the Ontario Government, and \$2,500 by the Public School Board of Toronto.

The control of the school, including the appointment of officers and the reception and discharge of pupils, is in the hands of the Board of Management composed of representatives from the Industrial School Association, the P. S. Board, and the City Council, Mr. Howland the Chairman and Mr. Jones the Hon. Treasurer being the chief executive officers.

Mr. W. H. Hendry was the first Superintendent, and the school is still conducted largely upon the lines laid down by him during the eighteen months that he remained its head. I had the honor to succeed him in October, 1888, when the number of pupils had reached fifty-four, and was last month succeeded in turn by Mr. Thos. Hassard, an experienced teacher who had been with us for some eighteen months. The number of pupils now in residence is one hundred and fifty-four, all between the age of nine and sixteen, and accommodation is being provided for another fifty, so that before the end of this year we may expect to see two hundred boys on the roll.

Now let me briefly talk of our boys, what we are trying to do for them, how we are doing it, and the results as far as they can be estimated. Who are the boys that fill our school? Some are orphans, nursed by cold charity in homes that are not their own till old enough to be sent to us. Some are motherless boys who have been left to the care of their father's hâreling housekeepers—women who think their duty done when they have given the children food and clothing—everything but love. Some have been ruined by harsh, unfeeling fathers, but many more are "mamma's pets," the sons of women who can't say "No," and practically train their boys to believe like

Belshazzar, that the wide earth was made for them and man born for their use. But more than all others are the children of sheer good-natured, selfish neglect; children of respectable men and women who do their duty fairly well to everyone but their own; who laugh at the boys' childish rage and call it "spunk," who laugh at his lying and petty pilfering and call it "sowing wild oats," without even a thought of the harvest. And so it goes till the boy can defy his father and strike or kick his mother, and then he is given to us. But with all their evil training our boys are not bad boys; they are simply good boys spoiled. They all have their fair share of "original sin;" some have more, and a few, a very few, are physically, mentally and morally incapable of conversion into really useful citizens. I say very few, because though too many of them are the sons of vicious parents, I believe that there is much more hope for a bad man's son (not the descendant of evil generations) well trained than for a good man's son ill trained. It is true that all our boys have been committed by a judge or magistrate, and that most of them have been known to steal, but they are by no means therefore thieves. To call a boy a thief because he has stolen is much more logical than charitable. Every boy is born a communist. He believes by instinct in the fatherhood of God and the brotherhood of man, and by instinct also he believes that all is his he can reach. Only by good training can the child be brought to understand it wrong to consider "all things common," and of good training most of our boys have none until they come here. Time would fail me to tell the good and evil that is in our boys, but I shall sum it all up and command your sympathy for them and for our work by saying that they are just what your boys and mine might have been—just what we ourselves would have been had we been trained in the same school,—no better and no worse.

Our aim, then, is simply to give those boys "fair play;" to undo in so far as may be the wrong that has been done them, so that they may have a fair start in the world, and may become useful citizens instead of vagabonds on the face of the earth. This is our purpose and our reason of being; and for the accomplishment of this our purpose we endeavor to train the boy in the habits of obedience, of self-respect and self-government, of industry and application, manual and mental, and to bring to bear upon his heart the two greatest moral forces in the universe,—the love towards him of God his Father in Heaven and of man his brother on earth. We do not fence in the forbidden fruit, but we attach a penalty to the plucking of it; we trust our boys to even do wrong if they choose.

The first lesson a boy learns with us is to obey the stern, peremptory prohibition, "Thou shalt not," and the no less positive command, "Thou shalt," which must both go before to prepare the way for the tender "Henceforth I call you not servants but friends." First the law, then the gospel; first obedience, then love. But obedience should be made as easy as possible, and nothing helps like military drill. The untrained Arab, whose self-will has been his only law, hears the sharp definite word, "March," and his foot rises with the others of his company; "Halt," and he stops on the instant. He learns to obey without knowing it; the action often repeated becomes habit, and the habit influences the character. Having learned to obey in company, he finds it easy to obey alone. Having been trained to obey another he must learn to obey himself, his own better nature. A child may be and should be governed; but a man, a free-born citizen, should govern himself. To teach a boy self-control is in most cases to make a man of him, for weakness rather than wickedness is generally the foundation of a useless or vicious life. There is little merit in following the right path unless a wrong one lies open. To teach a boy to swim, you must give him water; to teach him self-control, you must give him liberty. Hence our prohibitions are generally moral rather than physical. Let me illustrate. Running away from school is forbidden; but there is no wall, no night guards, no grated windows. Every boy knows that he can go any day or night of the year if he chooses to risk the consequences when brought back. It is better to have ninety-and-nine free boys in the fold to seek and to find than to have one hundred prisoners safe behind stone walls. Another illustration of the same principle: Last year sixty-four flower-beds were given to our large boys. The spring and early summer were very dry. Thirty boys patiently watered their beds and brought them through the drought; the owners of the other twenty-nine being left to the freedom of their own will chose to neglect their plots. To ignorant on-lookers our garden would have appeared much better had we compelled each boy to water his own plot, but to us who knew, and to the boys themselves, there was more beauty in one flower of freedom than in a whole Eden of forced labor. Allow me to give you one more illustration: Towards the end of last August the Tailor Instructor went away on his vacation and left his boys in charge of one of themselves. With the exception of a visit or two from the Superintendent, not averaging ten daily, the boys were left entirely alone in the work-room, for seven working days, and during that time made eighteen pairs of pants,—four pairs more than they had made the previous seven days, when their in-

structor was with them, and made them as well. What cannot be done for boys by a man or woman who trust them and whom they trust?

Indispensable to self-government is self-judgment. The street boy's sense of justice, of fair play, or what he calls square, is generally well developed when he comes to us, but he is little accustomed to measuring his own actions by his own standard. This faculty must be educated. When two boys bring a quarrel before the superintendent he generally endeavors to make each see the other's right and his own wrong, and to agree upon what the lawyers call a "judgment by consent." When a boy is reported for wrong doing he is often allowed to judge his own offence and pronounce his own sentence. He is generally very lenient with himself for a first offence, but it is really wonderful how often a boy will say:—"I think I deserve a whipping." And when they are punished justly they bear no grudge. I have never known a boy punished one day refuse me a smile the next.

If there is one thing that a street boy lacks it is the habit of application. He may be honest; he may be truthful; he may be generous and open-hearted, but he is never industrious. Regular habits are unknown to him. This must be remedied, for idleness is the parent of vice. We give every boy something to do. The little fellows go to the cottage and learn to sweep and to dust, to darn, to mend, and to knit. Others work at cooking, baking, washing and ironing, tailoring, shoe-making, carpentering and farming. Every boy works four and one half hours daily. We do not pretend to teach any trade thoroughly, but only to handle tools with care and with some facility. Not what is done, but how it is done, is our standard of excellence.

As most of the boys sent to us have been persistent truants, it cannot be expected that they should be as well advanced in their studies as boys of equal age in other schools. Nevertheless, in penmanship, in map drawing, in letter writing, the simple rules of arithmetic, especially addition, and in the general neatness of the work done, our boys need not fear the result of comparison. So far as discipline is concerned, I have never before seen a school in which better order is maintained with less effort. It speaks well for the manliness of our boys that they should be so willingly obedient to ladies.

We have heard the old adage about "all work and no play," and we believe in its truth. On the play-ground the boys learn to respect each other's rights, to control their tongues and their tempers, to pull together in their games. Every summer we play match games with the baseball and lacrosse clubs of other schools, and we seldom come out second.

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Then every cottage has its reading room, where, of a winter's evening, the boys read, talk, play quiet games and enjoy themselves generally. The happy hours spent on the play-ground, in the cottage, or on the lake shore, are pleasant memories when the boys leave, and tend to endear old places to them and to strengthen its influence over them for all time.

Religious teaching is a very important feature of our work. The boys have family worship,—Scripture reading, singing and prayer—every morning, and what may be termed a "Bible reading" or exposition of Scripture, chiefly by references to corresponding passages, with the singing of several hymns in the evening. They appear to be attentive and keenly interested in these exercises, and though they, like older people, may often forget to be "doers of the Word and not hearers only," I believe that nearly every one of them acknowledges in his own heart the authority of that Word, and has a sincere, though sometimes all too weak, desire to serve his God and to "love Him because He first loved us."

Our boys are mothered and sistered, which means softened, purified and ennobled as could be by no other human agency. You may give boys military drill till they are as prompt and exact and as definite in every movement as was "Grandfather's Clock," and as thoroughly wooden; but to make of them manly men, you must work with the heart on the heart, from the heart outwards to the conduct; and no other power on earth can reach a boy's heart so quickly, work in it so effectively and hold it so long, as can the sweet, quiet influence of

"A woman's hand and a woman's heart,
And a woman's wonderful love."

Not a father, not a mother, but a father and a mother are God's chosen instruments for a child's up-bringing; and I believe that if we have at all prospered in our work, it has been in such measure as we have been able to follow out the family plan of the All-Wise.

We are as yet too young to be able to speak with any great certainty of what has been accomplished. Last winter, however, I prepared for the Board of Management a report, giving my estimate of 114 boys who had left the school during the three years previous, and I classed them as follows:—

Good, beyond reasonable doubt.....	52
Fair,—will probably turn out well.....	27
Middling,—probably bad.....	17

Bad.....	13
Lost sight of.....	5

	114

I asked my successor, Mr. Hassard, for his independent judgment as to those whom he knew personally, and it exactly coincided with my own, except that in three cases he classed the boy one grade higher and in two cases one grade lower. I think that we may safely reckon that two out of three will turn out good, law-abiding and industrious citizens. Will they ever be worth what they cost? First, tell me what a saved life is worth. Such generous, open-hearted, plucky, tricky, out-and-out boyish boys you could not know without loving, and love asks no such questions. But what of the hundreds of fine fellows who have gone down to destruction within the past five years because we had no room for them? They are gone. It is "too late" for them now, and all we can do is to leave what is behind and press forward. What of all the others, in Toronto, in Montreal, in Canada, who are still with us and may be saved? Is any system of education truly national that confesses itself powerless to take hold of the spoiled boys of the country and train them to usefulness? I leave the question, Mr. President, with this Association to discuss and to answer.

PSYCHOLOGY IN ITS RELATION TO THE ART OF TEACHING.

BY JAMES SETH, M.A., DALHOUSIE COLLEGE, HALIFAX.

The present tendency to reduce everything to science is felt in education as elsewhere. Empiricism is condemned. Education is represented as an art founded upon a corresponding science. Chairs of the Theory of Education or Pedagogics have been established in the Universities, and Normal Schools have been organized for the application of such scientific theory to practice. The scientific basis of education is psychology, as that of medicine is physiology. We have to investigate the relation of the science of psychology to the art of teaching.

A glance at the end or aim of education will help us to answer this question. This may be described as culture or training of faculty. Education does not create, it only develops, faculty. It ought, therefore, to be, not an artificial process, but a natural growth. The teacher must assist nature, not force her; he must "follow nature." Education consists in

taking advantage of what we observe in nature, and developing it. The child is like an organism, its mental like its physical growth is by assimilation, and its mental like its physical nourishment must be adapted to its stage of development, both in respect to quality and quantity. The teacher acts from without upon the mind of the child, but education is found in the reaction of the child's mind upon the influences brought to bear upon it, in the response which it makes to these influences. In order to cause the mind of the pupil to thus react, the teacher must put himself in the pupil's place, and look at things from the pupil's point of view. He must first stoop to the pupil's level, if he would raise him finally to his own.

In order to assist nature we must first "interrogate" her; here, as elsewhere, "knowledge is power." We gain control over nature by patiently winning her secret from her; and since "nature" here is human nature, or the mind of man, it has been truly said that the "best meaning we nowadays find for the rule "Follow nature," is Study psychology." We must find out what the nature of man is and how it develops, what are the laws of that nature and the principles of its growth, if we would assist in its natural development.

The scientific ideal is system; always founded on experience, always fundamentally inductive, science seeks to become more and more deductive. Even the older teachers "followed nature" in a sense; they studied the individual child, and formed rough generalizations about the best ways and means of its education. But they had little, if any, notion of science or system. They had their "wise saws and modern instances," but hardly more. Side by side with practice, however, there has always run the reflection or theory, not only of the ordinary teacher but also of the philosophical thinker, until now, largely through the rapid growth of psychology, the science of education has itself become part of a liberal education and a necessary part of the professional training of the teacher.

The danger now is that we overdo system. The rigidity of system compares unfavorably with the elasticity of individual initiation. There is a strong tendency at present to centralization and organization. An attempt is sometimes made, as Prof. Gildersleeve said a few years ago, "to crush all individuality of development into a homogeneous centralization." "In a few years," he continues, speaking of the United States, "the Minister of Public Instruction will send out his sergeants to drill the free citizens of this Republic into the passive tools of a great central power." As against such a tendency, we must assert the paramount

importance of the individual in education. The abstractness of science must be corrected by the concreteness of reality. Life is always richer and fuller than our theory of it, and if we act by theory entirely, we are not simply pedants, but we necessarily fall short, and fail, as our theory falls short of the actual. As Aristotle said, some sciences, by reason of their subject-matter, must remain inexact. Perhaps psychology is one of the inexact sciences. Its subject-matter is always the individual. The "personal equation" which the physical sciences can practically eliminate is inevitable in psychology. The teacher, at any rate, has to do with the individual; with all his "science" he must patiently, and even empirically, follow nature." For, in the last analysis, education is of the individual, and in each individual there is something original and unique. He alone is a good teacher who has eyes to discover this original and unique individuality in the pupil.

While science is general, art is always particular. Teaching is an art; and the discovery of the general in the particular, which is the secret of all art, the tact or "happy thought," the skill, the inventiveness, the ingenuity of art—these are needed in education. Without giving up the scientific basis, we must insist on the need of these qualities in the teacher. "Pedagogy, as a science, would be a good staff and a bad crutch."

Indirectly, it should be noted, the study of psychology has a special value for the teacher, in developing his powers of introspection. It is only as we have insight into, or know ourselves, that we can interpret the life of others. For the teacher especially the Socratic maxim holds good, "Know thyself."

We may perhaps sum up our answer to the question raised at the outset as follows: The art of teaching is an instinct that comes of experience, a habit begotten of long and skillful practice. For the teacher, as for the physician, science is in the background of the mind, in the region of the unconscious or sub-conscious. His science has become a part of himself, a kind of organized instinct, leaving to him the power of spontaneous and free initiation in his work. The true "system" of education is built up, gradually and in a large measure unconsciously, out of experience. It cannot be formulated adequately, or finally, at any given time; it cannot be stereotyped; it is a growth and experience and grows with its growth. Yet theory foreshadows practice; it is not only the result but the precursor of practice; and in so far as we can theorize our practice, the latter is the more enlightened, and therefore likely to be the more successful.

The service of psychology to education is twofold :—First, it instructs us as to the end or ideal of education ; secondly, it instructs us as to the means of attaining this ideal. *First*, as regards the educational ideal, the lesson of psychology is twofold : (1) It teaches that the ideal is the culture of the whole man, intellectual, æsthetic and ethical. We must “send the whole boy to school,” not a third of him, his head only, but his heart and his hands as well. Intellect, feeling and will must be alike developed ; a complete and symmetrical manhood is the end of the true education.

Too exclusive attention has been given to the intellectual aspect of education. As the people of the Renaissance made learning or scholarship the chief end of education, we are apt to make science everything ; and now, as then, we have to admit that “knowledge comes, but wisdom lingers.” Knowledge is not everything, the teacher’s function includes the whole nature. The pupil must be trained not merely to *think* truly but to *feel* truly. The world and human life are full of appeals to this side of our nature, and he whose soul is not touched to some response to these appeals misses unspeakably much of the deepest meanings of life. I believe that educationalists have generally ignored too much this side of the child-nature. It is a truism to say that the young mind is plastic, easily susceptible of impressions, but the bearing of this has generally been limited to the intellectual and the moral nature. It is as true of the æsthetic powers ; early impressions of beauty are as lasting as early impressions of truth and goodness. It was a true instinct that led the Greeks to call the chief part of their education “Music.” (This meant for them literature and art in general.) As Plato says, the soul that has grown up in an atmosphere of grace and beauty, drinking in unconsciously graceful and beautiful forms, will itself become beautiful and graceful, and in later life will recognize the meaning of the lessons it has learned unconsciously in those early years. We must develop and refine the æsthetic feelings opening up to the child the pleasures of imagination, the ideal pleasures, and thus developing its manhood and providing it for the future with a continual resource from the hard, prosaic, disappointing realities of its life. But especially we must develop and refine the moral and religious sentiments or susceptibilities ; we must foster reverence for the Good, as well as curiosity for the True, and admiration for the Beautiful. Let “more of reverence in us dwell,” reverence for the finite human goodness which we see around us, and above all for the Infinite Goodness itself of which all human worth is but the prophesy and hint.

But the great end of education is to fit the pupil for life, to train him to take his place and do his work in the world as truly and effectively as may be. Thought and feeling realize themselves in action, and therefore the grand education is that of the will or moral personality. If the Greeks asserted the importance of educating feeling, the public schools of England have emphasized the importance of training moral character. And since the good man is also the good citizen, a true and full-rounded education will be political as well as moral. Boys who are to be citizens of a free country, fit to take a worthy part in the conduct of its affairs, should have some conception of the meaning of political life, of the nature of the State, and of the duties of good citizens. Here is a sufficiently practical side of education.

The school-boy in Canada, as well as elsewhere, may well pray: "Grant, O Lord, that the knowledge I get may be the knowledge that is worth getting." Knowledge indeed, in the strict sense, is, I have sought to show, only a part of the educational ideal which embraces feeling and action too. Perhaps a better word by which to describe such a comprehensive ideal, better than "knowledge," better or less misleading even than "culture," would be "wisdom," in the sense in which the ancient Greeks and Hebrews used that word,—a sense in which it is at once theoretical and practical, and means the ability to take the right attitude, not only in the life of the thought, but also in life of feeling and of action. Whatever makes for this "wisdom of life" ought to have a place in our educational system, and nothing should have a place there which is not regarded as a means towards this great end.

(2) Since the deepest thing in man's nature, that principle in him which contains the key to his entire nature, is will or moral personality, psychology teaches that true education is always ethical or the education of will. For will is not merely one element out of three; it is the constant and all-comprehensive element or factor in human nature, and therefore in human education. You cannot educate the intellect without educating the will. We must distinguish with Professor Laurie between "instruction" or "information" and "discipline." The former is only the matter or content of knowledge, the latter is its form; and "discipline" is as much more important than "instruction," as form is more important than matter. Now, since intellectual, like moral, discipline is an education of will, knowing is really willing. The teacher stimulates the will of the pupil, but the reaction of that will is the real beginning of the educational process. The true method of education is still that of Socrates, who never "taught," but only "asked questions," and forced his pupils to think out the answers for themselves.

The clue to the intellectual life is found in the power of attention, in the selective activity of the will, exercised upon the material offered to it, analyzing and synthesizing that material. Education, therefore, consists in the formation of habits of attention or in the building up of character, whether intellectual, æsthetic or, in the narrower sense, moral. As Ruskin says: "It has been the great error of modern intelligence to mistake science for education. You do not educate a man by telling him what he knew not, but by making him what he was not." "The training of the intelligence," says Prof. Laurie, "is the engaging of the will."

Education ought accordingly to be intensive rather than extensive. Its object is not to produce walking encyclopedias any more than to produce specialists or "men of one book." Its true aim is to form good mental habits about a few subjects; when that is done, the mind will act to good purpose about any subject. Put in what grain you will, and the mind thus trained will separate, like a good sieve, the grain from the chaff.

SECOND.—Psychology instructs the teacher as to the means of attaining his ideal, by exhibiting the nature of the educational process. Education, in the technical sense, falls within the wider sphere of mental growth or development in general, and the laws of the wider sphere hold in the narrower as well. The nature of the process in both may be described by the term *apperception*. This means the organization or assimilation of the materials offered to the mind, the putting off of the old and the putting on of the new man. But the change from the old to the new is not abrupt or absolute. We have not a new creation, but a development of the new from the old, a grafting of the new upon the old. We have seen that the clue to the mental life is found in the power of attention; but the child will not attend to the uninteresting, and the absolutely new *is* uninteresting. Points of connection with the old must be found, the new must be recognized, greeted as an old acquaintance. This is the principle of the Kindergarten and of all successful teaching. Education is the gradual substitution of new and larger and nobler interests for the old and meagre interests of the child, or of the childish, uncultured man. The critical condition is that the new be affiliated to the old, that there be no schism or breach of continuity in the process of transition. And if education means the accommodation of the new to the old, it also means the accommodation of the old to the new. Education is a constant process of change, and this change does not consist merely in the addition of the new to the old, but in the revision of the old, in such a change of the entire mental standpoint as is implied in the welcome of

the new. The chamber of the soul must be swept and garnished, and made worthy of its new guest.

Thought grows. Old conceptions are gradually superseded by new, and often the process is so gradual as to be almost imperceptible. Take, for example, the entire change in one's way of looking at things caused by the acceptance of some new principle, such as that of the Copernican astronomy. All our knowledge has to be revised and reconstituted in the light of such a radical change of standpoint. Now, the child is constantly performing this arduous task. We should, therefore, give it sufficient time for the process, we should continue to present the same principle in different ways and in different lights, until the child has learned its real meaning and is able to conceive things in that way, before we go on to the next principle or conception; and when we do advance, we should see that we take the *next* step, and do not attempt something quite unconnected or only remotely connected with what was gone before. Continuity and connection are essential to education; it should not, as the logicians say, "make a leap."

Let me close with a practical illustration of this psychological lesson. Take the vexed question of the place of memory in education. The chief education of memory is indirect; it is by getting the child to apperceive what you teach, that is, by presenting the subject in such a form that he can assimilate it, that you secure his accurate remembrance or representation of it. We can hardly quite forget anything that we have so learned; even if we do forget the details, we do not lose the permanent influence of having learned to look at things in that way or from that point of view. One who has studied Mathematics or Classics, for example, can never be the same man as he would have been if he had not learned to look at things from the mathematical or classical point of view. The mind never entirely loses its grasp of what it has once apperceived or made its own. Such acquisitions are not merely treasures stored away in the mind; they have entered into the very structure and substance of our mental being, and can never more be lost.

CLOSING ADDRESS BY SIR WILLIAM DAWSON, PRINCIPAL OF
MCGILL UNIVERSITY.

LADIES AND GENTLEMEN:—You may have noticed on the programme that it was stated that the present address is one without a subject. I suppose that was intended to indicate the fact that at this late stage of the proceedings of the Association, subjects and the patience of the

audience are exhausted, and that being the case I think it would be unwise to detain you at all with anything in the nature of an extended address. At the same time, I think it is well that a few words should be said on the close of a great occasion such as that on which we are met at this present time; and as the words that were said at the beginning were words of welcome, the words that are said now should be words of farewell. Those are hard words—"meeting" and "parting," and in connection with that I think the particular thought which may be brought before us at this meeting is that this Convention inaugurates an attempt (and, I trust, a successful attempt) on the part of the Educational Association of Canada to assert itself as a body of workers in this great matter of our education. The number perhaps of those who attended this Convention has not been as great as some expected, but we have been told quite recently that if we were to gauge the population of Canada and the United States, that we should find we have as many teachers in proportion to our population as they had at their meeting in proportion to theirs; and I think that is sufficient encouragement to us to hope that in subsequent meetings of this Association we may equal if not surpass our American friends. One point that has struck me in this meeting, and one which favors the fact of our having a thoroughly Canadian association, is that a spirit of loyalty and affection for our country—for Canada—pervades the whole body of our teachers as represented here; and though this meeting is not a large one it is a very representative one of Canadians from every part of the Dominion, and there has been evinced a sentiment of loyalty for the empire to which we belong, and which, with all its faults, we must allow is the best and greatest empire that has ever been. Loyalty seems to pervade us all, and there seems also to be a kindly feeling towards our friends on the other side of the line,—those friends who have aided us here this evening through Dr. Warfield in his interesting lecture upon an English University to which we have listened with so much pleasure. He has been bringing before us Canadians a University of our motherland, and one of the principles of that University to which he has not referred may give me the reason for shortening the remarks I have to make this evening. They have there a custom of shortening the church services by what they call "bidding to pray," and instead therefore of delivering an educational address on this occasion, I shall take the liberty of saying I meant to do that, and you must take it for granted that I have done it, though in reality I have been only "bidding to do it." (Laughter.)

One other point in connection with this Association I think I should mention, and that is : that we bring together here not only representatives of the different Provinces, but the different creeds of the Dominion and the different races, and it gives us a fair prospect of working the whole of these creeds of the Provinces with its different races into one association by and by. One remark was made last evening, and the fact has been brought before you, that in the Province of Quebec we get along very well together,—French and English alike,—and we manage to do so without in the least interfering with each other. In regard to our French Canadian fellow-citizens, however, there is one thing about them that our English people do not understand as well as they should, and that is that a Frenchman is a man who will follow an idea or ideas. The Englishman seems to be able to get along without any ideas (laughter), but the Frenchman cannot to that. Our French Canadian fellow-citizens here have set their minds upon ideas that they are placed here among our English people to sustain among us, before us and in our presence their religion, their language and their laws. For those ideas they have sacrificed much. In our opinion, they have deprived themselves of a great number of other things by being so devoted to those ideas ; but at the present time they are beginning to find ways in which they can retain of those ideas that which is most valuable, and if we don't look out they will probably run ahead of us in the race by and by. At any rate, we seem to be working very well in regard to their language and their laws, and in regard to their language in particular I would like to see this question of a dual language settled by us in Canada by every man, woman and child throughout the country learning to speak both languages, and then we would be a great bilingual country—the greatest the world has ever seen.

Now, I had thought of two or three topics which I thought would be well to speak of this evening, but I shall not. One of these topics is, that we cannot help seeing in the whole of the discussions of this Association that education results in making the character of men and women rather than anything else ; that is to say, that as educators we have to do with making human beings more happy and useful,—not so much with making them do anything in particular that they may have to do in the world. We are more general educators than technical educators. At the present day there is a strong feeling in favor of technical education, and a feeling that carries it sometimes further in the matter of general education. Now, this does not come

from the spirit of books at all. It comes from the intense struggle for wealth which is going on all over the earth, and which causes every nation in the world to make its own country the great factory for making its people machines to make money, which impels each nation to endeavor to outstrip every other, and which causes a demand for what we call practical and technical education. Now, we must not forget that though we are bound to administer to that demand, that what is called by the ordinary man practical education is the kind we know to be the most unpractical of all. The practical is what makes the man, and the unpractical kind is what makes the man make something else. The final end of education is the making of men and women. The secondary kind which does not reach the absolute goal is the kind that only leaves the man or woman to make something else. We are not educators to make legal practitioners, or tailors or blacksmiths, but we are educators to make men fit to be anything that they may be called upon ; and though that is not the short road to technical education it is the sure road ; and though it is not the short road to national prosperity it will be found to be the sure road.

There is another point which has come up, and that is that the work which is before us as educators is a very varied and extensive work. We have a material to work upon which may be treated physically, treated in regard to its mental powers, treated in regard to its moral considerations, and treated in regard to its spiritual considerations ; and if we are to take our boys and girls and educate them merely with regard to physical or mental considerations, without doing anything to help them morally or religiously, we will not have the kind of education we should have. We must look at the training of all parts, —at all the complicated organization of our pupil, and there is one thing that comes out of that that we should never forget, and that is that it is characteristic of human nature that when in one direction its powers have been exhausted it can turn round and work upon another. There is more variety that can be got out of the pupil than half of us know. Tired with one kind of study, another one is all right. Nature teaches us that. Everyone is distinct from each other. We see this principle exemplified in ourselves ; a part of one muscle can be worked while the other is being rested. It is not then so necessary, as many of us think, that we should have amusement. We can make amusement or recreation by a variation in our work, and that is education in itself, and education which enables men to turn rapidly from one thing to another. That is the kind of training which results from that. We talk about

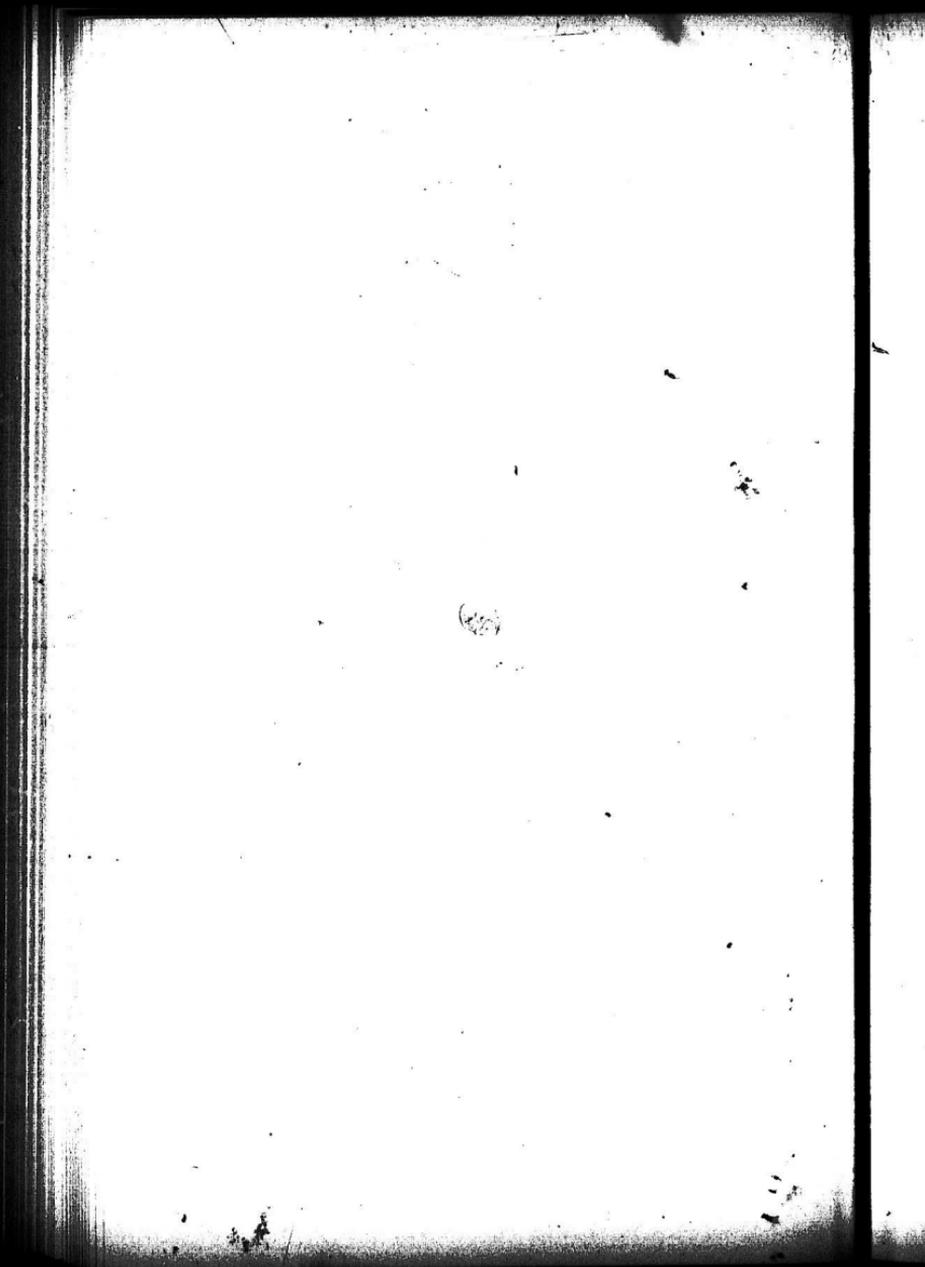
science and literature teaching, and we think the one is in some sense antagonistic to the other. You can't teach science in any form that is worth calling science without teaching reason and without teaching the pupil to express himself, and you can't teach people anything at all unless they have some ideas to express. The two things must go together, and they must go together from the beginning and continue up to the end. I hold that the teacher in a kindergarten who is training little children to see and handle things and is giving them names is teaching exactly on the same lines on which the higher teaching of the University is done. If science is to be taught, it ought to be taught along with all the powers of inductive and deductive reasoning; but if we are to try and turn only to one line and not to another, we shall surely fail. Some of our friends were talking about science teaching as if it was a very hard thing. Now, I hold that any young teacher who has taken the pains to inform himself as to the difference between the head of a clover and the flower and leaf, and is able to give the child some information in regard to that, has taught that child an immense amount of science, which, if she never taught him anything more, would enable him to go on and complete his botanical education. And the truth is that whatever is done well, however small the portion, is a great gain, and then it is just the same in literary teaching as well.

When we see a little boy looking at the long pendulum of an old-fashioned clock, wondering what that has to do with the hands going on regularly around the dial, I am sometimes inclined to have the same wonderment about the swing of the pendulum of education. Sometimes it swings in the direction of classical education, and science education seems to be going to the wall; and sometimes it swings towards modern ideas, and the ancient ones are left behind; and so it goes on until the pendulum has swung in every direction, and we wonder what has come to pass in the matter of education. Every swing, however, only means a tick of the clock; it only means a little movement forward of the hands in the same direction, so we may take comfort that this pendulum is constantly swinging. Now, this continual swinging of the pendulum is going, and we won't help it at all by stopping the pendulum. All we can do is to watch the swing and look at the dial, and comfort ourselves in the only way we can by saying to ourselves that we are the works and the escapement of the clock, and we will try whatever way the pendulum swings to keep the hands going all the time in the same direction. In the meanwhile, let us try to keep the hands so going that we shall always be on time, for that is our business as educators, and I hope, we will all remember that.

And now, bearing all this in view, are these principles for Nova Scotia or Quebec only? Are they not principles for all the world? And if we only consider that these great educational principles are to be our guide, and follow them up, there is no reason why we should not make of Canada the best educated nation that exists. We do not hear much about Sweden, but that is the best educated or at least one of the best educated nations of Europe, and the Swedes tell where they go that they are well educated men. We can do the same for Canada if we will, and we can make her a model for the world.

And now, just a word in regard to our friends who have come to us from a distance. I think that those who reside in Montreal and near Montreal ought to express our extreme gratitude to those who come from British Columbia and from Manitoba and from the Maritime Provinces to aid us in this Convention, and to show their sympathy with this grand union of educators for the whole Dominion of Canada. They have made some sacrifices to come here, and we have been greatly indebted to them for the part they have taken in this Convention, and for the admirable thought they have brought before us in the meetings we have held. Let us hope that wherever the meeting of this Association may be held next year we shall reciprocate, and that the Province of Quebec will be largely and well represented, and that what is now but the beginning of the Dominion Association may next year grow to be something tenfold as great, and retain with that greatness the admirable spirit and excellent unity of aim and the high tone, both intellectually and morally, which has characterized in an immense degree the Convention which closes to-night. It has inspired me with hope, and will, I think, inspire everyone who has been a member of this Association at this present time.

And now, in conclusion, may the Great Author of us all guide and protect you, and wherever you go may the light of His countenance shine upon you and be with you now and forever.



PROCEEDINGS AND ADDRESSES

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SECTION OF HIGHER EDUCATION.

SECRETARY'S REPORT.

MONTREAL, 8th July, 1892.

The Section of Higher Education met on Wednesday, 6th July, 1892.

Sir William Dawson was appointed President; Drs. Grant and Adams, Vice-presidents; and Dr. Eaton, Secretary.

The following papers were read and discussed:

WEDNESDAY, 6TH, 3 P.M.

1. University Extension—its aim and place as an Educational Movement.

JOHN COX, M.A.,
McGill University, Montreal.

2. The place of English Literature in a High School course.

WILLIAM HOUSTON, Esq., Toronto.

THURSDAY, 7TH, 3 P.M.

1. Is a common Standard of Matriculation desirable?

REV. DR. ADAMS,
Principal University of Bishop's College, Lennoxville, Quebec.

2. The Pronunciation of Latin in the Universities—Is Uniformity practicable?

A. J. EATON, M.A., Ph.D.,
McGill College, Montreal.

FRIDAY, 8TH, 3 P.M.

1. The Place of the Classics in a High School course.

A. W. STRATTON, M.A.,
 Collegiate Institute, Hamilton, Ont.

It was moved by Mr. McMurchy, of Toronto, seconded by Dr. Adams, Principal of Bishop's College, and passed unanimously, that the Association be asked to name a committee to seek for fuller information concerning a common matriculation standard for the Dominion.

Moved by William Houston, Esq., Toronto, seconded by Prof. Cox, of McGill College, and passed unanimously, that Uniformity in the pronunciation of Latin in Canadian Universities is desirable, and it can most easily and usefully be secured by the adoption of the "Roman" system of pronunciation.

(Signed) A. J. EATON,
Secretary.

THE PLACE OF ENGLISH IN A HIGH SCHOOL COURSE.

BY WILLIAM HOUSTON, M.A., TORONTO.

I have to state at the outset that my purpose in this paper is to magnify the importance and value of "English" as a culture subject, and to bespeak for it a larger share of attention than it has heretofore received in secondary school programmes. If it receives more there, it will also receive more both in the primary schools below and in the Colleges and Universities above. The little prominence hitherto allowed this subject is a serious defect in all parts of all our educational courses; and though there has been some improvement in that respect of late years, there is not only room for but urgent need of much more. To turn out a few high class English scholars is not enough to aim at in Schools and Universities. That is good so far as it goes, but what is most needed is that every member of the community who receives an education at all shall be able to use the English language with facility and correctness, shall have some scientific insight into the phenomena of language in general and of his own language in particular, and shall derive from the study of the best literature that enjoyment for which nothing else in life is an adequate substitute.

DEFINITION OF "ENGLISH."

For the purposes of this paper, therefore, "English" may be defined as including (1) the act of expressing thought in language, (2) the scientific study of language used in the expression of thought, and (3) the æsthetic study of literature which exhibits a markedly artistic structure. The first is the exercise of composition; the second gives rise to the special sciences of grammar, philology, rhetoric and prosody; the third has for its aim to promote culture through the education of that faculty by which we appreciate the beautiful. "English" so defined, and treated in accordance with the definition, is obviously more important as a means of culture than any other subject. No other is so widely and profoundly potential as an instrument of discipline. No other can be put to such various educational uses—the development of practical skill in adapting means to an end, the training of the reasoning powers by the generalization of principles from facts or laws from phenomena, and the cultivation of the taste and judgment by the intelligent contemplation of the noblest works of art which human genius has been able to produce. In these respects, neither the study of foreign languages and literatures, whether ancient or modern, nor the pursuit of science whether deductively or inductively, can compare with the study of English, for the latter affords the student-in-training opportunities for every kind of culture discipline, and that in the most advantageous way. True, English has not been generally so regarded or used. It will be my aim expressly to explain how it ought to be used, and incidentally to show how it ought to be regarded, as an instrument of educational discipline.

I. THE PRACTICAL TREATMENT OF ENGLISH.

For High School purposes this may be regarded as the teaching of composition. I believe I am safe in assuming that the art of expressing thought in language is systematically practised and taught in every secondary school. It is also systematically practised and taught in primary schools and universities. Why, then, is English so badly spoken and written? There must be something defective in the methods used, or the results of educational effort so generally put forth and so earnestly devoted would not be so unsatisfactory. It would serve no very useful purpose to confine my remarks to mere fault-finding.

"It is better to fight for the good than to rail at the ill."

I prefer to indicate what I believe to be a useful method of teaching composition, and leave to teachers the task of comparing it with the methods

they have been in the habit of employing. My first word on this part of the subject must be a warning against dependence on text-books. No treatise on composition or rhetoric will do the student so much good as to make it worth his or the teacher's while to depend on it. Skill in the expression of thought is acquired by practice in the expression of thought, and it can be acquired in no other way. The old educational adage, "We learn to do by doing," is precisely applicable here, and there is no other way of learning to "do." All the instructions contained in all the books ever written will not make the student write better English. Good English is not written by rule, but as a matter of habit, just as good English is spoken; and correct habits in the one case, as in the other, must be reached through a long course of training consisting of abundant practice under judicious oversight. Preliminary directions are of little use even when given carefully by the teacher and understood perfectly by the pupil. Their chief effect is to hamper and restrain, thus accentuating the tendency to artificial and mechanical modes of expression. The utmost freedom should be allowed with a view to the development of originality alike of thought and of form. The teacher's function should be limited in the main to criticism. It is far more effective to point out after work has been done how it might have been better done, than to give directions beforehand in the hope that they will be followed. The attempt to obey them is sure to induce failure in matters that are more important than even forms of expression, important as they unquestionably are. In my opinion, the so-called "teaching" of composition, which is really a process of "training" rather than of teaching, might be greatly improved in schools if the subjoined general rules were followed by teachers. They are doubtless practised now, some by one teacher and some by another, but I have never yet found a school in which they have been adopted and acted upon as a system. I may remark that they are based on long experience in that best of occupations for learning how to write and how to train others to write—daily journalism.

1. Let the practice consist in writing original essays on assigned topics. Other modes of practice may be useful; this is indispensable. Writing from dictation, paraphrasing the discourse of another, changing the construction of sentences, writing isolated sentences of special types—all of these may be so used as to be helpful, but not all of them together, along with all other forms of exercise that can be devised, will be half so useful as essay-writing. A pupil may become quite apt at sentence construction and yet break down when he tries continuous discourse. He may know all about paragraphing by reading a treatise on rhetoric, and may remain

quite incapable of arranging his own thoughts in succession to each other with either grace or precision. A great mistake has been made and much precious time and toil have been lost in trying to teach English pupils to use their own language as they would be taught to use a foreign language. Every book on English Composition constructed in imitation of the Ollendorf manuals—such as the language lessons of Mr. Swinton and Mrs. Knox—and most of the so-called “exercises” in our grammars, should be consigned to oblivion. The pupil was at five years old far past the stage which most of these imply. At that age he could frame every kind of “sentence” with marvellous precision and rapidity; why then keep him practising that at which he is already an adept? Two things he cannot do, and to these his practice should be directed: he cannot speak or write simple sentences without falling into conventional errors, and he cannot be trusted to form his thoughts into an effective logical and rhetorical sequence. For each of these kinds of training the writing of original essays is the best possible kind of exercise, and at the most he can get so little of it that to waste any of his time on anything less useful is the height of pedagogical folly.

2. When a subject for composition is assigned, take care that the pupils have something to say about it. They cannot profit by an exercise in the expression of thought if they have no thoughts to express. Composition is the production of the form, but form can come into existence only as the embodiment of the results of mental operations. With young pupils the object lesson is a useful exercise preliminary to essay-writing; those more advanced may be profitably asked to write on themes taken from literature, history, or science. No matter what the topic may be or whence it may have been taken, it should be made the object of a Socratic discussion in the class before the pupils are asked to write on it. Twenty persons know more about any topic than any one of the twenty knows, and all will write better for being made to “pool” their knowledge before they begin. Writers on rhetoric divide their subject into “Invention” and “Style”—finding something to say, and saying it. Surely the form is no less important in relation to composition than the latter. Occasionally, to vary the exercise, each pupil may usefully be asked to write on some subject of his own choosing, for he will then, if ever, write with that degree of enthusiasm which is necessary to any marked degree of success.

3. After essays have been written by a class, the teacher should do his correction of errors in the class. It is not necessary—in some cases it may

be injurious,—to connect errors with those who have made them, but each error detected and corrected by the class as a whole is for all practical purposes a training for each member of it in the detection and correction of similar errors. The teacher who marks his pupils' mistakes and then hands back their essays does not know his business. No good teacher will ever point out an error to his class until he has given the pupils an opportunity to discover it for themselves. Expertness in the detection is of far greater importance than expertness in the correction of errors, for the former implies the latter. He who knows that an expression is wrong can generally be trusted to find out some way of putting it right.

4. In the correction of errors never accept an emendation that is not based on a reason, or make a correction for which a finally conclusive reason cannot be given. The ordinary rules of syntax are quite worthless as reasons for making corrections, because they do not preclude further questioning. No attention should be paid to them; and to ask a pupil to memorize them is sheer waste of time.

5. After the essays, or some of them, written by a class have been corrected in this way, the pupils should be asked to write again on the same subject. Their knowledge of it will have been improved, and their power of expression will have been strengthened. Even without intermediate class discussion re-writing is more useful as a training than first writing, but its usefulness is greatly increased by previous criticism.

6. Do not limit the practice of the pupils in writing and re-writing to what the teacher can overtake in his reading of the essays. It is not necessary that he should read all that are written, and it is necessary that they should write a great deal. By selecting a few essays and a few errors for thorough discussion after writing, and by varying his selection so far as membership of the class is concerned, he can keep in touch with all his pupils without requiring their practice to wait on his leisure or convenience.

7. Finally, let the exercise of composition, and especially the correction of defects of form, be made incidentally a means of intellectual training. The general principles of language—including those of both grammar and rhetoric—may be usefully and effectively taught in their applications to particular cases.

II. THE SCIENTIFIC TREATMENT OF ENGLISH.

The incidental elucidation of general principles is, however, by no means all that should be attempted; the English education of the pupil

will remain lamentably defective if he is not trained systematically to investigate linguistic phenomena for himself. Language used in the expression of thought presents for consideration phenomena of four distinguishable classes: (1) those relating to the logical structure of the sentence, (2) those connected with the meanings and forms of words, (3) those met with in the analysis of continuous discourse, and (4) those peculiar to the verse forms employed in the writing of poetry. The investigation of phenomena of the first class gives rise to the science of "grammar"; of those of the second class to the science of philology; of those of the third class to the science of rhetoric; and of those of the fourth class to the science of prosody. If anyone prefers other names for these sciences I care not, nor do I object much to the ordinary inclusion of prosody under rhetoric, though I do not see what is to be gained by it.

Here I must repeat the warning already given against the use of text-books. The training of the pupil will depend on his being allowed to investigate for himself, while this is absolutely precluded by requiring him to learn from a manual the results of the investigations of others. It will not do to speak of "good" text-books, for the better the treatise, the worse a text-book to learn from it really is. The more it does for the pupil, the less it leaves him to do for himself. The use of text books is based upon and must be justified by the implication that linguistic knowledge is the thing to be secured, whereas the great aim should be to train the pupil to acquire knowledge for himself all the rest of his life. If the teacher succeeds in awakening his scientific curiosity respecting the wonderful phenomena of language, and in supplying him with a scientific method of investigation, it matters little how much he can be said to know of linguistic lore when he leaves school. Better far that he should go forth with the habit of closely observing facts for himself and of bringing to bear upon these facts a trained intelligence. He may reach wrong conclusions. What if he does? That can be said of the greatest linguists as well as of him. The pupil's own compositions and his ordinary reading lessons afford abundance of material for inquiry. All that is needed besides is an expert teacher with a black-board and a piece of chalk.

It is not necessary that I should dwell at length on the nature of inductive inquiry into the character of phenomena; it will be enough to speak of results. In grammar the investigation is an inquiry into the nature of the sentence. The aim is to ascertain how words that, taken individually, say nothing have been made to say something. The

inquiry must begin with the sentence, and the first step must be analysis. The sentence must be resolved into those parts or elements which perform functions in the making of the assertion. Whether the analysis is carried so far as to divide the sentence into words or not matters little. The term "part of speech" is in this connection entirely misleading, and should be dropped out of grammar. The attention of the pupil should be wholly directed to function performed; a description of a function is a definition; the name is given simply for convenience. The pupil should always be expected to discover functions and construct definitions for himself; the names, which are purely conventional, should then be given to him. The ordinary teaching of grammar, by giving names and definitions of the so-called "parts of speech," is worse than useless.

Much the same line of remark will apply to philology, which is an inquiry into the meanings and forms of words. The pupil should be taught to look into the words in daily use, to investigate their pronunciation and spelling, to detect and account for differences of meaning, and to pass in the case of both form and meaning from the forms now in use to those which preceded them. The history of words—usually called "derivation"—is so large a subject that a pupil in school can do little at it, but he can be sent out with a deepened interest in words and a habit of patient and rational investigation of their real nature. Such an interest and a habit are in themselves a most valuable equipment for life, inasmuch as they add to its zest while helping to make their possessor a more intelligent reasoner about the practical processes of common life.

Those phenomena of structure which come under the terms "rhetoric" and "prosody" are equally interesting in themselves and equally effective for culture purposes. The means by which discourse is made effective, the use of figurative language, the causes which make statements clear or the reverse, the arrangement of thoughts, the qualities of prose and verse which gratify or offend the ear—all these and other matters may be subject to inductive investigation in such way as to send a pupil out well educated, however little of previously ascertained truth he may know, and this should be the constant aim in the scientific treatment of English.

III. THE ÆSTHETIC TREATMENT OF ENGLISH.

Art is the natural language of joy. We have all been created with a capacity for the enjoyment of what is beautiful or suggestive of

beauty through the imagination. The artistic impulse finds expression in different forms of art—architecture, sculpture, painting, music and poetry; and just as art excels every other source of pleasure or means of obtaining it, so poetry excels in the same way every other form of art. It is therefore fitting that poetry should be studied in schools, and the pupil can get in his course no better and, in the higher sense, more useful equipment than a love for the best literature and a capacity for comprehending and appreciating it. Here again I must sound a note of warning against the use of text-books, and especially of annotated editions of texts. The pupil's attention should be directed to the text and to nothing else. As a work of art it has taken a certain form in the poet's hands, and as a work of art it should be studied. The opinions of great critics respecting it are valuable enough after the pupil has formed his own, but they should not be thrust on him until he has had a chance to form his own. Annotations that contain only information necessary to the comprehension of the text may serve a useful purpose, but everything in the shape of explanation of structure, appreciation of effects, and estimation of artistic merit should be kept out of the pupil's view. The matter of greatest importance is to secure his intimate acquaintance with the poem as a work of art. Nothing can take the place of this. If the poem is brief, and especially if it is composition of a high class, it may advantageously be committed to memory. Such acquisitions are treasures of satisfying pleasure for after life which cannot be lost and cannot be replaced.

It is impossible in this brief sketch to lay down directions for a study so delightful and so difficult as the study of poetry; but I may be pardoned if I add a second warning against unwise examination questions. The tendency of those generally asked is to magnify the importance of mere information—historical, geographical, mythological, scientific, and so on. Such information may be useful, nay indispensable, to the student, but to bring it into prominence in examinations is to mislead the inexpert and to constrain the expert teacher of literature to neglect what is of greater, and to direct the pupil's attention to what is of less importance. Nothing more calamitous could happen them. Poetry so studied is uninteresting and unimproving, and such study is rightly regarded by the utilitarian as a waste of time. He must be met and answered on higher ground. The chief end of poetry is to give pleasure, and all treatment of it in schools that does not keep this end constantly in view is a blunder, and worse.

EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

UNIVERSITY SECTION.

IS A COMMON STANDARD OF MATRICULATION DESIRABLE ?

PRINCIPAL ADAMS, D.C.L., BISHOP'S COLLEGE, LENNOXVILLE, Q. Q.

In a Convention of this kind, all matters which bear on the interests of different sections of educators have a peculiar difficulty, and hence need delicate handling. What is important to observe is that the real and highest interests of educators are probably much more identical than would at first appear. Obviously, the truest interest of all Educational Institutions is thoroughness and the keeping up of a high standard. In the discussion of this matter we have not only to consider the point of view of various Universities, we have also to think of the relations of Universities to High Schools or their equivalents: *i.e.*, of Universities to their feeders. Sometimes we hear of undue competition between Universities, sometimes also of actual jealousy between the earlier teacher and the later, and of difference of opinion as to the date or stage at which the school life should close and the College life begin. These difficulties are only now hinted at, because indirectly they bear on the question of the educational development necessary for entrance at our Universities.

Then perhaps it would be as well to give some thought to the answer of the question as to whether a Common Standard of Matriculation is possible before considering whether it is desirable. For whether a thing be desirable or not, if it is not possible, its being desirable is a matter of little importance. But, again, if a thing is difficult but desirable, that is with true educators and courageous persons a motive for attaining it.

In dealing practically with a question of this sort, one ought to say something as regards what has already been done in this way. It would require a more minute study of various calendars and courses of work than is open to most busy people to go into the matter in detail; nor do I think this is the time or place to refer to what any particular University or Province actually does in this regard. Our object is rather to look at general principles and see how to apply them; and especially to have regard to the difficulties of applying principles to the vast area

and varying conditions of such a collection of Provinces as this Dominion, just now celebrating its 25th anniversary, has proved to be.

So far as can be seen at present, it would appear that in two of our largest Provinces there exists an examination carried on in each case by University authorities for candidates from schools, and success in these examinations, or in a certain group of subjects amongst these taken in these examinations, renders the candidate free of the Entrance Examination to the University. In the Province of Quebec this University School Examination has attained more prominence every year of late, and its standard is being steadily and surely raised. Some ardent advocates of uniformity would like to see this examination (familarly known as the A.A.) made the only avenue on entering the Universities. If the wishes of these advocates were realized we should then have a uniform standard for this particular Province, but this would proceed on the assumption that all expectant undergraduates are members of schools. It is true there can be admitted others to the examination, and latterly the limit of age has been removed, thus the examination has been made wider and more serviceable as an avenue to the Universities, but it does not practically meet all cases, and the Universities are quite right in retaining and utilizing their September Matriculation Examination.

A step ought to be taken as to the recognition of equivalent examinations by different Provinces; and if also the Provinces would agree on the same authors of books in Classics, it would be of the greatest assistance to the work of schoolmasters.

What the insuperable difficulty in the way of this assimilation may be has always been to many of us a great mystery. Probably it is the ease with which translations of the Greek and Latin authors are liable to be learnt without being digested. The cure for this seems to me to be not the frequent variation of the subject matter so much as the lowering of the proportional weight of translation, and the proportionate raising of the weight of the grammar including accidence and syntax with a small but certain admixture of easy Latin composition. A student who can parse correctly every sentence in Cæsar's I. Book, and who can correctly reproduce in Latin sentences either from the English translation of that book or sentences of equivalent difficulty, and like construction from other books of Cæsar, knows more Latin than one who has learned the translation of six times the volume from different authors. By assimilating the English Latin side as well as the Latin English, we are gaining infinitely more in the depth of our knowledge of the language by confining ourselves to a comparatively small area of one author rather

than by requiring several books of several authors without any retranslation at all and without rigid requirements as regards parsing. This parsing may be looked upon as getting hold of the seams and joints of the structure of language, and it is not in a humorous but a melancholy vein that I might say in passing, that the way such parsing and grammar is often done presents to us the seamy side of Matriculation Examinations. Candidates are apt to undervalue this grammatical analysis and to look on these marchings and countermarchings as a waste of time, and they long to cover more ground and to widen their reading. In this they remind us of an old story concerning a famous Italian teacher of singing. His favorite pupil was kept at exercises and arpeggios for five or six years; in the last year a few shakes were introduced, the pupil complained that he had learned no songs, and asked for some to be introduced. The teacher refused, but at the end of the seventh year said to his pupil, "You may now go, for you are already the first singer in Europe." So those who master the grammatical analysis are becoming Latinists or Greek scholars, though their range of reading may be narrow. The application I wish to make is that there would be no loss of value in the standard if the same small quantity were required every year even, so long as the examinations in the part taken were conducted on the principles laid down, *i. e.*, impossibility of passing on translation alone and high marking of grammar and of retranslation. I have spoken rather fully of the Classical side of the examination, because this is the side on which there is the greatest difficulty in securing uniformity. A uniform standard can easily be attained, and uniformity of subject is practically settled in Mathematics and in English.

My conviction then is, that, speaking broadly, a uniform standard of matriculation is desirable. Education is of the Province because it is a subject that is near home; but the object of the Provinces is not separation or even jealous tension, as some short-sighted politicians would seem to wish, but a higher harmony and a more flexible and effective union. So that in a matter relating to so wide an area and so marked a division as that between School and College, it would be well if some common standard were agreed upon as the minimum. This should not affect any other mode of entrance. Such examinations as Honor Matriculation or Second Year Matriculation should be left untouched. But if a joint board for the whole Dominion be impracticable, which is not certain, a generous recognition of each others' standards might be looked for as a step in the right direction. Those great rivals in learning and fame—the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge—have formed a

joint board for examining schools throughout Great Britain, the special object of this examination being to excuse honor students not from matriculation but from the first of the University Examinations known to the irreverent as the Little Go, an examination which is at the end of the first year for ordinary degree men. This Little Go comprises general studies, including Classics and Mathematics. To pass this early is indispensable for the specialist or honor candidate. When this gate is passed the field of specialism, the honor course, is open—Mathematics, Classics, Law, Science, Philosophy, History, Semitic Languages, and now Modern Languages invite the student: No such exemption is sought for or desired by the Pass student. A distinguished friend once said he would like to examine Pass-men for the Little Go, in order to sound the depths of human ignorance, and then to examine for mathematical Honors in order to scale the heights of intellectual triumph. This brings me to the consideration that entrance standard even to the same University does not necessarily mean the same thing. The Honor man at entrance is often quite able to pass the ordinary Degree Examination. We hear of one man one vote, and one vote one value, but it is also agreed that one Degree has not always the same value. The minimum value is all that the Degree in itself connotes; and it is the minimum standard of matriculation alone which we propose to touch or to make uniform or of equivalent worth and standing throughout the Dominion. There is no reason why, so long as the demand exists, the Universities should not retain their September Examinations. For though in some regions these have come under some suspicion as a backdoor arrangement, this is certainly not the case in this Province, for these September Examinations are the original ones, and it is on these that Entrance Scholarships and awards have been decided for many years. We cannot afford that our Universities should lose their individuality, but it does seem to me that no danger arises to this individuality, nor to the standard of general excellence, by establishing a common standard throughout the Dominion by making in fact a passport system, whereby a candidate, having passed a matriculation examination of a Province, or better still, of the Dominion, should have the privilege of entering at the door of any University.

I have spoken of the classical part of the Examination. In Mathematics we should exact at least the first four books of Euclid's Geometry, Algebra to Quadratics, all Arithmetic; Trigonometry is at present optional, and should perhaps remain so.

In English we should be rigid as to Dictation, and should exact Com-

position, Grammar, and some Geography and History, including Canadian History, as well as the general history of the British Empire from its beginning. I would like to exact French.

A very vexed question then comes up,—I find that in some Provinces Greek has been abandoned, or has been replaced as an option by a modern language with Science. I find even in Ontario that this is so. It is not so in Quebec, where Greek as well as Latin is essential for matriculation in those Universities of which I know most (McGill and Bishop's). Here Greek is still essential. McGill has given way so far as Women Students are concerned, and these may substitute another language for Greek. In Ontario I understand that a modern language together with Science can be substituted for Greek in matriculation.

I confess to being Conservative enough to wish to retain Greek as a subject necessary for entrance on an Arts course. I think Greek even more valuable than Latin as a gate of culture, as an educating influence. The best models of Latin Literature are, after all, but copies of Greek models; if we want the best and the first hand models, whether in poetry, in the drama, in history, in philosophy, in oratory, we must go to the Greek originals; we ought to keep open that gate which leads to the study of Homer, of Sophocles, of Thucydides, and of Plato and Demosthenes. There are no names in Latin History or Literature equal to these; and by enforcing Greek for matriculation in Arts you are keeping this grand field open for all graduates.

This is a question I cannot follow out now. I would say that in the establishment of a common passport you must not force the hand of any particular University by leaving out or putting in any one thing in which the curriculum differs, so that if a man had passed an Ontario standard without Greek he should be examined in Greek in the Quebec Universities, and if in a Quebec standard with Greek, why, I suppose the Ontario Universities would be glad to accept him without any further substitute, as I understand that they would prefer Greek if they could get it. Let us beware of giving up Greek, as, if we do, we are taking one of those short cuts to knowledge whereby we miss one of its richest fields. We may have made a short cut, but we have not explored the country that it was our privilege and duty to do.

But the practical difficulties of *ad eundem* matriculation or the introduction of a matriculation passport would all vanish in the hands of a board of conciliation or the executive of such an association as this.

I have purposely omitted many details, and hope that what I have submitted will be taken rather as the point of departure for a discussion than as an attempt to exhaust the subject,

THE

"PRONUNCIATION OF LATIN IN THE UNIVERSITIES—
IS UNIFORMITY PRACTICABLE?"

BY A. J. EATON, M.A., PH.D., MCGILL COLLEGE, MONTREAL.

There may be divergence of opinion among you as to the wisdom of discussing this question at the present time, not because we have any rival theories in regard to the ancient pronunciation of Latin, but because the questions: "How did the *ancients* pronounce?" and "How shall we pronounce?" have become perfectly distinct questions. The first may be said, among scholars at least, to have passed out of the realm of controversy; the second is still with us, but a solution of it is not, I believe, impracticable. I am not here to defend this or that system. You want no polemic, rather a simple presentment of the convictions of the responsible guardians of Latin in our Universities; and you wish to ascertain if there can be discovered any sure basis of agreement that may lead to a common usage in the pronunciation of Latin. }

These facts determined me to get, if possible, a practical groundwork for this paper, referring the question to the instructors of Latin in the various Universities and Colleges of the Dominion. The following questions were, therefore, submitted: (1) "What pronunciation of Latin is employed in your University?" (2) "Is any change contemplated?" (3) "What are your views relative to the desirability and practicability of establishing a uniform pronunciation among the colleges of the Dominion?" Out of the fourteen colleges addressed, twelve answers were received, and it is due to the full and clear discussion of these questions that I am able to present to you a somewhat clear case. All were agreed as to the *desirability* of securing a uniform pronunciation. The attempt was generally hailed with warm approval. Nor is this a matter for surprise. It is but one expression of that general desire among our educational men of our Dominion to know more of each other, to create a closer inter-provincial bond, and to feel that quickening and beneficial influence which comes through this educational exchange,—nay, more, the desire to reach in our educational schemes virtual uniformity where patriotic considerations for our country's welfare render it advisable.

This general aim of securing uniformity will commend itself to the judgment of all practical teachers. Waste of time and lack of progress

is the result of diverse systems, not only of isolated parts of the Dominion, but even of every school. Take one instance of what I mean: Note the multiplied systems of the various grammars: Greek, Latin, German, French, Italian and English. The rationale of no two agree. And yet there is a *science* of grammar. Why, then, should there not be uniformity of Classification and Terminology for all grammars? That the learner studies diverse systems at one and the same time, and after all his labor ends by possessing the science of grammar, nothing but a heap of terms jumbled together in inextricable confusion is one of the serious drawbacks of our schools. By reducing the impedimenta with which the study of grammar has been weighted, by simplification made possible by the elucidation of grammatical principles through research in recent times, an enormous waste of time and energy at the school period, especially in the preparation for college, might be arrested,—I say especially in college preparation, for instruction in English grammar could be put into the Latin lesson. A knowledge of the essentials of Latin grammar will give the student the best and truest insight into his own. Almost the entire time devoted to this subject might be gained for higher branches. In the new Prussian programme, we observe that German grammar has scarcely a place at all.

But we must proceed to sum up the answers to our first question. Of the fourteen colleges to which letters were addressed, three were reported as employing the English pronunciation of Latin by preference, three have used during the past year the Roman, and two propose its introduction at the beginning of next session, two the Continental, one the Italian, and one the French. Of the two colleges from which no report was received, we have reasons to believe that both employ the Continental. At the opening of next session, the number employing each method may be set down as follows:—

- 5 Colleges, the Roman;
- 3 " the English;
- 4 " the Continental;
- 1 College, the French; and
- 1 " the Italian.

Of course, this list lays no claim to completeness, but contains, so far as the writer has knowledge, all the colleges in the four Provinces of Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. It will be representative enough, I hope, to show the diversity of usage in our Dominion. Without taking into account minor differences, we have here five distinct pronunciations.

At a levee of princes on the Continent of Europe, in the time of Erasmus, it was agreed that the conversation of their ambassadors should be carried on in Latin; "but," says Erasmus, "you would have thought that all Babel had come together." Suppose some one should suggest a conference of Latinists of the Dominion, and limit the medium of converse to Latin!

Roughly speaking, we might divide these colleges into two classes, separated by broad lines of divergence in their methods of pronunciation: First, those using the *English* (including all the varieties of the English pronunciation of Latin); and second, those using an approximation to the ancient Latin (including the so-called Roman, Continental, Italian and French). To the latter class would belong eleven of the fourteen colleges mentioned above.

Out of such diversity is there any probability of uniformity? Of course, absolute uniformity we need not expect. *Nihil est ab omni parte beatum*. National habits of speech can never be fully overcome. But have we any reasonable hope of attaining such an approximation, that we may be intelligible to one another in the speaking, reading and quoting of Latin? And if so, what is the possible basis of this uniformity? Only eight replies touched upon this question, and all these acknowledged that the prospect of attaining it lies in the recognition of the ancient Latin, or so-called Roman.

The reason of this conviction which forced itself upon classical instructors, and to a lesser extent upon the community, may be most clearly seen from a brief review of the Latin pronunciations since the revival of classical learning. We have referred to the divergence at the time of Erasmus. As a natural result of the different varieties of the Continental pronunciation of Latin, native tongues pronouncing it after their own analogies, England, over 300 years ago, was also led to the employment of her own vernacular. International identity of pronunciation was no longer possible. Yet there always remained in the consciousness of many earnest scholars a strong belief that an international pronunciation of Latin would be realized. The difficulty in the way was the fact that one country would not adopt the local barbarisms of another's Latin speech. Then there came in our own time one of those master minds, gifted with no ordinary powers of research—the illustrious Corssen. As a result of his discoveries, we have, above cavil, a scientific basis for the ancient Latin pronunciation. Scholars immediately recognized in it the only possible ground for an international pronunciation, for each country could unite, without sacrifice of national

dignity, in following in the main the ancient Latin. But no sudden revolution was to be expected. The attempt of some English scholars to introduce a tentative and provisional programme was not a success. The nation's prejudices were too strong. Moreover, the outline of this pronunciation was in part a compromise, open to attack, and largely failed of recognition. Thoughtful schoolmasters believed it best to institute a gradual reform, and not stir up prejudiced opposition and unreasonable fears. The fathers, they said, would lose the interest they took in their son's education, if this bond of sympathy, for that which had been so long established, and which had been associated with so many great thinkers and movements in the intellectual life of the nation, should be suddenly snapped. Except in the higher University teaching and a few schools, the first attempt to restore the ancient pronunciation of Latin in the English schools proved abortive. And now almost *de novo* the experiment is being made, but under more favorable circumstances. The programme issued by the Cambridge Philological Society in 1887 is based upon *Seelmann's* splendid work "Aussprache des Latein," and is most acceptable. All University graduates of high standing in Classics have become acquainted with it, for a knowledge of the ancient sounds is absolutely necessary to the comprehension of phonetic laws and the appreciation of Latin verse.

The movement first begun in England shared a better fate in America, where it at once made rapid progress. The Roman method has not only the approval of all Latinists of authority in the United States, but has been practically recognized by all her Universities and the majority of her schools.

Nor has the wave yet spent itself. Three years ago not a single college in Canada had adopted the Latin pronunciation, and but a few private schools. Now it claims already the largest number of advocates among the instructors of Latin in our universities. Many prominent secondary schools have either introduced it or have signified their intention of doing so. A recent meeting of the classical teachers of Ontario—I now quote verbatim from a reliable source—"strongly recommended the adoption of the Roman method. It has already been introduced into a few schools, and next September will doubtless witness the beginning of the same method in other schools."

This, I think, will be adequate to show the trend in higher education in the Dominion to-day, and that we are getting nearer the goal we all so ardently desire.

So far, we have based the recognition of the so-called *Kikeronian*

pronunciation upon its forming the only possible foundation of uniformity. But its advocates believe that it has stronger merits of its own to recommend it—and upon these merits it has won its way hitherto. A reform that has survived and has made such rapid strides during a decade, amid such virulent opposition, abuse and ridicule which was at first heaped upon it, must have solid reasons for its existence. To attempt a résumé of arguments in its favor would demand more time than I have at my disposal. Its advantages in practical teaching are so many, that I could attempt no mere outline. In short, we use the Latin pronunciation of Latin as we would the German pronunciation of German, or the French pronunciation of French, and for the very same reasons. The Latin is as much a living language to those who study it in our class-rooms as Germans to any class of students who never expect to live among Germans; and Cicero, we believe, could as readily understand the Latin of the one as a Schiller could the German of the other. And yet no one seems to advocate the English pronunciation of the German.

The difficulties in the way of its first introduction are exaggerated. I have found it sufficient to give a ten minutes' statement of the pronunciation on the first meeting of the class, and then the student is expected to do the rest. If it be firmly insisted on from the beginning, little difficulty is experienced after the first week.

Pronunciation is not a matter of vital importance, says some one, and I refuse to give myself any trouble about it. Though pronunciation in itself has no educational value, it is as necessary to the study of language as the air we breathe to animal life. *Some* pronunciation we must have, and we ought to have that, or the nearest approach to that in which it once lived and flourished. As a plant thrives best in its native soil, so a language displays best its powers in its own proper expression. The change back to the pristine utterance of the Latin will not, we believe, lessen its vigor or its popularity. We refuse to have any fears for the future of Latin and Greek. If a scientific study of them will loosen their hold upon the popular mind, we ought not to regret the change. But we well remember the seemingly reasonable fears as to the fate of Greek, when a few years ago it was made optional at Harvard. And these fears have not been realized, for last year but 8 per cent. of the entering class took advantage of the option to omit Greek.

If we would endeavor to make the Latin a living language, we must have a well-defined pronunciation. In our own classes where now such

of the work is carried on orally—one hour of the week being entirely devoted to oral composition—and where the main object during the first year is to read the language fluently and correctly, and understand it in its Latin dress, we find it of the first importance to have a ready pronunciation. Someone has truly said: "Learn a living language out of a book alone, and you kill it; send a dead language by the way of the ear to the brain, and you give it life."

Many profess to be offended at the uneuphonious gutturals of the ancient Latin. But, we reply, the question is not one of aesthetics but phonetics. And then reforms in language will come sometimes in spite of a nation's dislikes. How we have become reconciled to Keltic, no one knows. Scholars seldom now say Phidias, it is written and pronounced Pheidias. We have had Eschylus, and then by a false analogy Eschyles, and now we not uncommonly hear *Aischylus*, and it seems only the matter of a few years when everybody will say it. So insidiously do changes in language creep in, and we are helpers in determining them. Changes will come, and in these latter days are coming with astonishing rapidity, and it is idle to regret them. The philosophic and scientific activity of the past two centuries have metamorphosed Latin and Greek to a marked degree. Progress is the condition of all true science, and the capacity for progress is essential to its life. The teaching of classics should be, and is, no more a fixed quantity than is science, and we are thankful for fresh light and fresh impulse.

THE POSITION OF CLASSICAL STUDY IN THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF ONTARIO.

BY A. W. STRATTON, M.A., COLLEGIATE INSTITUTE, HAMILTON, ONT.

Not many years since, far greater prominence than we now find was given in the secondary schools of Ontario to the study of Latin and Greek; the report of the Chief Superintendent of Education for the year 1867 shows that of 5639 boys and girls then enrolled in English in the Grammar Schools, 5171 studied Latin. The total in Greek was 802, in French 2164, and in Physical Science 1867. No mention is made of the teaching of German even in such places as Berlin. In four schools no French was taught, in seven no Greek, and in twenty-eight no Science, but Latin was found in all. In many places less than four were found in Greek and Science; in many, not more than ten or twelve studied French, but eleven of every twelve in the schools of the Province were

enrolled in Latin. To-day, on the other hand, Science is taught everywhere, while less than forty per cent. of the pupils take the subject that once chiefly distinguished this branch of our educational system.

For considering the causes of the prevalence of the study of Latin in our schools twenty-five years ago, we shall do well to bear in mind that it then possessed a relatively greater importance among the subjects taught than it does to-day. The teaching of science, as it was then almost wholly conducted, was very unprofitable. The course, indeed, included "the Elements of Natural History, the Elements of Natural Philosophy and Geology, and the Elements of Physiology and Chemistry," but the subjects were so presented as to be deprived of their chief interest and profit. In almost all the schools, experiments were performed not by the pupils, but, if at all, by the teacher, to illustrate his statements. Accurate observation was not required of the learner, and no power of forming just conclusions secured. We should have a similar state of affairs in language study if we sought to teach the elements of several languages by describing the formation and uses of the various cases, moods, tenses and the like, with nothing more than the occasional citing of a word or phrase. The science student was in no better position without personal experiment than the language student would be without practice in reading, writing and speaking. So unsatisfactory was the work of the Grammar Schools in this department, that the University of Toronto found it necessary to withdraw the papers on Science at Matriculation.

The Head Masters, again, were for the most part classical men, who would favor the study of the classical languages at any rate by the boys. It is no disparagement of modern language study to say that in those days men did not look to French for the training which the study of Greek and Latin was acknowledged to give, and the Universities seem to be with the popular estimate. Only in quite recent years have the modes of speech current in foreign countries to-day been deemed worthy of a place in our school programme besides the literary forms and usages of the ancient classical writers. Apart altogether, then, from the value of the subjects, pupils would be led by the respect paid to classical learning and by the discrimination of the universities to ancient rather than modern language study.

These two causes are in themselves insufficient to explain the difference in the position of Latin then and now. The head master had a good reason for encouraging the study of Latin which did not apply to the other subjects of the school programme. The law then in force ordered

that provision should be made in the Grammar schools "for giving instruction in all the higher branches of a practical English and Commercial Education, including the elements of Natural Philosophy and Mechanics," as well as in "the Latin and Greek languages and Mathematics, so far as to prepare students for University College or any College affiliated to the University of Toronto." No school not so conducted was entitled to share in the Grammar School Fund, but the division of it was based solely upon the number of pupils enrolled in Latin in the various schools. Head masters naturally desired that their schools should receive the largest possible grant, and persuaded most of their pupils, without regard to their fitness, to enter upon the necessary study. Where Union Boards existed, the evil was aggravated, for the admission of pupils depended largely on the head master's consent, and the higher classes of the Common School were often pushed forward with unseemly haste to study the elements of Latin in the Grammar School department, and thus aid in securing a larger grant.

It is not hard to see that this method of apportioning the grant was not favorable to the spread of classical learning. Many who, from the lack of their general knowledge and the insufficiency of their English training, were unfitted for studying Latin, were drawn into classes where they obtained little profit, and were a hindrance to better prepared pupils. Equal recognition, again, was given to the reading of Horace and the inflection of *sum*, with the result that an exceedingly small number ever obtained more than the merest introduction to the language. The "encouragement of classical learning," assuming that to be a legitimate object, might better have been secured by rewarding a certain degree of proficiency in one or both of the classical languages.

These considerations will help us to understand the discrepancies noticed at the beginning of the paper, and, when men speak of the "decay of classical study," it is well to remember, at least in connection with the study of Latin in Ontario, that the growth of the earlier days was forced and unnatural.

It was manifestly unfair that in the distribution of the legislative grant elementary teaching in one subject should be recognized, but not even somewhat advanced work in others. The evil effects of this method on the schools were shown by the Inspectors in several reports, and in 1871, in the School Improvement Act, a more suitable standard, the average attendance of pupils and their proficiency in the various branches of study, was adopted. At the same time, "to encourage the establishment of superior classical schools," the rank and privileges of a Collegiate In-

stitute were conferred on any school, "in which not less than four masters were fully employed in teaching the subjects of the prescribed curriculum, and in which the daily average of male pupils studying the Latin or Greek language was not less than sixty." Here again was made the mistake of specially rewarding what may mean much or little,—the study of Latin; and the same evils in the schools were found to result. Some time passed before work done in other branches was equally recognized in the distribution of the grant, but the recognition was inevitable.

Supporters of classical studies have, no doubt, often claimed for their favorite subjects a unique educational value, and the charge of exclusiveness has frequently been brought against them. In this, however, the devotees of the natural sciences and the modern languages have shown themselves no less partial, while the necessity for constantly urging their claims, in order to secure recognition of their departments, has tended to make their advocacy more intemperate.

On the one hand, we are met with the saying that we should study "things, not words," that we should seek to know "objects rather than many names for the same object." In a course of study based on this principle, as it is commonly applied, languages would find no place for the sake of the mental training which comes in acquiring them: the mother-tongue would be studied only with a view to clearness and force of expression, and foreign languages to help us in the understanding of technical terms and to enable us to read scientific works which have not appeared in our own tongue.

Here may be stated what will be clear before the close of this paper, that I am fully persuaded of the value of science teaching in our High Schools, and that anything I have to say against it applies only when it seeks to be exclusive. A few words then in regard to the saying "things, not words." Such a contrast was natural when the technicalities of Latin and Greek inflection, prosody, etc., occupied the student's attention to the exclusion of the writer's thoughts and an appreciation of his method of expressing them. Formal studies often seem unreal and lifeless, and one gladly turns from them to the real and living world around him. The distinction, however, is not well expressed in the watchword of non-literary education. The study of the works of great writers in any proper manner must be held to be a study of *things* as long as their thoughts have any interest for the heart or make any appeal to the life of the student. There is a sense, too, in which words, as distinct from the thoughts they represent, are *things*. Philology has now come to be recognized as one of the sciences, and has

no more reason to be ashamed of its unscientific origin than have chemistry and astronomy. Now, it is true that to some minds this study offers little that is attractive, but the same may be said of any science: many, for example, recoil from chemical experiments and from dissection. We have no right to assume that one class of facts has an interest for all that another class has not. Inclinations vary; and while in any subject the student is concerned with what he can observe for himself he is studying *things*, but when he passes to what has no reality for him he is dealing with mere *words*.

The value of a course of study in which literature finds no place needs no discussion here; few will be found to desire a purely "scientific" education. Here, however, we are told that our own language is sufficient for purposes of literary culture, and that all the effects we can hope to find appreciated are translatable. One who should recommend an acquaintance with a foreign literature without some knowledge of our own would surely be most unwise; the study of English on its literary side should be an essential feature of every course possible in a High School. This, however, is no admission that the study of foreign languages is not desirable. Our own writers have been influenced largely by writers of other nations, and to understand and appreciate them as fully as we may, we must place ourselves as nearly as possible in the relation in which they stood to the sources of their inspiration. Why should we in this connection deny to works of literary art what we constantly maintain of nature? As for literary criticism based on translations, "it is like criticizing pictures from engravings."

To come to a matter of every-day interest, one of the great troubles of the English teacher is to get his pupils to reason about words and expressions so familiar from daily use that it seems a waste of time to discuss them. A knowledge of the mode of expression adopted in another language is often of the greatest service to us in the use of our own, and translation is an exercise in form free from the objection urged for example against paraphrasing, that good English is turned into bad. The fact that a few of our best writers have not owed their skill to any training in a foreign language is no ground for assuming that such training is not most valuable. Of more importance, it seems to me, is the state of affairs noticed in the Collegiate Institute from which I come, that with scarcely an exception the candidates for teachers' certificates taking the science option have been much weaker in English than those taking one of the language options: (1)

1. This may, of course, be evidence simply that those who are naturally better in English generally choose a language option because they are fond of such work, or that the weaker pupils are drawn into the science option because it can be prepared in a shorter time than the others.

Many hold that such language training as is not based on the study of our own language should be connected with French and German, for this is the meaning commonly attached to the words "modern languages." The classical forms of Greek and Latin, it is held, can never become to us instruments of thought, and thus fail to give us the most valuable of the fruits of language study. Leaving untouched the comparative merits of the ancient and the modern languages in a University Pass Course, I should like to notice some arguments advanced for French and German in their bearing upon the work of High Schools in Ontario :

1. That the knowledge gained is useful in the affairs of daily life — This is in a manner true of mixed settlements, although for purposes of ordinary intercourse the methods commonly adopted are not the most suitable. It would also have weight in a commercial centre such as London, and to a slight degree where the ordinary course of travel leads one among men of another speech. In Ontario it is almost wholly inapplicable : not even in vocations does English fail us, except occasionally to speak to a French-Canadian peasant or an Indian guide.

2. That a foundation is laid for independent reading—In Latin, for example, it is claimed we cannot at school become so proficient as to read without difficulty, and accordingly when we leave school we are likely to forget what we have learned, but in French (the argument is not so often advanced for German) we can afterwards find pleasure in reading. This, if true, is an argument of a certain weight in favor of the study of French rather than Latin by those who cannot hope to attend a university. The difference, however, is not found to exist in the Institute at Hamilton. Of the candidates for First and Second Class Teachers' certificates at the examinations of the last five years who have not been preparing for more advanced examinations, only two have done any subsequent reading in French of which I have been able to hear,—one in German and one in Latin. I should like to know what has been the experience of masters from other schools.

3. That they have a higher value for purposes of philological study. This, it appears to me, is in a sense quite true. Of modern speech we know so much more than of ancient ; we can record the precise sounds of the one and must conjecture those of the other. But for any philological study worthy of the name we require a far greater knowledge of the varieties of living speech and of the older forms of a language than can be looked for in schools. The subject essentially belongs to the university.

One question of importance arose in the consideration of the second

claim,—the tendency to discontinue the study of a foreign language after leaving school. "The present state of linguistic education," wrote Mr. Hamerton in the *Forum* of April of this year, "gives the most unsatisfactory results. Languages are first very laboriously and very imperfectly learned, and then generally abandoned in after-life. Even the learned themselves rarely pursue them unless they have some special reason for doing so connected with their professional business. Modern languages are neglected almost as much as the ancient, when they are not wanted for business purposes or travel." Now, this general abandonment in after-life is true not only of foreign languages but of Mathematics, Physics and Chemistry,—indeed, of all the subjects of school study except perhaps Botany, History and English Literature. The cause is not to be found in uninteresting teaching, but rather in the excessive demands of men's daily work. Comparatively few can be students, and while we seek to put these in a position to proceed profitably with their higher work, we must not forget that our concern is chiefly with pupils who in after-life are not likely to have much leisure for continuing the work of their school days.

Briefly stated, then, my position with regard to the questions mentioned here is that for the literary side of High School training, some knowledge of a foreign language is essential, that the champions of French and German have not shown sufficient reasons for encouraging the study of these at the expense of Latin and Greek, and that in our choice of subjects we should bear in mind that few of our pupils will continue their studies after leaving school.

I may be permitted now, without assigning reasons in each case, to indicate the position which I think the sciences and languages should hold in our High School programme.

1. From all regular pupils we may fairly require some knowledge of Physics and Botany and of one foreign language. It would be unwise, I think, to specify the language to be studied; (2) left to themselves, perhaps, most boys would select Latin, most girls French. The junior pupil of our High Schools to-day has made considerably more progress than his fellow of twenty-five years ago, and is, generally speaking, in a position to profit by studies that were then too far advanced. Nor would the study of one language interfere with such as desired giving some attention to commercial work.

2. Some may object that the options suggested could not be provided for in small schools. The number of subjects to be taught would, however, be no greater there than at present, and it is unlikely that all the options would be taken in the lower forms of small schools.

2. Those who are preparing for matriculation in Arts should be expected to study one ancient and one modern language, and, again, I believe, we should allow candidates to take, as they prefer, Latin or Greek, French or German. Physics and Botany should be made compulsory, and an option might be allowed between Chemistry and a third language. By not insisting on more than two languages, we may require a higher standard of attainment in each, that seems, to me preferable to prescribing, as some suggest, all four. A change in the method of publishing the results would be made necessary by the adoption of such a scheme as this. It has long seemed to me desirable to separate Latin and Greek even in the returns of the examination for honors, and to recognize such groups as English, Greek and German, English, Latin and French no less than the present groups, Latin and Greek, English, French and German, popularly known as Classics and Moderns. I am convinced that we now deprive many of the advantages of the honor matriculation work in one of the classical languages by insisting on both. Then when we call to mind the debt our own literature owes to the classical writings of Greece and Rome, it seems strange that the university should in any way seek to disconnect the study of Greek and Latin from that of English.

3. The same remarks would apply to the non-professional requirements for the several grades of teachers' certificates. (3)

It will be seen from the above suggestions that I have no fears for the study of Greek when it is placed in a position of equality with the other languages. The slightness of the progress it has made since 1867 (the increase in the number of students has been from 802 to 1089) has not been due so much to any difficulty or unsuitability in it as to the unjust discrimination against it. It has never been accepted as an optional subject for third or second class certificates, and as a consequence in most schools no provision is made for its study in the lower forms. Until 1887 it was not recognized in the course for first class grade certificates, although since that time it has been possible to present Latin and Greek instead of Chemistry and Biology; the fact that Chemistry has been compulsory at the second class examination has led an unnaturally large number to select the science of option, in which the reputed and, I believe, actual easiness of the work required is an additional attraction. One other point

3. The table on page 187 may be found useful. It contains the requirements for the several grades of certificates: (1) according to the present regulations of the Education Department; (2) according to the scheme contained in an address of Mr. Seath, High School Inspector, before the High School Teachers of Ontario in April of this year; and (3) according to the plan here proposed.

to be remembered in comparing the position of Greek in 1867 and in 1892 is that Greek was then required for matriculation. Since it became an optional subject many have for one reason or another selected instead French and German; and owing to the necessity for a knowledge of one or both of these languages in connection with several of the subsequent honor courses, the number has been constantly increasing. The number of candidates in Pass Greek at matriculation would, of course, be still further reduced if the requirements were, as some have desired, "Latin and two of the three languages, Greek, French and German."

It seems to me essential that every matriculant should possess some knowledge of one of the modern languages. At the same time, I believe we should suffer a heavy loss by discouraging in any way the study of Greek. Yet we are discouraging the study of Greek in favor of Latin, French and German for teachers' certificates, and in favor of Latin at matriculation. Mr. H. W. Eve, a modern language teacher and headmaster of one of the English Public Schools, in a speech before the Headmasters' Conference of 1886, pointed out the real trouble. He is reported as having said that he felt "they wanted in every possible way to encourage the study of Greek. . . . What the world understood by a classical education and what people valued in classical scholarship was, as to nine-tenths of it, derived from Greek rather than Latin. . . . As those who learned Latin were reckoned by thousands, and those who learned Greek only by scores, there was good reason for alarm. What they really wanted was a knowledge of Greek, and the way they went about it was to drive more boys into a knowledge of Latin. If they went straight for Greek they would have a large number of boys in the country who knew something about it."

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III	English History and Geography Mathematics Reading Drawing Book-keeping, etc. Latin or French or German or Physics and Botany	English History and Geography Mathematics Reading Drawing Book-keeping, etc. Latin and Greek or Latin and French or Latin and German or French and German or Physics and Botany	English History and Geography Mathematics Reading Drawing Book-keeping, etc. Physics and Botany One of the four languages Chemistry or a second language
II	English History and Geography Mathematics Chemistry Latin or French or German or Physics and Botany	English History and Geography Mathematics Physics Latin, Greek and French or Latin, Greek and German or Latin, French and German or Latin, Chemistry and French or Latin, Chemistry and German or Chemistry, Botany and Zoology	English History Mathematics Physics and Botany Latin or Greek French or German Additional work in (say chemistry) or science A third language
IC	English History and Geography Mathematics Latin and Greek or French and German or Chemistry, Botany and Zoology [Physics also will be required in this group in 1893]	English History and Geography Mathematics Latin and Greek or French and German or Chemistry and Physics Botany and Zoology	English History Mathematics Any two of the following: (a) Latin (b) Greek (c) French (d) German (e) Physics and Chemistry (f) Botany and Zoology

University Matriculation.—At present the subjects required are English, History and Geography, Mathematics, Latin and one of the six options (a) Greek, (b) French and German, (c) French and Physics, (d) French and Chemistry, (e) German and Physics, (f) German and Chemistry. According to (2), the requirements for matriculation and second class certificates are identical, except that the last-named option is not to be accepted for matriculation in Arts; it would probably be accepted in Medicine. Under (3) the matriculation and second class certificate examinations would be exactly the same.

A. W. STRATTON.

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PROCEEDINGS AND ADDRESSES
OF THE
SECTION OF TRAINING AND INSPECTION

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REPORT OF THE SECTION OF TRAINING AND INSPECTION.

The first sitting was held on the 6th of July, 1892, with 46 members present. 52 are now enrolled. Mr. Thomas Kirkland, M.A., Principal of the Normal School, Toronto, was appointed Chairman *pro tem.*, when the following were elected permanent officers of the Section: John A. MacCabe, M.A., LL.D., Principal of the Normal School, Ottawa, President; Mr. J. B. Calkin, M.A., Vice-President; and J. B. Demers, B.C.L., School Inspector of the Province of Quebec, Secretary.

Mr. W. H. Ballard, M.A., Inspector of Schools, Hamilton, Ont., read the first paper on "Training and Inspection of City Schools." After discussion the following resolution was carried: "That this Section desires to draw the attention of the General Association to the growing feeling among the teachers of the Dominion that steps should be taken to bring about some assimilation of the requirements of candidates for the office of teacher in our common country and their common recognition, and suggests that the Committee on Resolutions prepare a resolution embodying a recommendation for the appointment of a Committee to report on this question at the next general meeting of this Association. Then Mr. J. B. Calkin, M.A., Principal of the Normal School, Truro, Nova Scotia, read a paper entitled: "Should the Academic and Professional Training of Teachers be Combined?" After a few observations made by Dr. Robins on the question, further discussion of the subject was postponed till next meeting.

The second sitting of this Section was held on the 7th July, 1892, after the reading and approval of the minutes of the former meeting. The postponed discussion of the paper of Dr. Calkins was still further postponed at the desire of the meeting, for the purpose of hearing Dr. MacCabe, Principal of the Ottawa Normal School, on the subject, "How shall the Normal School develop Practical Skill in Teaching?" Ample discussion on both papers followed, after which the following resolution was carried unanimously: That a Committee, composed of Messrs. Calkin, Dr. Harper, Ballard, Fotheringham, the Chairman and Secretary, be appointed to prepare a resolution embodying the substance of the discussion to be laid before the General Association, and to report to this Section at its special meeting for that purpose on Friday, the 8th inst., at three p.m.

On Friday, the 8th July, this Section met at three p.m. for the purpose of receiving the report of the Committee appointed at its last regular meeting. The said report having been laid before the meeting and approved of, the following resolution was passed:—

The Section of Training and Inspection desires to bring this expression of its views before the Association, and to ask the Association to give them practical effect by the weight of its influence.

Without ignoring the great importance of the teacher's personality as a factor in the successful prosecution of his work, we believe that in the main successful teaching is conditioned on the following out of ascertained pedagogical principles, and that the ability to teach is a communicable art; we are firmly convinced therefore that the cause of public education and the interests of the country demand that professional training should be required of all teachers throughout the Dominion of Canada. Further, inasmuch as effective professional education demands considerable scholarship and mental maturity on the part of those under training, it is our opinion that candidates for the teachers' office should possess at least the minimum scholarship required by their licence before being admitted to the Professional course. Keeping always in mind the distinct function of the Normal School, this view does not preclude the introduction of collateral work for the purpose of rounding out the knowledge of the student in regard to those subjects on which he has already passed examination.

This finished the work of this Section for the first meeting of the Dominion Educational Association for the year 1892.

The whole respectfully submitted.

J. B. DEMERS, B.C.L.,
School Inspector, Secretary.

TRAINING AND INSPECTION FOR CITY SCHOOLS.

By W. H. BALLARD, M.A., INSPECTOR OF SCHOOLS, HAMILTON, ONT.

The training of teachers in our province dates back some forty years, when the Toronto Normal School was established. For twenty-five years this school furnished the only means available for our teachers to receive professional training. It will be at once evident that but a small percentage of the teachers actually at work could have had any professional training at all. In the year 1877, however, the School Act directed that at least one school in each county should be set apart by the County Board of Examiners as a County Model School for the training

of candidates for third class certificate. There are some fifty or more of these training schools attended by an average of about 25 students each, and no person is allowed to teach who has not passed satisfactorily through the Model School course. Each school continues in session from the 1st of September until the middle of December. The course of study prescribed is intended to give the student teachers such an insight into the principles of Education and into the theory and practice of teaching as will enable them to organize, govern and teach a school efficiently.

It embraces the following:

1. A course in School Organization and Management.
2. Methods of Instruction in all the subjects prescribed for Forms I-IV of the Public Schools.
3. Such practice in Teaching as will cultivate correct methods of presenting subjects to a class and develop the art of school government.
4. A course in Temperance and Hygiene, based on the Manual of Hygiene for Normal and Model Schools.
5. Knowledge of the School Law and Regulations, so far as they relate to Public School teachers and pupils.
6. Music as prescribed for Forms I-IV of the Public Schools.
7. Drill and Calisthenics.

This course is comprehensive and well calculated for the most part to accomplish the desired result. The time allowed for the work, although perhaps as great as could have reasonably been insisted upon for compulsory training, considering all the circumstances of the needs of the Public Schools and the necessary outlay on the part of the students in attendance at the Model Schools, is beginning to be felt to be altogether too short to give young teachers a satisfactory preparation for the important duties they are about to assume.

The feeling in favor of extending the Model School term to the full year is becoming general throughout the teaching community.

The difficulty in the way is the matter of expense. To extend the term to the full year would more than double the time now occupied, and as a necessary consequence more than double the outlay required for maintenance.

In two instances the urgency for additional training for Model School students was felt to be so great, that steps were taken to carry this into effect, and in Toronto and Hamilton intending teachers must spend a full year in training in the Model School before being considered eligible for appointment on the City staff.

The methods for carrying this in effect differ in the two schools, but the same result is reached in each.

In Hamilton the plan adopted is briefly as follows:—During the first session September to December, the work is substantially the same as that prescribed for the County Model Schools; while the work for the second term consists of instruction from the Model School Master during the half of each day, the other half day being spent in actual class work, the following being approximately the programme followed:—The class is divided into two divisions, one of which receives instruction in the morning and teaches in the afternoon, while the other teaches in the morning and receives instruction in the afternoon.

A part of each half day is spent by the Model School Master in observing and criticizing the work of the section engaged in teaching during that half day.

The advantages of such an arrangement are:

1. Those derived from additional length of time in professional training. Although the short training of three or four months gives to the teacher who has received it vastly more power than would have been procured without any training at all, yet this short time only serves at best to enable the instructor to place a useful implement in the hands of an unskilled workman without having time to teach him how to use it. A man with a hammer stands a much better chance of driving a nail than the man who has no hammer; but the workman who not only has the hammer but has taken the necessary time and received the necessary instruction to learn how to use it will drive two nails to his one, and at the same time give a finish to the work that the other cannot by any possibility hope to accomplish. The necessity of TIME as a factor in producing satisfactory results in any department of school work runs great danger of being lost sight of in the disposition of the present age to accomplish everything in the shortest possible time. There is no doubt that clever schemes may be devised to give a readier and more thorough understanding of any complicated piece of mechanism, but the rate of acceleration of true mental growth produced by increased pressure would require an infinitesimally small mite to give the number expressing its measure an appreciable value; and even if we could by any hot-house process secure the luxuriance of tropical vegetation, we would find that the sturdy oak took quite as long to reach maturity as it did hundreds of years ago.

2. The advantages derived from actual practice in school room work. Ordinarily in Model and Normal School work the practical application

of the lessons learned is made in the presence of classes disciplined and managed by their own regular teacher. The student in training has no knowledge of their individual capacities and peculiarities; he can have but an imperfect conception of their previous knowledge of the subject he is called upon to teach; he can have made no study of the best methods of reaching their understanding; he cannot have made such a preparation of his lesson as will enable him to adapt it to their varied powers of receiving it; he cannot know whether he should pass from point to point by long or short steps; nor can he be ready to keep along a lesson with apt illustrations founded upon what he knows of their previous knowledge.

To say that he should perceive as his lesson proceeds whether he is going too rapidly or too slowly, whether he is keeping within the pupil's powers of comprehension or getting beyond it, is to assume the possession by him of the very tact and experience that he is now in attendance at the training school to acquire.

He may, it is true, be held to some extent accountable for failing to present his subject in such a manner as to sustain the interest and attention of his class, but even this will depend largely upon their general discipline, or it may be wholly due to a protracted, or exhausting, or difficult lesson immediately preceding the one in question. A student may pass with much distinction through the Normal or Model School, and meet with scant success when thrown upon his own resources in the practical management of a school. A good memory is almost sure to carry him through his written examination, and he easily learns to put a model lesson together with due regard to all the theoretical essentials of "concrete to abstract," "easy to difficult," "known to the unknown," etc., and to present it in proper outward form to a class that is just as likely to have known all about it before he started, or to know nothing about it when he has finished, as it is to have learned the lesson from his presentation of it. It is comparatively easy to learn the mechanism of constructing a model lesson in proper logical sequence, but to know whether a class can be led over a certain step in five minutes or fifty can be acquired only from actual experience in presenting the subject. I have known teachers in training outline for a single lesson as much as a class could properly overtake in a month. Nor is the power to present a few lessons, ever so perfectly, the whole or even the larger part of what in my experience is termed school keeping, and yet it is nearly all that the ordinary Model School, in the short time allotted to it, can undertake to accomplish. The power to handle a class or

a school cannot be learned theoretically. There is no royal road to it—it can be acquired only by experience extending over some definite considerable time. Nor can it properly be allowed that a class should be sacrificed in order that a teacher may obtain this experience. His faults should not be permitted to go undetected, and so be repeated and grow into evil habits, nor, above all, should the aspirant, who, through lack of natural power, can never be made into a true teacher, be permitted to enter the ranks. The counterfeit must be detected and stamped the instant it attempts to enter the general circulation. It seems, therefore, absolutely essential that any plan of training that pretends to prepare teachers for undertaking the actual work of the school room should furnish the means whereby the student may assume the full responsibility of carrying on a class or section of a class for a period sufficiently extended to test fully his ability in this direction. To do this the student in training takes charge of a class each half day for, say, a month. The work to be gone over in that time is accurately laid down for his guidance. He is informed of the progress, so far, of the pupils, in the different subjects for which he is required to assume the responsibility, satisfying himself on each point by his own careful examination of the class. The students thus employed meet together with the Model School Principal during the other half day, when rates of progress in different subjects are compared, the capacities and peculiarities of the class discussed, any difficulties in discipline or general class management are laid before the Principal, and instruction is given as to the usual (in simple cases) or best probable means (if the case presents unusual difficulty) of resolving them. A daily inspection of the class is made by the Principal or other competent critic. Any errors or wrong tendencies in the methods of giving instruction, or in any of the innumerable details of class management, are thus at once detected and the proper remedies applied. It can also be ascertained whether the teacher is making progress at a reasonable rate of speed towards the acquisition of the requisite degree of efficiency, or whether in fact such a condition is ever likely to be reached. Lest it may be thought that to entrust a class in this way wholly to the care of a student in training is fraught with serious danger to the well-being of the class, and that the interests of the pupils are being made subservient to those of the training school, it may be well to state that this method is pursued during the second half year of our Model School course after the student has fulfilled during the first half year all the requirements of the ordinary County Model School, including the final examination before the County Board of Examiners,

and that he now holds under the Regulations of the Education Department a licence to teach in any public school in the Province. Thus every precaution has been taken to predetermine, as far as possible, his fitness for the actual work of the school-room, and under daily inspection and instruction by the Principal it is scarcely possible that errors should long remain undetected, or that wrong tendencies should become crystallized into vicious habits. Any imperfections, weaknesses or shortcomings that may have become noticeable during the work of the previous session, but which were not considered of sufficient importance to reject the candidate in his examination, may, under such close supervision and guidance, be reduced to a minimum, if not wholly eradicated. If, however, these faults should appear ineradicable; if, after all the preliminary instruction in theory, methods and practice, the student is found wanting in tact, resources and governing power, and falls short of the standard laid down, when tested by the requirements of actual class management, all danger to the progress of the pupils can be obviated by removing the teacher.

The experiment of extending the Model School term was first tried in Hamilton in the session of Jan. to June, 1888. During the previous half year 37 students had attended the Model School for the usual term—Sept. to Dec. Of those who received certificates in December, nearly one-half obtained schools in the County; the remainder, numbering 19 students, most of whom intended to become teachers in the city, formed one first class for the full year's Model School term. Ten of those taught in the morning and nine in the afternoon, the rest of the time being spent in class with the Model School Principal. The classes taught by these students were in the Primary grades. Each class was divided into four or five sections of ten pupils each, and was taught by four of the teachers in training, two having charge in the morning and two in the afternoon. The work was so divided between the two teachers, that while one was giving instruction to a section in any subject, the other was supervising the desk work of the remaining sections. One of the two acted as teacher in charge of the class, and was responsible to the Head Master of the school for the proper reception and dismissal of the class, the yard discipline at recess, keeping the register, making out the various class reports, etc., the other teacher acting as assistant. These relative positions were reversed at stated intervals of one, two or three months, according to circumstances. The progress of these classes was carefully watched, and the work tested by comparing it with that done in grades taught by regular teachers. The presence of two teachers in each of

these classes secured stronger class oversight and more thorough training in continuity of application on the part of the pupils than was possible (except with the very best teachers) in classes of 50 or more pupils under a single regular teacher. The principal defect noted was one common to all teachers of short experience, no matter how carefully and thoroughly trained—want of thoroughness in results through lack of time given to drill and review. The mere act of imparting instruction, of telling news to an eager listener, of having pupils advance step by step unflatteringly as each new page in the development of a lesson is spread out to their mental view, has a strong attraction—almost a fascination—for the true teacher, and nearly in direct proportion to the pleasure derived from the first presentation of a lesson comes the distaste to testing whether the first impression has been sufficiently vivid to be of lasting value.

I have noticed this defect in teachers of comparatively long experience, and whose influence over the class was in every other respect of the highest type, but whose distaste for the drudgery of drill left the results of their work as tested by examination standards (not the truest or best, perhaps) no better than those achieved by teachers inferior to them in most other respects.

It became apparent as we carried on this extended course of Model School work that the knowledge necessary to pass the third class non-professional or (as it is now called) primary examination was not a sufficiently solid foundation on which to base the professional training of teachers. The student knew something of a large number of subjects, but not much of any of them. He lacked the conscious strength derived from knowing one thing well. He had never learned to think either connectedly or continuously.

No matter how exquisitely you may veneer this scrappy knowledge with a semblance of professional training, carefully given with due observance of all the necessary outward forms, you can never give to it that solidity of workmanship which constitutes one of the essential characteristics of a good teacher; you may build a good house on an indifferent foundation which does its duty of supporting the superstructure fairly well for a dozen years or so, or you may build the same house on a good foundation which will do its duty thoroughly and sturdily as long as the house shall last. In the case of inadequate fundamental work it will not be long before the rectangular door and window casings become parallelograms and the glass is fractured, and the doors plough deep curves in the floor, or stick at the top till the handles are wrenched off, and the wall paper rises in long diagonal waves, and dark rents shoot obliquely

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And none the less certainly will educational decrepitude be the result if the attempt is made to build the superstructure of professional training upon the pernicious foundation of insufficient literary culture.

We have found it necessary to debar any candidates holding lower than second class non-professional certificates from attendance during the second term of our Model School, with a view to receiving an appointment on the city staff of teachers, and candidates are so persistently encouraged to remain at the Collegiate Institute long enough to complete their studies for the Senior Leaving or First Class non-professional examination, that the percentage of those in attendance holding this higher qualification is steadily increasing.

Teachers who have been trained at the County Model Schools, and have been licensed to teach by the County Board of Examiners, must obtain a year's experience in full charge of a school, and be recommended by the Inspector before being eligible for admission to either of the Normal Schools. But in City Model Schools, when the full year's training is given, the teachers are permitted to pass directly to the Normal School, where they spend another half year and obtain permanent (second class) certificates. We are thus enabled in appointing teachers to make selections from those who have received continuous professional training for a year and a half.

The ordinary course of training for teachers thus consists of three distinct parts :

1. The Model School course ;
2. A course of practical experience extending over one or more years ;
3. The Normal School course.

The wisdom of taking the three divisions in this order may be considered as fairly open to criticism. The Normal School is designed to give the teacher superior training in all the departments of his professional work and supplement the defects and correct the deficiencies of the Model School course. The work already done in the Model School is repeated in the Normal School, and, in addition, the history and the science of Education are taken up. To repeat in the Normal Schools the work done in the Model Schools is to assume that the work of the latter has been imperfectly done. But if teachers have been imperfectly taught, if wrong methods have been inculcated, if distorted views of the aims and objects of Education have been given them, and if by some years of practice in the schoolroom these distortions have become more or less deep-seated and lasting, how much can

Normal School instruction and practice hope to accomplish, in a short time of five months, towards the eradication of such faults? Again, if the history and the science of Education have any place on the curriculum of professional training, certainly that place is at the beginning and not at the end of the course. If, then, the Normal Schools are to be retained as a necessary factor in the professional training of teachers, their more theoretical instruction should precede the practical application given in the Model Schools. The science of Education should come before the art of applying it to its practical ends; and, clearly, the knowledge of its history should not be postponed to the end of the course. So that if the professional training of the teacher is to be separated from his academical work, his introduction to it should take place in the Normal and not in the Model School.

He should have the ablest instructors at the outset of his course, so that his work may be begun, under the most favorable auspices, and where the most skilled master workman may lay down the lines on which his after career is to be built. This is the proper part of his course in which to receive lectures on the history and science of Education and methods of instruction, and especially (by observing its exemplification in the highest possible degree) to be led to the cultivation of the right spirit in the teacher. Then having obtained what knowledge he can of the history and science of Education, and having become inspired by the enthusiasm and zeal of the highest type of instructor to aim at a true standard of excellence in his chosen profession, let him pass to the Model or Practice School, to put into active operation, under a Master skilled in the art of applying them, the principles of the science which he has learned at the Normal School. It seems to me, however, that a city system of education may very properly embrace within its autonomy all the machinery necessary for the adequate training of its own teachers. In a properly organized system of City Schools, students have reaped the advantages accruing from attending a well equipped school in their earlier years, where proper mental growth has been carefully fostered, where an organic unity has been observed in the course of instruction, and where the proper symmetrical development of the whole child has been intelligently carried on.

A few years later, with more matured intelligence, through the unconscious effect of approved methods of instruction, they have been led to love study and to acquire proper methods of investigation, have acquired a power of working with a continuity of effort, and such an intelligent application of the best means of accomplishing desired ends that they

will pass through life not only fully charged, like a storage battery, with vast potentialities, but will be ready on occasion to change this potential energy into the energy of effective motion.

And still later in pursuing the Collegiate course, in which account is taken of the manner in which different subjects are presented to their minds by the teacher, they have become enabled to detect the proper logical sequence of a lesson, have recognized the device employed to arouse and retain attention, have been led intelligently to comprehend the skill with which the instructor passes, with longer or shorter strides, according to the needs of his pupils, along the series of salient points, attention to which is necessary in order to picture in the minds of the pupils a graphic outline of the subject under consideration.

Students who have been taught in such schools by the best methods throughout their Primary, Intermediate and High School courses of study have already received more than half the training which is to fit them to carry on the work of the teacher in the most successful and effective manner. There is no reason why, towards the end of his academic course, the student should not receive instruction in the history of Education, a most useful and interesting line of study even apart from its professional value. The science of Education may also be taken up, and the application of its principles exemplified in the manner in which the student himself receives his instruction in the various branches of his course.

If this preliminary study is followed by a year's work in a Model or Training School, whose course should include a more specialized study and investigation of principles and methods, accompanied by practical teaching under competent critics, carried on as nearly as possible under the conditions that would affect the teacher if he were conducting a school of his own, a very close approximation would, I think, be made towards the formation of the ideal teacher, as far, at any rate, as external forces can be made effective in this direction.

SHOULD THE ACADEMIC AND PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF TEACHERS BE COMBINED ?

By J. B. CALKIN, M.A., PRINCIPAL NORMAL SCHOOL, TRURO,
NOVA SCOTIA.

Education changes with the ages. As the traveller who journeys towards the rising sun needs to adjust his too faithful Waltham as he advances, that he may keep it in harmony with the time of his new meridian, so must each succeeding generation revise its educational theories and reform the work of its schools to suit new environments. Subjects of study and educational principles which satisfied one period, and seemed to be based on the most substantial and permanent foundation of wisdom and human necessity, are cast aside as effete or false, and new ones are substituted in their place.

The educationists of the present day claim to have made great advances on the seemingly crude notions and absurd practices of bygone generations, but the unrest which still prevails shows that we have not yet reached the Elysian fields that we are still following after, as those who have not yet obtained the object of pursuit. There is, indeed, an occasional shout, "Lo here! Eureka, Eureka!" For a moment there may be a halt, and wistful eyes are turned to observe the newly-discovered wonder, and then the chase is resumed.

Ruskin tells us that the apothegm—"Know what you have to do, and do it," expresses the great principle of success in every direction of human effort.

How we wish our fathers had been more wise. The generations which preceded us evidently worked with a will;—pity they had not known what to do. They seem ever to have been following after a fleeting and visionary good, like one pursuing the mirage of the desert. We may not suppose that all the world were fools before our day. Conditions change, and the work of the present was not the work of the past. The world is an evolution. The generations which preceded us formed so many different epochs or transition stages in the great unfolding. Their world was imperfect without us; ours would have been impossible without them. We are the heirs of all the ages. It is our part to ascertain the present truth and work out its principles. Possibly our thoughts and their outcome may endure. We may not be builders for ourselves alone.

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The Normal School is a modern idea. It is the child of the specializing tendency of our age and the sister of the Schools of Law, Medicine and Theology. But Normal Schools, though of recent origin, have changed their complexion and character considerably since they came into existence. The question forming the subject of this paper could scarcely have been raised, much less was it of practical moment, a few years ago. In the early history of most Normal Schools, Academic work occupied a large proportion of the time. The conditions under which they existed made such an arrangement necessary. The general standard of education was low, and the public schools did not afford facility for the acquisition of such scholarship as qualified for the teacher's office; hence the Normal School was charged with the double function of giving matter and method,—showing what to teach and how to teach. The Normal School was usually first and chiefly an Academy, teaching all kinds of subjects; secondly and subordinately, it was a training school. It assumed as much of the professional element as it could apply to its students successfully and with proper consideration for their primary interests, namely, the acquisition of such scholarship as would secure their licence. In being too professional it would have defeated its own ends by loading the students with more than they could carry, and thus establishing conditions which would deprive them of licence, or drive them from the Institution. The rewards of high attainments did not sufficiently indemnify the students for the time and means expended in their acquisition.

But the educational conditions under which we are working to-day are greatly changed. There is no lack of well-equipped and efficient high schools and academies. They are fully competent to impart the scholarship required by our teachers. This being the case, it may be reasonably regarded as a waste of means and energy to require the Normal School to duplicate this work. With a curriculum extending over several years, providing a preparatory academic course for the earlier years before taking up professional work, the Normal School could certainly cover the whole ground of imparting scholarship and special preparation for teaching. I see no objection to such an arrangement except its lack of economy. It would involve much more expensive equipments in the Normal School, as well as additional expense and inconvenience to the students, by bringing them long distances for what they could get nearer home at the village high school or the county academy.

The endeavor to carry on academic and professional work simul-

taneously, within the short course provided in our Normal Schools, though very commonly practised, can result only in very partial success. The multiplicity of subjects and the two-fold aim involved in such an arrangement are distracting, and do not permit that concentration of thought and effort essential to the following out of a great purpose in any direction.

Again, successful prosecution of the proper work of the Normal School demands no inconsiderable amount of scholarship,—in fact, quite as much as the non-professional certificate represents, and it demands also all the mental discipline arising out of the acquisition of that scholarship. My experience in Normal School work justifies the opinion that, to a very great extent, the time and energy expended along professional lines are wasted on students who have not previously received pretty thorough academic training. Lack of scholarship and immaturity of mind form an insurmountable barrier to the apprehension, not to say comprehension, of pedagogical principles as well to the development of practical skill. Too frequently, also, effort to impart professional qualifications to such students is worse than useless. They go out under the auspices of the Normal School; they are its epistles read and known of all. The Normal School is judged by its fruits. "A little learning is a dangerous thing."

From the foregoing considerations I am convinced that the scholarship demanded by the licence to teach with the corresponding non-professional certificate should form an essential condition of admission to the Normal School. The Institution could then restrict its efforts mainly to its own special field of professional work.

Here the question presents itself,—What is professional work? In answering this question my first remark is,—We should distinguish between academic subjects and academic work. The Normal School is differentiated from the Academy more by its aims and methods than by its subjects.

Certain subjects may indeed be considered in a special sense as professional; but even with some of these the professional character consists largely in the method of presentation and treatment. Psychology for instance, is properly regarded as lying at the foundation of the principles of method and school management. But that it may prove thus helpful, the teacher must not look at the subject *ab extra*, as made up of abstract principles and definitions to be presented by didactic instruction; but he must evolve its fact from introspection, or find confirmation of second-hand knowledge in his own consciousness. In like manner

there is a professional aspect in which the so-called non-professional or academic subjects may be regarded, which is appropriate and peculiar to the work of the Normal School indeed, which forms an essential feature in the preparation of the teacher for the successful prosecution of his work. To this phase of academic subjects I shall give some attention later on.

While the Normal School should aim chiefly to promote the professional qualifications of its students, I would not restrict it within the hard and fast lines of its specialty. Efforts to advance the scholarship of the teacher are always in order. It is true that the most exclusively professional work of the Normal School cannot fail to contribute largely to the mental furniture of its students, but the Institution may well afford to expend some direct effort on this object. It may be contended that this Institution has no more concern with the subjects of the Common School curriculum than the other professional schools have—for instance, the Law School or the Medical School. It appears to me, however, that the question is not to be determined by any comparison of this kind. The relation of the teacher's work to these subjects is very different from the lawyer's or the physician's. A high degree of success, or for that matter of success in any degree, in these professions does not depend on such fundamental knowledge of various academic subjects as forms a matter of necessity to the teacher; for example, the rationale of the rules of arithmetic or certain underlying principles of physical geography.

Without prejudice to its professional character or work, the Normal School might aim to round out and enrich the academic qualifications of its students. It should not be a mill to grind crude material into some approach to shapeliness and due proportion. But under conditions which are likely to prevail for some time to come, students who are admitted to the Normal School duly accredited by the academy and certificated by government officials will be liable to show weakness in some departments of scholarship. The non-professional certificate, I apprehend, will be based on a general average of qualifications, and it may be held by persons of low attainments in some branches. Now, I would have the Normal School search out defects of this kind and strengthen what is weak.

Then I would like to see the Normal School do something to develop the love of study and inspire its students with higher ideals. Certain lines of work should be selected for this purpose, according to the judgment of those in authority. I should feel inclined to emphasize Litera-

ture and Natural Science, seeking in the one field to develop a literary taste and broader views of human interests, and in the other to awaken a scientific spirit and develop some degree of facility in laboratory work and original investigation. The well-equipped teacher needs to know something of everything and everything of something. The Normal School perhaps cannot give him such an outfit. The fact is that every school has its individuality of character, and needs special qualifications in its teacher, which must be acquired on its own ground. The Normal School should try to give the teacher the key of knowledge by awakening his perceptions and making him responsive to the demands of his environment.

I have said the various subjects of study may be looked at from two different points of view,—the learner's standpoint and the teacher's standpoint. The correctness of this distinction is evident from the fact that many who acquire knowledge with wonderful facility and have made great attainments in scholarship have little power to communicate what they know to others. Their failure as teachers must be owing to faulty modes of presentation. Although they have as learners traversed the whole field of their subject, when they undertake to teach they fail to adapt themselves to the wants of the learner in the various stages of progress. They have never analyzed the processes by which they acquired knowledge, and they have forgotten the steps by which they reached their present position. Probably they never clearly apprehended the relation of these steps to each other. Standing in the clear light of present knowledge, they simply know what they know, but do not know how they know. May it not be that profound knowledge may sometimes be a cause of failure in the art of teaching? Through processes of thought, the deeply learned student has travelled far away from concrete fact, and now looks at his abstract generalizations as simple truths which everybody should understand as well as he does. The very brilliancy of the light in which he stands may so blind him to his educational history that he cannot discern the path by which he felt his way in the dim light of the early morning.

Hence as a teacher, the scholarly man needs to review his knowledge with the object of discovering its historic development in his own mind; he needs to retrace his course and mark the successive steps by which he reached his present standpoint. It would seem to me that some guidance of its students along this line of professional examination of the various subjects which constitute the matter of our teaching in the public schools forms a very important part of Normal School work. This treat-

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ment of these subjects should comprise an examination of their educational values for purposes of mental discipline, and the kind of treatment they should receive to secure this discipline. It should look at the different subjects and the concrete facts of each subject in their relation to each other, and at the subjects and their various parts as they are related to the gradually unfolding mind of the child. In this way alone can the teacher arrive at any accurate conception of the form and order in which he should present his topics, so as to adapt himself to the mental condition of the learner and secure to him real knowledge.

But I fear this paper has been already too long, and I shall conclude by the following summary of what I have imperfectly suggested :

1. Possession at least of the minimum scholarship required for licence to teach should form an essential condition of admission to the Normal School,—and for the following reasons :

(a) Unless the course is a long one, involving extensive preparatory study, both academic and professional work cannot be satisfactorily carried on in the Normal School ;

(b) Numerous and efficient High Schools being provided for academic work, it is unnecessary and a waste of energy to duplicate this work in the Normal School ;

(c) Increased intelligence, greater maturity of mind, more concentration of energy and freedom from the disturbing thought of an impending examination for licence will afford conditions for the more successful prosecution of professional work.

2. As full and accurate scholarship is of the highest importance to the teacher, the Normal School should aim to round out defects and strengthen what is weak in the academic qualifications of its students ; it should endeavor also to inspire them with higher ideals of scholarship, guiding them in the prosecution of some advanced work, especially laboratory work in natural science and the critical study of literature.

3. Academic subjects have a professional side, especially within the sphere of the Normal School. The ordinary student is disposed to regard his subject or particular topic as an entity, complete in itself, and has little thought of any relation between himself and that subject ; the teacher looks at each as a part of a great whole, he aims to co-ordinate the parts and adjust them to the varying phases of mental growth.

HOW SHALL THE NORMAL SCHOOL DEVELOP PRACTICAL SKILL IN TEACHING ?

BY JOHN A. MACCABE, M.A., LL.D., PRINCIPAL OTTAWA NORMAL SCHOOL.

Before entering on the topic assigned to me in this section, "How shall the Normal School develop practical skill in teaching?" I wish to present a few introductory ideas about Normal School Training in general—ideas which, I think, bear closely on the special subject matter of this paper.

The Normal School question has passed through a variety of stages; and we have now reached that stage when all are agreed on the value of such an institution as part of a perfect system of education in any country. As Fitch says: "Its existence is a recognition of the principle that there is, in the teacher's profession, the same difference which is observable in all other human employment, between the skilled and the unskilled practitioner; and that the difference depends, in a large measure, on a knowledge of the best rules and methods which have to be used, and of the principles which underlie these methods. To the contention that the art of teaching is to be learned by practice alone, that it is a matter of experience only, that a man becomes a teacher as he becomes a swimmer, not by talking about it, but by going into the water and learning to keep his head above the surface, it is scarcely necessary to reply. Experience, it is true, is a good school; but the fees are high, and the course is apt to be long and tedious. And it is a great part of the economy of life to know how to turn to profitable account the accumulated experience of others. I know of few things much more pathetic than the utterances of some masters at their annual conferences at which, one after another, even of those who have fought their way to the foremost rank of their profession, rises up to say, 'we have been making experiments all our lives; we have learned much, but we have learned it at the expense of our pupils; and much of the knowledge which has thus slowly come into our possession might easily have been imparted at the outset, and have saved us from many mistakes.'"

Closely related to the question of the need or no need of the Normal School Training is another question—Whether Education is an Art or Science. It is both. It aims at the accomplishment of a piece of work and is therefore an Art. It seeks to find out a rational basis for such

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rules as it implies, and is, therefore, a Science. Down, very deep, at the root of all our failures and successes lie some philosophic truths—it may be of ethics, or of physiology, or of psychology—which we have either heeded or disregarded; and the full recognition of which is needed to make us perfect teachers.

Teaching, therefore, is not a blind routine, but an Art which has a definite end in view. An Art implies an artist who works by systematic rules. The processes and rules of art explicitly or implicitly evolve the principles involved in the science or theory of education, while the science of education is, itself, founded on the science of mind or psychology.

The complete equipment and training of the teacher for his profession comprehend, therefore:

I. A knowledge of the nature of the being to be instructed—a knowledge of mind and body, a knowledge of psychology and physiology ;

II. A knowledge of the subjects of instruction ;

III. A knowledge of the best methods of teaching and governing and

IV. A knowledge of the principles and practice of the best masters of the Art of Teaching, so that he may learn from the philosophy that teaches by examples.

With regard to the first, Dr. Youmans in his " Culture demanded by Modern Life," says : " Whatever questions of the proper subjects to be taught, their relative claims, or the true methods of teaching them, may arise, there is a prior and fundamental enquiry into the nature, capabilities and requirements of the being to be taught. A knowledge of the being to be trained, as it is the basis of all intelligent culture, must be the first necessity of the teacher."

All true methods of teaching must have an exact scientific relation to the nature of the machinery that is to be set in motion ; a relation which can be understood only by a careful study of the machinery itself. If it is a sort of machinery which manifests its energies in acts of observation, perception, remembrance, reflection and reasoning, and depends for its efficacy on attention arising out of interest, and leading to well-regulated volitions, the teacher must, therefore, study these phenomena—subjectively in relation to his own conscious experience, and objectively as exhibited in the minds of his pupils. Regarding, further, this network of energies as connected with a base to which we give the name, *mind*, he must proceed to study the nature of mind in general, and especially note the manner in which it acts in the acquisition of ideas.

In a lecture delivered some years ago by Dr. Youmans at the College

of Preceptors, London, England, he eloquently vindicated the claims of the body of the child to that consideration, which educators frequently deny it, and the consequent importance to them of sound physiological knowledge. With singular force of reasoning he showed that the healthiness of the brain as the organic seat of the mind is the essential basis of the teacher's operations; that the efficiency of the brain depends, in a great degree, on the healthy condition of the stomach, lungs, heart and skin, and that this condition is very much affected by the teacher's application of the laws of health founded on physiology. His general remarks on education, and especially on physical education, are very valuable. "The prominent question," he says, "is, how may the child and youth be developed healthfully and vigorously, bodily, mentally and morally," and science alone can answer it by a statement of the laws upon which that development depends. Ignorance of these laws must inevitably involve mismanagement. That there is a large amount of mental perversion and absolute stupidity, as well as bodily disease produced in school by measures that operate to the prejudice of the growing brain, is not to be doubted; that dullness, indocility and viciousness are frequently aggravated by teachers incapable of discriminating between their mental and bodily causes is undeniable.

With regard to the second part of the necessary equipment of the successful teacher—a knowledge of the subjects of instruction—I shall quote the words of an eminent Canadian educationist: "Clear teaching is necessary, and to this, thorough knowledge of the subject of instruction is necessary."

What a teacher does not know he cannot teach; what a teacher does not know well he cannot teach well. To know a subject well, it must be known in its relations to kindred subjects. A single isolated fact, or principle, is not knowledge; to become knowledge, to have any effect on intelligence, it must be grasped in its *relations*. It follows, then, that an instructor must know far more of a subject than he intends to teach. If in Mathematics, for example, he is ignorant of Algebra, he cannot teach Arithmetic so well as if he were a skilled Algebraist. If he knows only the four fundamental rules of arithmetic, his teaching of these will not deserve the name of teaching. Indeed, since all knowledge is one, it may be truly said that the broader and more thorough a teacher's scholarship is, the better he will teach even the elements of knowledge. He will know his topic better, for he will see it in its relations; he will know its several parts better; he will be more fertile in illustration and all skilled devices of the teacher's art; he will impart

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some *educative* value even to the simplest lessons. They are clearly wrong, therefore, who take the ground that the primary teacher need "know" only what he is going to teach. The primary teacher, it is sometimes argued, is to give the elements of reading, writing and numbers; and if he can read, write and cypher, he is qualified as an educator; the *minimum* of knowledge to be imparted fixes the *maximum* of knowledge for the teacher. If this view were acted upon, primary instruction would be of the most mechanical kind. The teacher is, himself, without interest in the subject which he feebly comprehends; his own powers have never been called into vigorous action, how can he awaken interest and incite to vigorous effort? The truth of the matter is, that just because the primary subjects have in themselves but little culture value, it is the more necessary that the teacher should have a liberal culture as well as the power of insight into human nature. For in this stage of development above all others, it is the *method*, rather than the matter, that is of greatest value. "The child is to be trained towards the perfection of manhood, his nature brought into fullest activity on all sides, and his powers developed in harmonious completeness, so far as time and circumstances will permit." This view of primary work is not an ideal one which we may imagine but never hope to realize. The standard aimed at is easily within the reach of the earnest cultivated teacher; it is far beyond the crude empiric whose fitness for the teacher's high vocation is an imperfect knowledge of the mechanical *trivium*, reading, writing and arithmetic. In more advanced work, it is a truism that good knowledge is necessary to good teaching. The teacher must command the confidence of his class; they must have respect for his character and admiration for his attainments. Thoroughly master of his subject, he moves along with conscious yet unpretentious power, and his pupils look up to him as soldiers to an able leader. Briefly, in all grades of teaching, from the Kindergarten to the University, wherever there is to be true teaching, wherever power is to be developed and character formed, there ought to be broad and accurate knowledge and a good degree of general culture.

The third part of the successful teacher's equipment—a knowledge of the best methods of teaching and government—will at once commend itself as being absolutely necessary: I need not say anything on this point.

The fourth part of the equipment of the teacher—the study of principles in the practice of those who mastered them—is as necessary and as helpful as any of the others. What those who have most profoundly

investigated educational principles have written about those who have most successfully carried out its processes based on those principles have done cannot be neglected by a teacher who wishes to rise to power in his profession. We may all learn something from the successful experience of others. De Quincey, as quoted by Quipp in his "Educational Reformers," has pointed out that a man who takes up any pursuit, without knowing what advances others have made in it, works at a great disadvantage. He does not apply his strength in the right direction; he troubles himself about small matters and neglects great; he falls into errors which have long since been exploded. To this Quipp adds:—"I venture to think, therefore, that practical men, in education as in most other things, may derive benefit from the knowledge of what has been already said and done by the leading men in it, both past and present," what has been said and done by such men as Comenius, Ascham, The Jesuits, Locke, Pestalozzi, Froebel, Jacotot, Arnold and Spencer.

As a starting point for a discussion of my special topic, I take for granted that in the four fields I have now set forth, the student is thoroughly educated—that, here, the Normal School has done its work, has done it well, and has prepared the student for the highest success in the practical part of his course. This practical part I shall now consider under the following heads:

I. Sufficient time for the training of the teacher in the theory and art of his profession.

II. The methods presented and discussed by the teachers of method are exemplified by the teachers of method themselves on a class of Normal School students, or on a class brought in from the Model or practice School, and are exemplified by one or more of the regular teachers of the Model School of the same class. This is extended to regular visits paid to the Model School by the students, where the ordinary routine of the school work is carried on in their presence. All this may be put under the head of *observation*.

III. When any one of these lessons is conducted before the students, they are asked, at the close, to set forth, under the supervision and criticism of the Normal School teachers, the plan followed in presenting the lesson, to give the various steps of the lesson, the importance of each step in itself and in its place; in the logical sequence of the presentation this may be called the work of *reproduction, application and illustration*.

IV. Students under supervision of Normal or Model School teachers may take charge of classes made up of Normal School students, or classes

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from or in the Model School, and assume full responsibility. This may be set down as *Trial Teaching*.

V. This work of the students—teaching and governing a class of Normal School students and Model School pupils—is criticized by Normal or Model, or Normal and Model School teachers.

VI. Students are called on to criticize what their fellow-students also teach; those criticisms are, themselves, criticized by the Normal or Model School teachers, or both.

I think that those six headings will exhaust all that goes to build up practical skill in teaching. I shall now proceed to give a few ideas under each head:—I. TIME.—The longer the time, the larger will be the sphere of professional studies, and the greater the opportunity for more definite and continuous Model School practice. Whether the course is one combining academic and professional training, or a course which is purely professional, the length of time will depend on the scholarship of the student on entering. If the course is a purely professional one, and the qualifications for admission are the same as, or equivalent to, those required by the Ontario Normal Schools—a second-class non-professional certificate, with one year's successful teaching—at least a year's professional training in the Normal School is necessary. And one cannot conceal the fact, that no matter how high a student scholarship may be, knowledge which would suit a citizen is not quite in the shape in which it will best serve the teacher in his work.

It needs re-casting, re-arranging. If, as in some city training schools, the admirable plan of sending the students for certain periods as "apprentices" to the best teachers and best schools of the city is adopted, a still longer time may be needed. This plan would well repay consideration and discussion; but as it is somewhat apart from the special topic of this paper, I merely refer to it. Under the circumstances mentioned above, one year is the shortest time in which complete and thorough professional training may be accomplished.

II. OBSERVATION.—The second means by which we may give the student the highest measure of practical skill in teaching is *Observation*. The student "observes" model lessons presented by skilled teachers. To this end, the student must in the first place be *prepared* to observe; must know what to look for. An inexperienced teacher will prove an unintelligent observer unless he is taught *how* to observe. There are three ways in which this may be done. The model teacher announces the subject matter of the lesson he will present to a certain class, say, two days hence. The first step taken by the students after this announcement is

a thorough preparation by them of the *matter* of the lesson. They should learn all about the subject in itself and in its relations. When this has been done, the model teacher orally sets forth the various parts of the plan he intends to follow in presenting the lesson. The students take notes of this plan or scheme, and watch its use and development in the actual work later. The preparation of the *matter* of the lesson, by the students, is indispensable in all cases.

Again, the model teacher may outline on a blackboard, placed in such a way as to be seen by the students but not by the pupils under instructions, the plan he intends to follow. The students thus see every step of the lesson.

A third plan is to give the students "general" headings, and ask them to make a mental scheme or plan of the lesson under these headings as the lesson proceeds; this mental scheme or plan they are called to reproduce later, either orally or in writing.

In my own classes in the Ottawa Normal School I give a *general* plan such as the following. It is used by the students in their observation, in preparation of the lessons they are called on to teach, and in the criticisms they are called on to offer on the teaching by their fellow-students.

Observe—The *Introduction*.—It must not be too long; it must be based on questioning; it must not be a speech or story. It is said that every lesson should hold out its two hands,—one to knowledge obtained in the past, the other to knowledge to be obtained in the future. Notice the effect of these purposes for which the Introduction is used: (a) to adjust knowledge already in the mind or easy of suggestion to the mind, for the purpose of engrafting the new knowledge on it; (b) to prepare the mind itself,—to plough and pulverize, as it were, the soil of the mind, to receive the seed to be sown there later; (c) to awaken interest and attention, and put the class in good humor with the teacher and the work.

Observe—The *Lesson proper*.—The preparation made for it by the teacher; the presentation, its clearness and completeness; questioning form, how distributed; correction of errors; the amount and manner of review or drill; explanations, illustrations, expedients.

Observe—The *Teacher*.—His language, accuracy, energy, self-command, his manner generally, his control of the class.

Observe—The *Class*.—The attention, how obtained; not by begging or commanding, but by calling forth *interest*; the order of the class, their answers, their general progress.

Observe—The *strong points* of the lesson, the weak points.

The following plan of *general* observation is used in the English training schools :—

Observe—The *matter of the Lesson*.—(a) Its amount, (b) its fitness for the class, (c) its interest and usefulness.

Observe—The *method of the Lesson*.—(a) The mode of its introduction, (b) its arrangement, (c) the style of questioning, (d) the completeness of the drill or review, (e) the effectiveness of the oral illustrations, (f) the skill with which books, maps, apparatus and blackboard are handled.

Observe—The *language of the Teacher*.—(a) Accuracy, (b) fluency, (c) simplicity, (d) fitness for the purpose and the class.

Observe—The *Order of the Class*.—(a) The means by which it is secured, (b) the behavior and animation of the children, (c) their readiness to respond to questions.

Observe—The *Results*.—(a) The final outcome of the lesson, its relation to what has been known before, and to what is to be learned hereafter ; (b) the degree in which it is likely to be remembered or to be worth remembering. The last phrase is a very suggestive one.

III. REPRODUCTION.—The third means by which we may increase the practical skill of the student in teaching may be called the Reproduction of the plan of the lesson, either in general or particular terms, as it was presented by the model teacher,—that is, the students, under the headings suggested, reproduce the work of the model teacher, and, for each step, suggest a reason why that step was taken, to what end that step was expected to lead, and its success in accomplishing that end. It is unnecessary to say that it is this which will make "Observation" valuable and helpful. Unless the student is called on to give the results of his "observation," and unless his reproduced picture of the teacher's plan and purpose and work is carefully and thoroughly criticized and corrected, "observation" loses more than half its good effect.

IV. The next step taken by the student is the actual work of teaching. Practice in teaching is an essential part of his training. There are, in teaching, many points which cannot be discovered or known, unless the student comes in contact with the pupil. Consequently to secure that ability which is necessary to the success of a teacher, there must be an opportunity of meeting and mingling with the pupils in their classes, not as an observer, but as a teacher.

For each lesson he is about to teach, the student makes out a plan or programme of the lesson, and hands it to the critic-teacher for examination, for comparison with the lesson as actually presented, and for criticism later.

The first trial is sometimes made on a class of Normal School students. With such a class, the only part of the student-teacher's work which can be fairly tested is the method of *presenting* the subject,—the *presentation* simply and nothing more. Such a plan, therefore, is valuable to this extent, but beyond this, except for the confidence a trial with *any* class will give, it is not of much value.

The next or the first trial may be made on a small class of pupils brought in from the Model School. This is the best plan. In presence of the critic teacher and all or a division of the Normal School students the student-teacher makes the trial. For this he should be surrounded with all the favorable circumstances possible—good preparation, a good plan, a sympathetic critic-teacher, a sympathetic group of observing class-mates. It is a question open to discussion, whether the student teacher should be interrupted by the critic-teacher during the progress of the lesson—interrupted for the purpose of correcting some error or some false step, or clearing up some obscure point.

At another stage, the student-teacher is put in charge of a class in the Model School.

In arranging the order of these trial lessons, two plans may be adopted: the student-teacher may be just assigned to the lowest class, and called on to give a series of lessons in that class involving *all* the subjects of the curriculum of that class; then placed in the next higher class and asked to follow a similar course, and so on, in succeeding classes. Or the student is assigned *one subject*, such as *reading*, through *all* the classes, beginning with the lowest; then grammar, through all the classes; then arithmetic, and so on.

V. The students now pass under criticism for this trial teaching. The true practice school is not a place where young teachers are simply criticized for their faults. It is a place where whatever is excellent in their character or their modes of management and methods of teaching is commended, and where they are encouraged to strengthen themselves in every proper way for doing the best work they can do. The first act of the critic-teacher should, if possible, be to commend. The beginner is to be encouraged by gentle and wise counsel from his critic-teacher, to supplement his deficiencies and overcome his defects. The proper individuality of the teacher should not be interfered with, but his teaching must be in accord with the known and acknowledged principles of the science of education.

The value of practice or trial teaching, like every other work of a learner, depends largely on the criticisms which follow it. And in these

criticisms, reasons based on sound philosophy should be given for the opinions expressed and conclusions reached. General criticism is of little value. "You taught a pretty good lesson," or "It was not so bad," is of little or no value to the young teacher. As has been said, the criticism should be based on sound principles, and arranged on a systematic plan like one of those suggested in a former part of this paper.

Only in this way will it be helpful to the student-teacher. After the criticism is given, the student should be allowed to make any explanation he desires to make with respect to the points criticized.

VI. I now reach the last stage of the student-teacher's work in perfecting himself in the art of teaching—the criticisms he is called on to make on the lessons taught by his fellow-students. He is now a critic of the teacher's art.

If his former work in observation, in reproduction, application and illustration, in his own trial teaching and in grasping the full force of the criticisms which he has undergone has been well done, then this last step will be very helpful.

But here, again, there must be system—system like that suggested before, and he must be criticized for this work as for any other. A very good plan is to arrange matters so that the student-critic gives his criticism under the supervision of one or more of the Normal School staff, who will, as a court of appeal, confirm or set aside these judgments. In calling on the student to criticize, a "division of labor" may be useful, as very frequently, when the student attempts to deal with the whole lesson, the criticism is superficial and inadequate. One student-critic may discuss the introduction, another the presentation, another the mode of questioning, and another the power of illustration, etc., care being taken to have these given in proper order. Each of those plans should receive its due share of employment.

In many practical schools, the regular work of teaching in the Model School is done by student-teachers exclusively, generally those of the last half of the second year of their Normal school course. Such students are very well prepared to do their work. But, for my own part, I prefer the plan adopted in the Ontario Model Schools, that of having a regular permanent teacher for each class, one who will carry on the work of that class continuously and systematically, and who will act as critic teacher when the students of the Normal School take charge.

The value of trial or practice teaching in the Model Schools attached to the Normal Schools is decried by some on the ground that the management of a single class is little or no help to the teacher for the future

work in teaching and governing a school of five or six classes. I shall not discuss this matter here, as it is beyond the scope of this paper, but that the complaint was, in some places, found worthy of serious consideration is shown by the fact that a few years ago the Training Schools in Dublin, Ireland, actually organized a school of five classes selected from the Model School pupils, and placed over it a single teacher, whose management of the school was intended to be a model to the students in training. I do not think, however, that the plan usually adopted in American Normal Schools is so weak in this particular as is alleged.

I have now, ladies and gentlemen, very briefly and very imperfectly presented to you a few thoughts on this most important topic. When I consented to prepare and read this paper, I knew it would be followed by "discussion," and I knew that from this discussion would arise so many valuable hints and criticisms, that what I have left undone will be accomplished in this way. Ladies and gentlemen, the subject is now with you.

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PUBLIC SCHOOL SECTION.

Wednesday afternoon, 3 p m.

This Section organized by appointing MR. LACROIX, Principal of Montcalm School, as Chairman, and MR. J. L. WALTON as Secretary.

MR. LACROIX opened the Session at 3 o'clock by thanking the Members for the honor they had done him in appointing him their President, and then called upon MR. W. B. T. MACAULAY, B.A., to read his paper on "Physical Culture in Public Schools."

An interesting discussion ensued. MR. A. R. SHEWAN spoke strongly in favor of military drill in public schools.

MR. REYNOLDS endorsed fully all that had been said by MR. MACAULAY

MR. FRASER argued that one trouble to contend with is a want of time and room. He also asked for more information as to system. MR. MACAULAY explained more fully his method. MR. WALTON spoke with reference to the objection of drilling in the same room in which the regular work of the school was conducted.

MR. MACAULAY explained the manner in which he would follow out the plan adopted in the United States.

MR. GEO. FAMELART thought MR. MACAULAY's paper a very good one. He said that the use of gymnastics was the true method for developing the muscles of the young. In France, the system was followed thoroughly.

MR. DEMERS admired the paper read by MR. MACAULAY, and spoke of the importance of the subject as an assistance in the discipline of the school.

The CHAIRMAN then called upon MRS. J. P. NOYES of Waterloo, Que. to read her paper on "Temperance Teaching in the Public Schools." The paper was read.

MR. MUNROE of Ottawa said we owe a debt of gratitude to Mrs. NOYES and the ladies whom she represents. In Ontario, no legislation on the subject has yet taken place.

MR. MCJANET, Ottawa, thought there should be text-books on the subject for use in public schools. In the absence of books, every teacher should be a text-book in himself.

MR. FRASER thought the ladies of the W. C. T. U. deserve great credit for what they have done in the past.

MRS. NOYES complained of Cutter's Intermediate Physiology being only adapted to grades below the High School, and containing too many technical terms. It lacks 29 pages on temperance, and contains such expressions as *abuse* of alcohol and tobacco, thus advocating the *moderate use* of them.

The work of this Session concluded with the adoption of the following Resolution, moved by Principal MUNROE, seconded by MR. MCJANET:—

"That, in the opinion of this Section, all teachers should use every effort, both by precept and example, to discountenance the use of alcohol and narcotics among teachers and pupils."—Carried.

Number of members present, 52.

JOHN L. WALTON,
Secretary.

PUBLIC SCHOOL SECTION.

Thursday Afternoon.

Meeting called to order at 3.10 by the President, MR. LACROIX, who introduced MR. A. MCKAY, Supervisor of Schools, Halifax.

MR. MCKAY read an excellent paper on "School Preparation for Industrial Pursuits." Discussion followed.

DR. ROBINS stated that something in the way of industrial training had been attempted in Montreal, but what was needed was some generous hearted man to furnish an endowment.

MR. REYNOLDS did not think the endowment plan feasible.

MR. FRASER asked, "How is it possible to make provision for special training in Public Schools?" Drawing has, until lately, been much neglected in Ontario Public Schools.

MR. MCALLISTER, Toronto, thought the paper an admirably arranged one, but also thought the difficulty could not be met in ordinary elementary schools. Industrial Evening schools are the proper places to teach manual training to apprentices, to whom diplomas should be granted when they shew proficiency.

MR. HENSTREIDE complained of lack of practical training.

MR. COWLEY thought the educational tendencies of the future would be on the lines of industrial training.

After remarks from MR. FAMELART, MR. MACKINNON and MR. MCKAY the discussion closed by the Section passing the following Resolution, moved by MR. R. H. COWLEY, seconded by MR. MUNRO, Ottawa: "That, in the opinion of this meeting, it is consonant with sound educational principles that training in our public schools be so modified as to ensure the harmonious development of the physical and spiritual faculties."—Carried.

DR. ROBINS then read his paper on the "Study of Form in the Public Schools." This paper was very interesting, and was illustrated by numerous practical demonstrations on the blackboard.

DR. INCH expressed his heartfelt thanks to DR. ROBINS for his valuable paper.

MR. TUCKER stated that the magnificent system of schools in the Province of Quebec is largely due to the efforts of DR. ROBINS.

MR. LEFEBVRE, in seconding a vote of thanks to DR. ROBINS, said that the demonstrations shewn on the blackboards by the lecturer were illustrations of manual training.

Number of members present, 68.

Meeting closed at 5.45 P.M.

JOHN L. WALTON,
Secretary.

PHYSICAL CULTURE IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

BY W. B. T. MACAULAY, B.A.

MR. CHAIRMAN, LADIES AND GENTLEMEN: The subject on which I have the honor to present a paper is one which is receiving a great deal of attention from Educationists in many parts of the world. Being interested to a very great extent in this matter, and desiring to obtain the fullest information possible, I have been in communication during the last year with the leaders in this movement throughout the United States, England, Germany and Sweden. Much information has been received; and when I mention Dr. E. M. Hartwell, of Boston; Dr. W. G. Anderson, late of Brooklyn, now of Yale University, and Principal of the Chautauqua Physical School; Dr. Carl Betz, of Kansas City; Dr. Seaver, of Yale; Dr. Hall, of Haverford College; Mr. Suder, of Chicago, and Dr. Stecher, of the German Turnebund, St. Louis; the clerks of the Boards of Cleveland, London, Liverpool, Manchester, Leeds; and last, but by no means least, Hon. E. F. Gustrin, Counsellor of the Ecklesiastik Departementet, Stockholm, Sweden, the home of the Ling System—from this you may judge that the information received has been very valuable. I received so much information regarding Physical Culture, regarding each particular system, its history, prominent features and working, that I felt somewhat lost as to how I should treat the subject; but I have tried to follow the plan of the old Scottish Divines, who after preaching or reading for an hour or two to their long-suffering flock, came at last to what they called the "practical application."

To lay down a course of study in all the departments of an educational

institution is by no means an easy task, but one thing such a course would surely contain and make compulsory is a scheme for physical training. Not the kind of sporadic exercise—it cannot be called training in a proper sense—to which young men in college subject themselves in the form of boating, baseball, football, lacrosse, etc., with the belief that they are doing great things for themselves, yet instead often planting in their bodies the seeds of irremediable troubles, but exercise that in kind and quantity is directed by the most enlightened science. In the interest of both girls and boys, too much attention cannot be laid on a subject to which so little profitable thought has been given by educators. Physical training demands the first consideration. "The first requisite to success in life is to be a good animal," as Emerson says; and this ought to be regarded as a fundamental principle in the science of education. Cicero says that it is "Exercise alone that supports the spirits and keeps the mind in vigor;" and many are the examples we have of this. We do not need to go back to the ancient Greeks, who considered that exercise and bathing were indispensable, and that their residences were incomplete if without the gymnasium, or sphairisterion, nor need we refer to those grand institutions, the Ithmian, Olympic, Nemæan and Pythian games. But to come to more modern times, Sir Walter Scott was unusually robust and active until overtaken by fatal disease. Burns in his youth was an athlete of no mean prowess. Byron, in spite of his deformity, excelled in feats of strength, and prided himself as much upon having swum the Hellespont as upon having written *Childe Harold*. Dickens considered himself at a great intellectual disadvantage if compelled to forego his daily ten mile walk at four miles an hour, regardless of weather. Humboldt prepared himself for his explorations by systematic exercise to the point of fatigue. Gladstone has his private gymnasium, in addition to losing no opportunity for outdoor exercise. Bismarck has all his life been fond of sport, and as indefatigable in the pursuit thereof as in his work as a diplomat. From these facts we may believe that exercise has much to commend it to the thoughtful attention of men and women. "Anything is better than the white-blooded deterioration to which we all tend," so says Oliver Wendell Holmes; and Addison remarks that "Physic, for the most part, is nothing else but the substitute for exercise and temperance." It is health rather than strength that is the great requirement of modern man at modern occupations. It is not the power to travel great distances, carry great burdens, lift great weights or overcome great material obstructions: it is simply that condition of body and that amount of vital capacity which will enable each man in

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his place to pursue his calling, and work on in his working life, with the greatest amount of comfort to himself and usefulness to his fellow-men.

We have educated the intellect, but it is now beginning to be seen that body with mind is necessary to produce intellect. While intellect is in training, the body must not be neglected. The next step is to provide the requisite means for increasing the vigor of the body and the development of the moral nature, so far as is consistent with the proper objects of a system of public instruction. Again and again attempts have been made to combine and correlate bodily training with mental and moral training, but so far no important town or city has succeeded in maintaining for ten years a genuine and systematic physical education. The reasons for this may be traced to the readiness of the public, and educators as well, to espouse heterogeneous and superficial views of physical education, and to adopt hap-hazard and make-shift schemes of procedure in ignorance or disregard of the plain teachings of science and experience. In this connection let me quote the words of one to whom I am greatly indebted for many valuable suggestions on this subject of Physical Culture, and from whom I have received several very courteous and instructive letters in connection with the work I am engaged in. I refer to Mr. E. M. Hartwell, of Boston, president of the A. A. A. P. Education. He says:—"The truth is, physical training is not and has not been taken seriously by the writers and talkers on education, or by those who train, appoint and govern the teaching class. The cause of physical training has suffered much at the hands of its friends, since it belongs to a class of questions that have a strong attraction for doctrinaires and dabblers. The contingent of doctrinaires and dabblers is an increasing one, and is largely recruited from the impatient, restless, optimistic folk who are agreed only in being discontented with what is and in striving to find a short cut to the millennium.

"It is therefore not a difficult matter to stir up a local and transient interest in physical education, and to inaugurate short-lived and ineffectual experiments in the field of school and college instruction.

"But to make physical training an integral factor in the education of American youth, we must base our discussions and efforts on a clear understanding of the modern doctrine of the human body. American physical training will remain a thing of shreds and patches unless the promoters and governors of our educational institutions shall set themselves, first of all, to learn and to apply the plain teachings of science and experience with regard to the nature, scope and legitimate results of physical training.

"Speaking broadly, physical training is related to education as a part "to a whole, and should be conceived as a means to an end, not as a "separate end in itself. In other words, the relation of physical training to education is a variable quantity, whose magnitude and worth "is determined by the value assigned to education on the one hand, and "to physical training on the other."

The central object in the physical training of both girls and boys should be vigorous and perfect health. Great strength is of comparatively little value. When the girls of our higher institutions of learning are thus physically trained, the evils which are attributed to excessive brain work will have vanished, and the question will no longer be asked whether they have the strength and endurance to follow the same course of study in the same class with boys. With the present almost total lack of physical training for girls, any course of study requiring vigorous mental work may prove disastrous to individual students. The physical training in school of girls I regard as of far more importance than that of boys. "It is strong be the frames of the mothers, the sons shall make laws for the people." Man's first development was in the direction of the physical life, to which was afterwards added the development of his mental powers. His moral and spiritual elevation makes complete the structure of the life of the race. The degeneracy of the race we have so often to deplore is, without doubt, due in many cases to the fact that far too little attention is paid to the physical well-being. The aim then of physical training should be to develop the fundamentals, viz., heart and lungs, by movements so arranged as to bring about a healthy response between the muscles and the will; not to make physical specialists, but to promote efficiency of the circulatory and respiratory organs and increase the volitional control of the body. Slovenliness in both attitude and word of command should be strictly avoided, and all exercise should tend to relieve weariness, strengthen the physical constitution, excite love of order, and associate with the school ideas of cheerfulness as well as of improvement.

The fact that many children do not bring to school all the conditions of health should be scrupulously observed. The schoolhouse should supply the conditions for health. The teacher must guard their use, through a proper supply of light and air, through the correct positions of the pupils in standing and in sitting, and by means of special exercises. In order that this end may be attained, there must be careful and frequent inspection of the pupils, attention to the means of ventilation, oversight as to the use of their eyes, as to their posture in sitting, to the

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movements, carriage and form of the body, to personal cleanliness and to the character of their plays and games. Besides, there should be given such instruction as the pupils can understand and appreciate relative to all hygienic matters, that will aid in sending out from our schools, boys and girls with physical development equal to the demands of life. Exercise is emphatically the art of producing a healthy frame by the very operation itself. Not only are the muscles themselves benefited by exercise because they are brought into action, but by their action they increase the rapidity of the onward flow of the blood to the heart; the heart itself beats more vigorously, a larger quantity of blood is sent through the lungs, more oxygen is absorbed, a greater quantity of heat is engendered and the skin and other organs of secretion are brought into action, to get rid of the superfluous heat and the products of combustion. Thus the heart, lungs, skin, and other organs of the body are brought into more active play by muscular activity; the brain and nervous system are invigorated, the digestion is improved and the whole machinery of the body is kept in efficient working order. On the other hand, through want of sufficient bodily exercise, the constituents of the food which pass into the blood are not sufficiently oxydized, effete products accumulate, the muscles become flabby and fat, the digestion is disordered, the nervous system becomes enfeebled, the function of secretion is impaired, and ill health or disease ensues. A knowledge therefore of Physiology and Anatomy is necessary for the person who would direct exercises in Physical Culture. He must understand, and cause his pupils to understand also, that the movements and positions are used as a means to an end. That they are performed, not for their own sake as an end in themselves, but for the sake of the reactions they produce on the human system. Educational gymnastics produce accumulative reactions, developing such qualities as make the physique better as an organic nervo-muscular machine, and a better basis for a higher moral and intellectual life. It is the duty of parents and of those who act for them, to take care that the school-room to which their children are to be confined for several hours each day be a place which shall expose them to no disease or unnecessary suffering; that it be a place in which not only the growth of their minds be promoted but in which the growth of their bodies shall not be checked, where they may acquire the use of their intellectual faculties without having their physical organization distorted or their vital powers debilitated by a constrained position or an impure atmosphere.

" Is it expedient to make calisthenics and gymnastics a part of school

teaching?" Under the present conditions at least of city life at home and at school, a child stands a poor chance to enter upon the career of life having a good physical system, a body healthy, strong and well formed and of good size. The practical question for us is, "What ought to be done in our schools to arrest physical deterioration?" The principal remedy which I would suggest is the introduction into all grades of our schools of a thorough system of physical training, as a part of the school culture. Let a part of the school time of each day be devoted to the practice of calisthenic and gymnastic exercises, in which every pupil shall be required to participate. The exercises which I recommend are such as can be practised without costly apparatus, and without a room set apart for the purpose, and should contain all that either sex needs for the perfect development of the body and adapted to mixed schools so that both sexes can perform them together.

Physical exercises in the schools should in the first place counteract the many evil effects of the mental strain and the long sessions in more or less insufficiently ventilated school-rooms, and at the same time prove a valuable agent in the improvement of the health and physical development of the scholars. In order to attain this purpose the limited time allowed must be utilized to the utmost, and the series of exercises so arranged as to affect and benefit all parts of the body.

Recreative exercises from their very nature are inadequate to produce the uniform and harmonious development of the entire frame, because the employment they give is essentially partial. Where the activity is, there will be the development; and if this principle be overlooked, a portion of the body will be cultivated and the neglected portion will fall far behind the others in strength, in activity, in dexterity and in endurance, for the simple reason that it will be less abundantly nourished. Recreative exercise in sufficient amount is usually in itself sufficient to maintain health and strength after growth and development are completed, but it does not meet the many wants of the rapidly changing and plastic frames of youths spending a large portion of their time in the constrained positions of study, taking shape almost day by day from day to day occupations. Hence the necessity for a system of educational exercises. It is the office, as it is entirely within the reach of systematized exercise, to modify the growth and distribute the resources of the body so that each particular part shall have its legitimate share, and so increase these resources that each part of the growing frame shall have its wants supplied.

I strongly advocate a free run in the fields and playground, and, notwithstanding more modern ideas of order and discipline, am a great stickler for the good old-fashioned recess,—the wild recess—the pupils rushing out of the school-house, running about, and shouting and pushing. This recreates the pupil and restores his nervous energy.

There is no difficulty now, though there would have been a few years ago, to get the teacher to admit that physical training is a very important part of a child's education. The teacher's difficulty now is to know what to do. He knows he should do something, but what? There are so many systems that seem to be opposed one to another. Shall he measure the children and work up the weaker muscles? Delsarte will look upon him with contempt. Shall he have his pupils work to the soft notes of a piano? Ling will hold up his hand in horror. Must he have a gymnasium? Must he make a special study of the subject for two or three years? These and many other questions arise to perplex the teacher who honestly wishes to give to the physical part of a child its due training and development. No system has all the good, no system is entirely bad. The man who claims that he is entirely right and that all others are wrong only advertises his utter ignorance of the subject and total unfitness for the work he is doing. The muscles need work. There must be a form of work over which the teacher has control that may be taken under very adverse conditions, and in which the teacher may easily become proficient. After a careful examination of what has been spoken and written on the subject of physical training, by men who stand pre-eminent in their profession, as well as a study of the various systems themselves, I am of opinion that until there has been created and established a system, taking the best points from all the systems, which we shall term the National system of Canada, the Ling or Swedish system of gymnastics is the one which will meet the present want. It is a system which is progressive and meets the needs of the various grades in school. Its purpose is to make healthy children and not to train athletes. Much attention is given to the standing position and carriage of the pupils. There is great freedom from risk of producing injurious effects. It is cheap, since no apparatus is required. There is an infinite variety of exercises, so that the pupils do not tire. In the absence of any appliances the body may be exercised as follows:—(1) movements of the feet and legs, (2) neck and spine, (3) arms, (4) balancing movements, (5) shoulder blade muscles, (6) abdominal muscles, (7) marching, leaping or running, (8) respiratory movements. Every movement is based upon a physio-

ogical principle ; for instance, the arch flexions, which consist of backward flexions of the trunk ; they have the effect of straightening the dorsal region of the spine, of vaulting the chest forward by drawing the lower ribs apart, thus increasing the chest capacity. Then by the shoulder blade movements the shoulder blades are brought into correct position. By combining these two exercises we are enabled to overcome to a great extent that posture we are all so prone to adopt, namely, the " stoop." This system of gymnastics will aid the teacher in discipline, and cause the pupil to concentrate his mind on one thing at a time, that thing being his own movement. This is in accordance with the definition of gymnastic movement, which tells us that unless a movement is done with full volition it ceases to be gymnastic. Then, again, discipline is necessary, not only for the soldier but for everybody, and should form a part of everybody's education. Words of command teach the pupil to think quickly, act quickly and do a thing in the shortest possible time. Their use also enables the teacher to keep his class always " in hand." The exercises are so admirably graded that they are well adapted to all grades of pupils, and can be used to good advantage in the schoolroom. While teaching these exercises one does not feel that he is going through some pretty movements simply, but that he is teaching what will make his pupils stronger, more healthy and graceful in their movements, and enabling them day by day to bring their bodies under more complete subjection to their wills. In this system, theory and practice harmonize, seeking a reason for everything it does ; the system is rational, it is also practical, since the exercises, not the apparatus, constitute the system. It therefore does not rely on elaborate apparatus for existence. Though apparatus is desirable it is not absolutely necessary for good physical development, especially in gymnastics for children. The acquiring of Ling's free standing movements has been well compared to the acquisition of a language. The primary positions are our alphabet. Of these a correct knowledge is necessary for the execution of subsequent movements which are compounded from these primary positions, and resemble so many words or sentences, correctly or incorrectly formed, according to the intelligence and capacity of the student. It is of paramount importance that the great body of our class teachers should become proficient in free gymnastics first of all ; drill and the free standing exercises are most suitable to our public schools, requiring not apparatus nor violent movements.

A word with regard to Military Drill. By adopting it we get a great variety of exercises, all of which are executed by word of command. In

this way the instructor materially aids the discipline of the school, controls his pupils, and is able to give them the requisite amount of exercise and prevent them from being over-exerted. By it the pupils acquire the habit of walking with dignity, steadiness and a soldierly bearing not apparent in other setting up exercises. They enter it with real interest and entire forgetfulness, while performing the duties, that the main purpose is to develop physique, this being accomplished in a pleasant and unconscious state of mind. The pupil learns to give prompt obedience, which is the first step to command. Drill develops a more manly spirit in a boy, makes him graceful and manly in his bearing, and fits him for the primary duties of life, mainly those of a good citizen. There is an entire freedom from accident and injury, and this point should commend the exercises, as well as the fact that it helps to form character, for all the associations of the soldier's life are such as we should like our boys and our girls, too, to remember—patriotism, chivalry, love and defence of home and country. With the present limited means at our disposal, a great deal can be done by the introduction of drill into the school course. It would be well to show the members of the School Board what can be done with the time and room they willingly give us; then, by and by, they will be so delighted with the results that they will be anxious to do more because a theory has been made practical. We have a great liking for apparatus. We teachers can do anything, but we must have appliances to do with. We are rather fond of letting people see that we can do things well. But I should say, if we have to consider economy in connection with this question, let us economize in the apparatus. Let us get as simple apparatus as may be, and give the money to the teachers for teaching gymnastics. We shall then get better teachers if we pay better salaries.

As to the age at which the physical training of a child should commence, I would say, Let the mental and physical training begin together, if we are unable to reach the high ideal of Oliver Wendell Holmes, who says that "the training of a child should begin a hundred years before it is born." In the training of our pupils, our moral rule is "get the heart right," and our physical rule should be, "get the heart and lungs right, and the muscles will meet every reasonable demand." Mind and body should be viewed as the two well fitting halves of a perfect whole designed in true accord mutually to sustain and support each other, and each worthy of our unwearied care and unstinted attention to be given with a fuller faith and more reverent trust than they

would have who would argue, that He who united in us our two-fold nature made them incompatible, inharmonious, opposed.

It seems strange that in the last quarter of the nineteenth century it should be necessary to discuss the advisability of perfecting our educational systems by something which, two thousand years ago, the Greeks and Romans thought indispensable to a whole,—some system of education. Modern educators have been wont to treat the body as of secondary importance, while teachers and parents have thought they could not begin early enough to fill the mind with all kinds of knowledge. When the subject of physical exercises has been mooted at a Convention or Conference, everywhere the answer was the same: "We do not doubt but that this is an excellent thing, but it takes too much time; we are accused of overcrowding and overtaxing the children already." As to overcrowding the minds of the children, the charge is perfectly true; but could a better remedy be found than physical training? Is it not the best recreation? In the school with which I am connected, the pupils after Calisthenics are fresh and attentive and take up mental work with alacrity. During last year as an experiment, physical exercises were introduced into the various forms of the High School. The experiment has proved so satisfactory that it has been decided to include physical training in the school curriculum and have the various exercises performed daily like any other school lesson. The time allowed is ten minutes daily and half an hour a week in gymnasium for each form. No action of our Board, it seems to me, has been more wisely taken than this of an efficient system of physical culture, and this is not the opinion of one merely, but of many; the day is not far distant when it will be the opinion of all. Freshness and vigor of body facilitate every mental exertion and promote cheerfulness, self-reliance and courage. Conditions such as these tend to promote the growth of everything that is good, noble and pure. This is the education that we must give. It offers the surest criterion, not for the welfare of the individual only, but for that of the nation. "A country like ours, ranking among the fairest on the Globe, extending from the Atlantic to the Pacific, must take care that her schools so educate young men and women that they shall graduate, sound in body as well as cultured in mind."

We are gathered here to talk, think over aloud, and discuss the best ideas of our own and other people about the physical education of men, women and children. Let us each one endeavor with carefulness, and yet with enthusiastic zeal, to learn from others what are suitable exercises for differing ages, temperaments and mental make-up. May

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we make a careful study of how to find and point out remote and immediate weakness, and tendencies to weakness, in those who are in our hands for study and advice. The wisdom of our plans and the success of our endeavors to make the physical training a thorough-going, genuine, and enduring part of our public school course of instruction will depend very largely, as it seems to me, upon the extent to which we appreciate those lessons and are guided by them. And yet let us remember that the body is not the ultimate end of our study. Body and heart and soul must go hand in hand. "What God has joined together let not man put asunder." For though the well developed and sound body promises the sound and strong mind, yet may we remember that ever so brilliant a performer cannot make good music on a poor instrument. Let the thought be eminent and predominant with us that the highest aim of all our special work is to develop the most perfect type of manhood in body, soul and spirit, and that the loftier the character and the purer the soul so much the more refined and elevated will be the body itself.

"For every spirit as it is more pure,
And hath in it more of heavenly light;
So it the fairer body doth procure to habit it,
And is more seemly dight with cheerful grace and amiable sight,
For of the soul the body form doth take,
For soul is form and doth the body make."

TEMPERANCE TEACHING IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

BY MRS. J. P. NOYES, COWANSVILLE, QUE.

MR. CHAIRMAN, MEMBERS OF THE DOMINION TEACHERS ASSOCIATION:—In behalf of the Dominion Women's Christian Temperance Union—as Superintendent of their Department of Scientific Temperance Instruction—I desire your kind attention to a few points connected with that important work.

There is no necessity for attempting to present to your minds vivid word-painting of the dreadful extremities to which King Alcohol frequently reduces his votaries and their families.

All know that peculiar stamp of his work. Statisticians tell us that at least three-fourths of all the crimes committed are directly traceable to alcoholic indulgence, yet our legislators in their blindness and madness hug the hydra-headed monster who is destroying the Canadian

people! They encourage his growth because, forsooth, he drops some coins into their Treasury!

He has stuck his fangs deep into the very vitals of our nation. More or less has he, in some way, marred the life of each one of us. He is sowing the seeds of pauperism, insanity, idiocy, crime and death broadcast throughout the length and breadth of our Dominion.

He is luring our youth into his vile haunts; he is dwarfing the minds, scorching the souls, and poisoning the very life-blood of our innocent children through the sinful indulgence of their parents. The laws of heredity teach that there are multitudes of children with an inherited taste for drink—that the blight and curse of King Alcohol hang over all.

Gladstone accounts for the increasing drunkenness in Great Britain by what he calls "*the great accumulated mass of heredity.*" Under the weight of this accumulated mass of heredity a large proportion of our people are staggering, ready to topple over the precipice of intemperance.

It has been said that we are *omnibuses* in which all our forefathers ride. So, then, some intemperate forefather may seize the reins, and drive the vehicle to destruction, if the gates across the path leading to it are not closed.

In view of these facts, we must conclude that the next generation will be more drunken than any preceding one, that the generations will continue to grow worse as time goes on, if some great means of *prevention* is not resorted to.

The popular fallacies which lead to the formation of drink-habits—to *alcoholism*—must be dispelled, *before appetite is formed*, if the children of to-day are to be saved from the slough of drunkenness.

Hence the necessity for the introduction into all schools of the science of Physiology and Hygiene, with direct reference to the harmfulness of alcoholics and all other narcotics.

Von Moltke has said that Germany has more to fear from beer than from all the armies of France. Alcohol in beer, in brandy, in wine, in cider, in any beverage, is an enemy; a dangerous narcotic; a deadly poison, which should be classed with, and hauled like, other dangerous drugs; it is not a nutrient; not a true stimulant—merely a *spur*; it lowers the temperature of the body and diminishes the power of muscular contraction; taken in small quantities, it tends, like all powerful narcotics, to create an uncontrollable desire for more—an appetite that *grows by what it feeds on*, the disease of alcoholism. There is no safety but in total abstinence.

One of our chief duties is to arrange that our children and young people may learn these facts. There is, in most minds, a desire for self-preservation. Properly warned and aware of danger, our young people will go forth clad in a coat of mail, ready to battle with and overcome the enemy lying in wait for them.

A subject which, more than any other, is calculated to warn the young away from pit-falls, laid for the destruction of both body and soul, should not be in any way *slurred over*.

As a lack of knowledge as to methods, rather than a lack of disposition to faithfully teach this subject, results in much imperfect work, the art of imparting scientific temperance instruction should be carefully studied.

There is such a variety of school systems that, to meet these differences, the following gradation may be suggested by way of illustration.

We will suppose the schools graded on the plan of three leading subdivisions, viz. : Primary, covering the first three years of school life ; the Intermediate, the succeeding five years ; and afterwards the Academic department, or the High School.

To the primary pupils who are unable to read should be given, as often as every other day, an oral lesson on the subject. These lessons should not be mere goody-goody talks, but studies of truths, illustrated and attractively adapted to young minds. They should have been carefully prepared, and from some text-book that is as well adapted to this grade as the text-books for other studies. The real object of these lessons should be to impress upon these young minds the reasons why they should not drink cider, beer, wine and other alcoholic drinks, and why they should not use tobacco in any form ; especially should the harmfulness of cigarette-smoking be dwelt upon.

Such other simple laws of health as these pupils can comprehend should be taught, with a little relative physiology, because it will enable them the better to understand the effect of alcohol and tobacco. They must know something of the stomach and the brain before they will realize how cider and tobacco will injure them.

The teacher should prepare these lessons from some endorsed temperance text-book, instead of trying to teach out of her own "general knowledge," which, in some cases, it is to be feared is general ignorance.

So soon as the pupils can read well, they should pursue this study with a text-book in hand as a general reader, and as a basis of language lessons, with examinations.

Taking the country as a whole, only about fifty per cent. of the pupils

attend school much beyond the lower grades; hence, the faithful teacher will realize that, as a large proportion of her pupils will soon leave school forever, it is her duty to do what she can to train them to abhor alcoholic drinks and tobacco.

Pupils in the first year of the intermediate grade should continue this branch as a text-book study with the first book of a well endorsed series in hand. That book would be the one used as a reader on this topic in the preceding or primary grade.

At the beginning of the second year of this grade, pupils will be ready to take the *second book* of an endorsed series as a regular reader with written examinations, and as a basis of language lessons and compositions. During the remaining years of this grade the subject should be further pursued as a text-book study with this same book in the hands of the pupils. When examinations prove that they have mastered so much of the study as is adapted to the intermediate course before reaching its last year, the work in this branch may be chiefly that of review. It is not the purpose of this movement to put technical and advanced physiology into the intermediate grades of public schools, but it is the intention to have taught there, *plainly and fully*, the origin, nature and effect of alcoholic drinks and other narcotics, making that part of the subject the chief topic, with only physiology enough to make this and other laws of health intelligible.

The treatment of the whole question, including that of the relative physiology, should be plain and interesting. The use of manikins and physiological charts, by capable teachers, would tend greatly toward the successful teaching of this subject. A technical style for the study in these classes is no more in place than geometry and trigonometry would be in the mathematical course of these same pupils.

Since ninety-five per cent. of our pupils, on the whole, never reach the higher schools, the primary and intermediate grades afford the only opportunities for the schools to reach these overwhelming majorities of our future citizens; therefore, all the warning science has to give against alcohol, tobacco and other narcotics should here be given in its most attractive and impressive form.

Those classes who have acquired as much knowledge of this subject as the law requires may be exempt from the study of it during the last year or years of the Intermediate course, with the exception of a review for examination at the close of each year. A class should be formed early in every room of this grade for those who have not passed the examination satisfactorily.

This method, with good teachers and good text-books, will send out pupils knowing *why* they should be total abstainers, and fit those passing on to a higher grade to there pursue a more technical treatment of the subject, while it will not crowd other important branches out of a brief school course.

The temptations this study is designed to warn pupils against *ordinarily* increase with each year; these repeated reviews and examinations will keep the essential and warning facts fresh in memory, while but three text-books of this topic are thus added to the whole school course.

Were these lessons more sparsely given, so as to run through the whole Intermediate course, they would be so far apart that the pupil would forget the last before he would reach the next.

Pupils should get the lessons so consecutively that the subject, as a whole, will be upon their minds.

During the Academic or High School course, this study should be further pursued as a text-book study with recitations and examinations; the text-book used being adapted to the grade, and containing, at least, forty pages concerning the effect upon the human system of alcoholics and other narcotics.

It is emphatically necessary to have a separate book for each of the three courses referred to. Neither in graded nor in ungraded schools can all pupils be properly taught with less than three books. This study has often proved a failure by the attempt to make one book fit all pupils. It should have a place in every examination, whether public or private, throughout the year; and these examinations should be as thorough tests of the proficiency of the pupil in this subject as are required in examinations in other subjects; the same marking system should be used, and such marks should enter into *the general average which decides the rank of the pupil.*

The way to study and teach scientific temperance, -- a subject which, more than any other, is calculated to ensure the future wellbeing of the student -- is to study and teach it *just as thoroughly* as any other branch is studied or taught. Any method of teaching which falls short of this is, in effect, saying to the pupils: "*This subject is of little importance.*"

Teachers should meet their classes thoroughly prepared to make the most of every lesson, not only from the matter given in the text-book, but from collateral reading.

School-boards should mark out as definitely on the curriculum time and place for this study as for others for each grade of pupils, and

should authorize text-books graded to the capacities of the several grades of learners. Great care should be taken that these books contain no misleading statements; and that at least one-fourth of the space of text-books for the primary and intermediate grades should be devoted to teaching the dangerous nature of alcoholic and other narcotics.

Books for the Academy and High School should contain at least forty pages of such matter. The fact that this is not *strictly* a physiological but a temperance movement should not be lost sight of.

Somebody has said that "disregard of law is an American characteristic." Is it any the less a Canadian characteristic? As the laws of any country will not enforce themselves, and as temperance education laws are no exception, there should be careful planning by educational legislators for the enforcement of regulations which have made scientific temperance a mandatory study.

When the legislature of the State of Vermont, ten years ago, passed the first temperance education law ever anywhere enacted, describing the new study as "Physiology and Hygiene," with special reference to the effects of alcoholic drinks and other narcotics, there was not a text-book in the world that met this description.

The digest of the Cantor Lectures on Alcohol, by Dr. Benjamin W. Richardson, called the Temperance Lesson Book, did not meet the demand, as it contained no physiological matter and was too technical for common school use.

A Vermont historian writes: "The Legislature must have caught the contagion of the faith that pleads for the law, when they passed an act demanding a study the literature of which was yet to be created." But the law was not to go into force for a year, and much could be accomplished in that time; so the W. C. T. U., which had been instrumental in securing this new law, which was such an important departure from the old ways, with Mrs. Mary H. Hunt, their superintendent of the department of scientific temperance instruction at their head, secured the services of eminent scientists, and set about the arrangement of a series of text-books to meet the new demand. The result of their labors was the Pathfinder Series—sometimes called the Barnes Series—which are so extensively used, not only on this continent but in foreign lands.

Large numbers of publishers had also rushed into the field with books, most of which were old time physiologies, with a little temperance matter tacked on the back of the book as an addenda. A few series of books were issued, but these were badly arranged and badly graded and in every way unfit for the purpose for which they had been published.

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Then commenced the text-book war between these publishers and the National W. C. T. U. One series universally used was desirable; but such an outcry was raised about what was called the *Text-book Monopoly*, that other series were revised and arranged to meet the new demand.

The Endorsed Temperance Physiologies are :

- The Pathfinder Series ;
- “ Appleton Physiology Series ;
- “ Eclectic “
- “ Union “

and several miscellaneous books for different grades. The Blaisdell and Cutter series are about being revised.

The publishers of objectionable physiologies are finding their books unprofitable, and series after series is being revised. The following are some of the objections to Cutter's *Anatomy, Physiology, and Hygiene*—now extensively used in this Province. It is adapted only to the highest grade below the High School, containing altogether too many technical expressions above the capacity of intermediate pupils and attempts to explain too much of the intricate physiology, which should be left for the High School.

But its worst faults are that it lacks twenty-nine pages of the required amount of temperance matter ; it does not show that it is the nature of a little alcohol to create an appetite for more, and fails to give the warning against taking the little that may lead to the formation of such an appetite. It also contains misleading passages ; for instance, the *abuse* of alcohol and the *abuse* of tobacco. This is misleading in favor of the *moderate* use of these substances.

It is regrettable that we have no Canadian series of text-books on this subject which meets the needs of our pupils, inasmuch as many object to the use of American books.

This objection seems to be ill-founded concerning purely scientific works, containing no allusion to any nation or government, which possibly cannot affect the patriotism of our young people.

So much might be written on this subject that it is difficult to know just what to put into a short paper ; but I cannot refrain from saying something of the great work accomplished during the last decade. Forty of the American States and Territories have followed the example set by Vermont ; and to-day there are no fewer than 12,000,000 of American children under compulsory temperance education laws. Although much

might yet be done to strengthen this work in our Dominion, hundreds of thousands of Canadian children are learning the terrible truths concerning narcotics. Within a few weeks the Nova Scotian Legislature has passed one of the best and most stringent scientific temperance education laws ever enacted. There are strong indications that others of our Provinces will soon wheel into line. The following communication has just been received from Sweden: "The Parliament of Sweden has this year constituted, that in all our public schools instruction on the perniciousness of alcohol be given in conjunction with the instruction on Natural History."

A teacher's league has been formed for putting this subject into the schools of Finland.

The Parliament of South Australia has made the subject compulsory in all schools in the Colony. In Queensland it is taught in all the Primary schools. The Minister of Education of Siam sanctions the translation of the Pathfinders into the language of that country and their introduction into all schools. The same is true of Japan.

From Great Britain, Germany, Bulgaria, Turkey, India, China, New Zealand, the Sandwich Islands, Mexico and South Africa come requests for temperance physiologies and instructions as to the best methods of carrying on this work.

We feel that this work is, emphatically, missionary work, and that something like the millennium will ensue when the peoples of the earth shall have become enlightened respecting the nature of narcotics. "Know thyself," said the ancient sage; and an eminent English poet has sung, "The proper study of mankind is man." Many centuries ago Jehovah declared: "My people are destroyed for lack of knowledge." This was no truer in the time of Nehemiah than it is to-day. Multitudes are yearly destroyed for lack of knowing how to care for the bodies and minds that God has given them.

May God grant that our teachers may not have "too serene a conscience."

The future welfare of the Canadian people is largely in the hands of Canadian teachers. The present generation of children, properly taught, means the nation saved not many years hence. There was never greater need than now of the prayer, "O send out thy light and thy truth."

Respectfully submitted,

Mrs. J. P. NOYES.

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SCHOOL PREPARATION FOR INDUSTRIAL PURSUITS.

BY ALEXANDER MCKAY, SUPERVISOR OF SCHOOLS, HALIFAX, N.S.

"The riches of the commonwealth
Are free strong minds and hearts of health;
And more to her than gold or grain
The cunning hand and cultured brain."

The Committee of the Dominion Educational Association, in wording the title of the subject on which they asked me to write, must be considered as endorsing the doctrine that a preparation for industrial pursuits is one of the legitimate objects of the school, that the work of the school-room should be a preparation for the *work* of life rather than for the *leisure* of life.

Many modern educationists, however, seem to hold a very different opinion,—judging by their practice. As one proof of this it is well known that but little attention is given to physical education in any form. How often do we find many of those reputed our ablest educationists ignoring in their class rooms all laws of ventilation and exercise, and by every incentive forcing an intellectual activity (memory cramming) which irremediably undermines the physical health of their pupils and even arrests their mental growth.

In the best of our public schools there is but little attention given to the properly co-ordinated development of the intellectual and executive faculties.

Some educationists tell us that education is culture,—that we should educate the *man* not the *artisan*; thus the artisan is overlooked, and a course of study is framed without any special adaptation to the requirements of ninety-nine hundredths of those for whom the State has provided a free education.

There are other educationists who affirm that studies are valuable only in proportion to their disciplinary effects. It is taken for granted that Grammar and Greek, Logic and Latin are pre-eminently adapted for the strengthening of the intellectual faculties. These subjects are therefore introduced into the curriculum at an early stage, no matter that in nine cases out of ten they must be dropped in two or three years. Even the superficial smattering of the ancient languages acquired in that short time from the very imperfect methods of the schools is supposed to have some peculiar mental effect in enabling the student the better to distinguish between words and what they represent. He is thought to have acquired a power of analysis, precision in thinking, and facility of expression not otherwise attainable.

These enlightening and liberalizing studies enable their devotees to see something of the inner life and mental habitudes of a race highly civilized and yet very different from ours. True, if the student acquires the power to think in these languages,—a power not acquired by one in one hundred.

We must study language—there can scarcely be a nobler subject of study ; but let us imitate the Greeks, and study our own language, as skilful methods and no greater effort will reward us with immeasurably greater results than are now attained.

We must study mind ; let us find our subjects in modern minds whose feelings, Mill tells us, "are more various, more complex and manifold than those of the ancients ever were."

These lofty ideals to which I referred, viz., that education fundamentally consists in culture or in mental discipline, have dominated educational practice for the last four hundred years, and do still. They sound so well in theory that one is almost ashamed to seem to doubt their all-sufficiency. But we need less theory and more facts. We are yet in the initiatory or fact-learning stage of the science of education.

Let us then consider for a few moments the practical outcome of the present system in the various stages of school life. Take the average results of the best common schools of Nova Scotia, which, from my observations, compare favorably with any in the Dominion.

A boy of fourteen reads any ordinary book readily, but spells badly, and has not acquired a discriminating taste for good reading. He can give correctly almost any date in British or Canadian History, but he has never enjoyed the pleasure of reading a book on history. He knows almost nothing of the constitution of the county or city council, or of the House of Assembly of his native province. He can give the text-book description of any important place, but is unable to draw a correct outline map of any foreign country, much less of his own. He probably has no ideas regarding the changes of seasons, ocean and air currents and the great channels of trade.

He can pass a good examination in Grammar, but cannot write a passable application for a situation. He is unable to relate in good language the incidents of a day's journey, or to write a fairly good description of what he may have seen. He may be able to draw fairly well from the flat, but of object drawing, perspective or designing, he knows absolutely nothing.

In arithmetic he can solve difficult examples in complex fractions, circulating decimals, etc., but cannot be depended on to put in form or add correctly the items of an ordinary account.

Lastly, to silence the clamor of educational reformers and perhaps the qualms of conscience, his teacher, under the pretence of science-teaching, familiarizes him with the names of the organs of his body, of the parts of a plant, of a few minerals and of the common elements.

Here we have about all his school acquisitions, excepting what he may have learned of obedience to constituted authority and in the formation of correct habits. A few of his defects have been noted, but not all.

His happiness as an organized being depends on obedience to certain physiological laws. What does he know of them? He is simply left to be guided by the blind usages of society,—sometimes right, as often wrong. His success in whatever industrial pursuits he shall have to follow will depend largely on his knowledge of the qualities and forces of matter and on his manual dexterity. But he leaves school with a positive dislike for manual employments, and with a knowledge of words instead of things.

His usefulness as a member of the body politic depends on his moral habits and upon his knowledge of moral principles and social and economic laws. Usually he forms good habits, but are they grounded on clearly understood moral principles? And is he not left ignorant of his duties and responsibilities as a citizen?

In short, during his eight or nine years of school life he has memorized much, thought out a little and executed almost nothing.

Of one hundred pupils who enter our common schools only 33 per cent. complete the sixth grade and 20 per cent. the eighth grade. Nine per cent. enter the academy and 4 per cent. remain three years. Those who remain so long have during that time added to their stock of information from the common school a knowledge of Latin grammar, a painful reading acquaintance with about two hundred pages of two Latin authors. They are well up in arithmetic, algebra and geometry, omitting their practical application. Memory has added a large accumulation of new facts from history and geography. Some progress has been made in a knowledge of science. They are not on speaking terms with French and German. Under the name of literature some author's opinions of the leading writers have been learned, and perhaps one or two short poems of plays have been read critically. Of ten who enter the academy, one matriculates into college with a view to one or other of the learned professions. The other nine leave with a more positive dislike for manual work than when they left the common school. Some of them will therefore teach, and others will become clerks, bookkeepers, etc. Now, the education which has been, I hope, truthfully described cannot be looked upon

as the best preparation for life either directly or indirectly. Nor is it so regarded by the majority of people.

In the Halifax Academy we have a splendid staff of well qualified teachers, but at the closing exercises of last Friday there were eleven graduates out of one hundred and ten pupils who entered three years before. Over fifty per cent. of the parents whose children entered the Academy must have felt that such an education as could be obtained there was not the best preparation for life. If the course of study had been what it should have been, there would have been a graduating class of over fifty. If our distinguished Attorney General was correct in styling that institution "The People's College" in addressing the graduates, the people of Halifax would only have been too glad to have kept their boys and girls there two years longer.

No, it is not "The People's College." Judging it by what it does, it is a special institution, becoming remarkable for its success in preparing young men and women for teachers' licenses and for matriculation into college while trying to follow a course of study which has neither object in view. The same remark might with truth be made of most of our academies. But our academies should be the People's Colleges, giving to the neglected nine-tenths as thorough a fundamental preparation for industrial pursuits—their work in life—as is given in the present academies to those about to enter the professions,—less than four per cent. of those who earn their living.

Why should educational forces and government aid be so largely expended in preparing the few in Latin, so as to enable them to matriculate in medicine, law or teaching, while agriculturists, comprising 45 per cent. of the working classes, are left ignorant of the fundamentals, principles of chemistry, botany and the use of tools? Why are artisans comprising 28 per cent., left without a knowledge of industrial drawing? These subjects are not only of more importance to these classes than Latin is to professional men but also of more practical utility to all classes, and at the same time, in the opinion of educational reformers, better adapted as educational instruments for mental discipline.

The fact is that the prevailing education of to-day is not so well adapted to produce symmetrically developed men as was the education of fifty years ago. Machinery and the means of inter-communication have produced great changes in educational requirements. But the conservatism of educationists prevents a response to the changed conditions. The demands for radical improvements seldom come from the professional classes; they come from the laity. A few great men scattered down the ages have been demanding these reforms.

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It was Seneca who said: "Non scholae, sed vitae discimus." "We should learn not for the sake of the school but for the purposes of life." What a change for the better it would make in our schools if all our teachers adopted this motto. Rabelais wished his pupils "not only to know but to love and experience nature." Montaigne informs us that "Philosophy is that which teaches us to live." Bacon would have facts gathered by observation and verified by experiment,—a knowledge of things instead of words. Comenius says that in "the people's school" children should be "instructed in that knowledge which is useful during the whole of life." He would have the child encouraged "in making or building something for himself," his love of action directed to productive work.

In Locke we have a most powerful and eloquent advocate of that training which arms for the battle of life and prepares for the duties of citizenship. Madame Maintenon says: "Manual labor is a moral safeguard, a protection against sin." Kant finds the secret of development in doing. A maxim from Pestalozzi reads thus: "To wisdom there must be joined power; to theoretical knowledge, practical skill."

In some communities there have been systems of education approaching in some respects to our ideal. A machine may be said to be perfect in proportion to the exactness with which it realizes the intentions of its inventor. From that point of view what a practical system of education prevailed among the Jews. "He who does not teach his son a trade teaches him to be a thief." How thrifty and moral are the Jews as a race.

In Greece, education was for the ruling classes only, and was designed to fit them for their special duties as such. It secured the desired results in a pre-eminent degree,—producing a race of heroes, philosophers and artists, physically, intellectually and aesthetically approaching perfection.

The class education of Rome produced warriors, patriots and law-makers.

In the early history of the New England States, and in our own country, the necessities of the situation produced a better all-round and more harmonious development than can be obtained by the youth of to-day in this age of machinery and urban life. Under the combined influences of hand work on the farm and brain work in school there were produced the inventive genius, the broad intelligence, the force of character and the unconquerable energy of the colonist. In all these various systems of education a certain relation existed between the end in view, the means used and the results obtained.

But in later years there arose a tendency to separation of educational and industrial forces. The industries became less educative, while at the same time it was found that the work of the schools looked mainly to a preparation for the learned professions. The people demanded an education that would prepare the masses rather than the few for their work in life. Educationists replied that the most practical training was that which developed mental power, and that classics and mathematics were the most effective instruments. For years this question was debated from a theoretical standpoint with much earnestness.

The advocates of industrial training were stigmatized as being utilitarian and narrow in their views. In the meantime, the experiments going on in various parts of the world were deciding the question.

By the aid of wealthy men, workshops and many other forms of manual training were introduced into schools and colleges. It was found that these subjects not only gave the pupil an advantage as a wage-earner, but that they were worthy to be placed in the curriculum, side by side with Grammar, Latin and other subjects as instruments of mental culture and discipline, while their moral effects were vastly superior,—thus verifying the famous dictum of Spencer that “it would be utterly contrary to the beautiful economy of Nature if one kind of culture were needed for the gaining of information and another kind were needed as a mental gymnastic. The education of most value for guidance must at the same time be the education of most value for discipline.”

In the *Educational Review* we find General Walker of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology making these statements regarding manual training schools:—“I must assert that they are to-day doing a work in the intellectual development of our people which is not surpassed, if indeed it be equalled, by that of the classical colleges. I believe that in the schools of applied science and technology is to be found almost the perfection of education for young men.”

He claims, and truly, that the characteristic studies of the new schools are the best of all available means of both moral and intellectual training. “The directness and immediateness of application to which our pupils are subject under their very eyes and at their very hands constitutes a tremendous educational force, securing a closeness and continuity of attention on the part of the pupil, and earnestness of purpose, a zeal and enthusiasm of work which it is utterly beyond the power of the teacher of classics or philosophy to arouse, except in the case of gifted students.”

Having given so much attention to general principles, the second part of my paper must necessarily be brief.

What constitutes the best school preparation for industrial pursuits?

1. A thorough kindergarten training of two or three years, beginning with pupils of four years of age. The teacher should be a good scholar as well as a good kindergartner.

2. A sound, physical education, good health and muscle developed by work, gymnastic exercise and healthful play, but chiefly by free and inspiring play. Every pupil according to his age should be made acquainted with the structure of his bodily organs, the nature of foods and all that appertains to the conservation of health. The nature and effects of alcoholic beverages and narcotics should receive special attention.

Wishing to get some information as to what kind of education working men most needed, I asked one of the captains of industry in Halifax: "What are the defects of your workmen most seriously interfering with their usefulness to you?" He promptly replied: "Intemperance and want of accuracy."

How strange that we should agonize over the teaching of the Latin subjunctive, or drill our pupils on innumerable dates, and take no pains to teach them scientifically the nature of the most deadly foe of health, character, happiness and industrial success! How strange that it took the teaching profession so long to discover that education should include temperance teaching, that the schools could and should be the most effective temperance societies! A reasonable amount of attention given to this subject with the young might save many workmen from becoming victims of the saloon. It has been well said that: "Temperance teaching reaches out so broadly that we are teaching a large part of one's duty to oneself, to society, and to the country, in teaching it; so deeply does intemperance strike, that an education as to body, mind and soul is incomplete without it."

3. The artisan must, of course, be able to read, write and cipher. In arithmetic the intricacies of discount and partial payment should give way to practical problems in mensuration. Applied arithmetic should include a great deal more than simply commercial arithmetic. Along with the duty of teaching children to read goes the equally important duty of teaching them what to read, and the formation of the habit of utilizing books for self-education, so important to the artisan whose school education is so limited.

In connection with every subject that is studied from books, the pupil may be advanced in his ability to read. This will be done effectually in proportion as he is taught to use books as instruments of research. In arithmetic, for example, several good purposes would be subserved by

allowing the pupil with the aid of the book-examples and explanations only to master many of the principles. Teachers, in modern times, do altogether too much for their pupils, as well as too little.

4. Every teacher of the common school should be well read in history and economics, so as to be able without any very formal teaching, but as opportunity offers, to inculcate important truths regarding the duties and rights of citizens, the production of commodities, the relation of labor and capital, etc. In High Schools these subjects should receive special attention.

5. The physical, chemical and physiological forces of the material world are the masters or servants of 73 per cent. of those laborers who produce almost the entire wealth of the country. The life of the farmer, the artisan, the fisherman or the miner is one continued struggle with these forces, and his work is effective in proportion as he can make them serve his purposes.

Let science then be taught as constantly and as carefully as the Israelites were required to teach the law to their children. But the sciences must be well taught or they have no place in the schools. In this case everything depends on the adaptability of the method to the laws of the child's mental growth.

6. Modelling, Drawing and Geometry.

Drawing has for several years now occupied a prominent place in our courses of study. It has a fair amount of time allotted to it in our school programmes, but it can scarcely be said to be taught to any appreciable extent throughout the common schools or even in the academies. Yet it is the basis of a sound industrial education, and for purposes of general culture takes rank above some of the standard subjects. It should be continued from the Kindergarten, developed in connection with modelling, founded upon geometry, and made the chief instrument in manual training and a cultivation of a taste for the beautiful in form. The great drawback to the effective introduction of the teaching of drawing in the school curriculum is the want of skilled teachers. The country should spare no expense to get them without delay.

7. Manual Training.

In manual training we seek, as Bacon would have us do, "The cultivation of a just and legitimate familiarity between mind and things." It is merely the development of the kindergarten, being founded on the same psychological basis. It has been introduced to some extent into our best schools in several forms, as in modelling, drawing, construction, geometry, physical and chemical laboratory work, etc. Another important step is

taken by the introduction of tools in connection with wood work for boys, and in sewing and cooking for girls.

These subjects properly taught have already been proved by experience to be of the highest educative value. Against much learned opposition they have won a place in the schools where they have already and will still further justify their right to exist. The teacher of every school should be qualified to direct these studies. They should therefore form a prominent feature of every Normal School. In country schools, country and farm life, in some degree, form a substitute for the manual training of the schools. But in every school of the city a workshop should be considered a necessary part of the outfit.

In closing, let me remind you that so far the literary classes have directed education; the industrial classes will do so hereafter.

PAPER ON TEACHING FORM.

By S. P. ROBINS, M.A., LL.D., PRINCIPAL OF THE MCGILL NORMAL SCHOOL, MONTREAL.

In bringing before you, Ladies and Gentlemen, Members of this Association, the subject of Teaching Form, I purpose from the multitude of truths that press upon my attention to select for illustration two:—

1st. That clear and comprehensive conceptions of form and of form relation can be and should be early called up in the minds of children;

2nd. That the formation of such conceptions is greatly aided by the method of definite numerical procedure.

I shall not always be able to keep these truths separate in my treatment of the subject, but I shall have them continually before me as the object of my explanations and illustrations.

That I should attempt to treat the subject at all implies a certain dissatisfaction with the accepted methods of teaching form and form relations. It would not be worth your time nor mine to felicitate each other for thirty minutes that the best conceivable methods of instruction in any subject are now in vogue. But although not quite satisfied with the present methods, I do not think them erroneous. They simply appear to me inadequate. As far as they go, they are good; but they do not cover the whole ground. The methods of the kindergarten and of the primary school are not to be condemned and discarded. The more elementary teacher by drawings and models shows form in the

concrete. She submits them to analysis by sight and by touch. She names the ideas that thus arise in the mind. She attempts to secure definiteness and fullness of conception by causing her pupils to reproduce in drawings and in models the forms she has presented. Her modes of procedure deserve unqualified approval as necessarily preliminary to subsequent progress. From the stick-laying and the paper-folding of the kindergarten up to the clay-modelling, the free-hand and mechanical drawing and the work-shop practice of the higher classes of the public school, there is no exercise of eye or of hand that can be spared, if we are to evoke the highest capability, not merely of the workman who executes, but of the designer who plans. The concrete must precede the abstract. The abstract cannot enter the mind except through the concrete.

Here, however, I must interject a caution. Some teachers attempt formal definition too soon. "What is a straight line?" "What is a perpendicular line?" "What is a square?" says the teacher, and in reply the pupils patter off a screed of words to which no meaning, or at least no very definite meaning, is attached, but which by constant iteration has been drilled into them. I do not say that such pupils do not know what straight lines, perpendiculars and squares are. Probably they do know, as children know anything. They can, by drawing, by signs, by illustrations, show that they understand the meaning of these terms. But what I assert is, that they do not know them through the definition,—that the definition, especially if it be accurate, is not so well understood as the thing defined. In the beginnings of knowledge—mark that I say in the *beginnings* of knowledge—things are not known through definitions; definitions are understood through things. Definitions at first result from attempts to express what we have reached through an analysis of things and their comparison with each other. Definitions sum up our knowledge; they are perfected by careful discussion after cautious investigation of the thing defined. They conclude, they do not precede, the studies of a child.

Hence, to show familiarity with the meaning of the language by which we express forms and their relations, and to show accuracy in its use, the defining of terms is of little value. An apt definition from a child merely shows a facile memory of words, at times of words used with but little sense of their meaning. Acquaintance with words implies two things,—ability to gather from them their meaning when used by others, and ability ourselves to use them for the exact expression of our own thoughts. This two-fold acquaintance with words in relation to form may be tested in the first sense by reproducing as a drawing, as a model or as a mental

product merely, a form that has been accurately described; in the second sense by so describing a form that it may be exactly reproduced by an intelligent hearer.

Pardon me if I ask you to join in an illustrative exercise. I shall slowly describe three or four plane figures which I shall ask you mentally to reproduce. I will then show you my conception, and you can compare it with your mental picture. If they correspond in every essential particular (magnitude I shall not express), we may conclude that you and I have a common understanding of the language used. If they do not correspond, it must be either because I use language imperfectly, or because you imperfectly understand it. The exercise has a possible two-fold application. It may be so used as to test a learner's understanding of language or to test his power of using it.

Picture a square, trisect its sides, join the points of trisection in pairs by lines parallel to the sides of the square, and erase the middle third of each side of the square.

Conceive a square with its diagonals drawn and with a square described outwardly on each of its sides. Erase the sides of the first square.

Lastly, represent to yourselves a circle and its horizontal diameter. Divide the diameter into three equal parts numbered from left to right 1, 2 and 3. On 1 and on 1 and 2 together describe semi-circles convex upward; and on 3 and on 3 and 2 together describe semi-circles convex downward. Erase the diameter.

(At this stage, diagrams of the figures described were shown.)

Educators are often stung by unfair criticisms founded on the necessary incompleteness of their work. What an idiot would that man be who should object to the workmen who are laying the foundation of a house, or are even finishing its walls, that they have not yet put on the roof, nor put in the doors and windows, nor laid the carpets! Such idiots cannot be found.

What idiots are those men who criticize the teacher because of what pupils do not know, ignoring what the pupils have learned and ignoring what the teacher purposes in his perfected scheme to teach in the future. Such idiots abound. Some of them edit educational periodicals. Some of them write to the daily press. Some of them collect the crudities, the absurdities and the verbal substitutions that every examiner meets with in examination papers, and then publish them to the world as the results of school work. I shall try not to be one of these idiots myself. I shall not point out the incompleteness of the work done in schools by the aid of such exercises as I have referred to, as a criticism of educational

work ; but that we may not rest content with what we have so done, let us patiently and considerably listen to him who says: "So far you have done well, but you have not made sufficiently prominent the necessary relations of form and of magnitude."

The teacher's reply to this suggestion usually is: "True, but our pupils are to study Euclid. Euclid and the geometers, who with more or less variation follow his method, unfold these relations, and all that is needful in this respect is provided by the study of Euclid."

In nothing that I am about to say must I be interpreted as undervaluing the time-tested and time-honored work of him who 2200 years ago taught geometry in Alexandria. I think it safe to predict that Euclid's exposition of the ancient geometry will never be obsolete, will never cease to be a part of the studies of an educated man. But it is very possible to know Euclid pretty well, and yet to have but narrow and inadequate views of general relations of form and magnitude. Euclid's treatise establishes by unexceptionable argument, on the basis of definitions, postulates and axioms, the main superstructure of elementary geometry—the geometry, that is, of the right line and the circle. It is a matchless example of logical reasoning. The argument moves irresistibly to the conclusion. But the course is narrowly linear. In the myriad-meshed nexus of interdependent truths, those threads of connection which lead on to the desired end are alone traced. All others are passed by, I had almost said contemptuously—it would be better to say almost necessarily. The invention of an argument by which a truth is established demands a wide survey of the many relations that exist between the truth to be established and the body of truth already posited. But from the many relations only one or two are selected for the purpose of the argument, and all others are dismissed. But the attention of him who receives and is convinced by the argument is directed to the selected relations only, and he is apt to entertain a much narrower conception of the subject than that which the inventor of the argument holds. The labors of many commentators have traced, as exercises upon Euclid, a multitude of the collateral connections of geometrical truth which Euclid has passed by ; but these, as though they were bewildering by-paths, are apt to be disregarded by pupils who are pressing through the text-book. How many students cramming for matriculation stop long enough to observe that no fewer than five propositions of the 3rd book of Euclid are really only variant expressions of the one fundamental truth that circles which have a common centre and a common point in the circumference must wholly coincide ?

In consequence, there are many persons who have diligently perused

Euclid, but who, nevertheless, know but little geometry, too little of the innumerable relations of extension in space which geometry aims to reveal, which are indeed implicit in Euclid, but which it was not Euclid's purpose explicitly to state. Such persons are like those who, following a beaten track with downcast eyes, note with punctilious care each step of the way, but never lift up their gaze to the wide beauty of the landscape or to the boundless glory of the skies.

The linear sequence of truth, as set forth in Euclid, has the disadvantage of apparently removing some derived truths far from the base of elementary primitive truth on which they directly rest. If I wish to tell you that John is Peter's uncle, I can surely find some better mode of doing so than saying to you that John's sister Mary's father had a daughter named Elizabeth whose brother William had a son named Peter. Yet such a statement would be simple directness itself compared with Euclid's mode of showing you the very elementary and easily demonstrated truth that the three interior angles of any triangle are together equal to two right angles. Omitting definitions, axioms and postulates, Euclid thinks it well, in order to demonstrate this immediately obvious truth, to teach us how to describe nine figures and to demonstrate twelve subsidiary truths. If any one of nine constructions be forgotten, or of twelve theorems, or even if their order be inverted, the whole laborious structure falls to the ground. One ill consequence of the remoteness of propositions from the foundations on which they rest, remoteness resulting from wearisome length of argument, is that often assent to the truths submitted is compelled, rather than that the truth is so exhibited as to be seen, understood and therefore acknowledged.

Another consequence of Euclid's linear arrangement is that truths identical with, or closely allied to each other are not merely disconnected but are far separated in his scheme. The 11th proposition of the second book and the 14th of the same book are identical, except in expression, with the 30th and the 13th of the sixth book. I must not multiply illustrations: compare for yourselves propositions 1, 9, 10, 25 of the third book and 5 of the fourth book. Observe that of the four propositions by which the identity of triangles may be established, one is omitted altogether, and the 4th, 8th and 26th of the first book which give the other three are so far separated that their mutual relations are scarcely seen by the unassisted learner. In such an arrangement the close interdependence of the several members of the great body of truth is not apprehended by the pupils. They have great difficulty in so seeing the relation of a truth newly stated, to truths previously known, as to invent new demonstrations.

Have I succeeded in carrying you with me? Do you see, as I see it, the need of a kind of geometrical instruction not yet provided in our schools;—one that, succeeding the instruction of the kindergarten, shall accompany the drawing, the modelling and the handicraft of our elementary schools, and shall prepare for the study of Euclid in our superior schools? Its methods must be largely intuitive. It must appeal directly to the understanding and the judgment. Truths must be strictly reasoned out. There must be no confused mingling of unsupported assertion with argument. But the procedure may be much less hampered by artificial restrictions than that of Euclid. The correlation of truths must be comprehensively considered. The pupil must be encouraged to employ his reasoning and his inventive powers, and to exercise himself in accurate expression by that sort of instruction, catechetical and provocative, which is often styled the "drawing-out process."

That it is possible to provide such a course of instruction has long been clear to me; and as far as the school proprieties, the accepted conventionalities which exercise over us a control so tyrannical, would permit, I have experimented,—I may venture to say I have successfully experimented,—in this direction; and if I can but succeed in winning your suffrages and your sympathetic aid, I shall experiment in this direction still further.

Let me illustrate what I mean by saying that our mathematical instruction must in its earlier stages be largely intuitive. I shall do so by reference to the relations of angles, and, indeed, I shall draw all the illustrations of the points I state from the same group of truths, partly because I discussed this subject in the hearing of some of you a year ago, and I have the teacher's instinct for repetition and review; partly because the subject may be new to some, and to them my illustrations will be effective in proportion to their simplicity and their connectedness.

Now, will you permit me for a moment to consider you as my pupils—my little pupils? Let me forget the developed intelligence that has set its seal of thoughtfulness upon your brows. I shall interpret these critical glances which pierce me through and through as mere looks of inquiry and interest from children who have been for some time under my instruction, and between whom and myself has been established that *rapport* of sentiment and of thought that identifies the mental and the æsthetical movements of the true teacher and his pupils.

I shall suppose that in former lessons we have together considered that primitive conception of the angle which results from angular movement,—a conception familiar to men from the days when on Mesopotamian

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plains Chaldean shepherds watched the orderly evolutions of the heavenly bodies; that we have recognized one complete revolution as the universal natural unit, from which all other units of angular measurement spring; that we have divided that unit into four equal parts—right angles, into 360 equal parts—degrees, and pushed the division further by subdividing the degree into 60 equal parts—minutes. I shall further suppose that we have together traced the various forms in which this truth presents itself, its various applications and its necessary consequences,—as thus: he who faces in succession every point of the horizon, facing no point twice, has turned through 4 right angles, through 360 degrees. The sum of the angles formed by any number of co-planar lines radiating from the same point is four right angles. The sum of all the angles formed by lines which on one side of a straight line radiate from a point in that line is two right angles. When the sum of the successive angles made by lines 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, etc., drawn from the same point is four right angles, the first line and the last line are coincident. When the sum of the successive angles made by any number of lines radiating from a point is two right angles, the first line and the last line are collinear. Two intersecting lines make the vertical angles equal. When four radiating lines make both pairs of vertical angles equal, the four lines are two and two collinear. I shall also suppose (anticipating a point on which I must dwell later) that you have made these conceptions definite, fixed them firmly in mind and made them perfectly familiar by many arithmetical examples. Thus*—five lines radiate from a point; the angle between 1 and 2 is 90° , between 2 and 3 is 49° , between 3 and 4 is 61° , and between 4 and 5 is 63° ; what is the magnitude of the angle between 5 and 1? One of the angles formed by two lines that intersect is 55° ; find the remaining three angles. What conclusion can you reach from the statement that of four lines radiating from a point the first makes with the second an angle of 38° , the second with the third 90° , and the third with the fourth 52° ? With such preparation we are about to study the relations of the angles of closed figures.

Our starting point is this. If a straight line be revolved around any closed figure, it describes a complete revolution, four right angles, 360° . You see that this is true as I roll this long rod around the periphery of this triangle, this square, this five-sided and this six-sided figure. And when I draw these large circles at a distance around these figures, and produce the sides of the figures successively through their successive

*The figures here and subsequently described were of course drawn on the black-board by the lecturer.

angles, so as to meet the circumjacent circles, we can see what part of the total revolution is described at each angular change of direction. When this truth is presented to the child thus visibly, he sees that it is so, that it must be so, even though he may be unable to say why it must be so. He sees—he *intuitively* knows—that four right angles are thus described. Another mode of stating the fact, the mode used by the geometricians, must now be given and examined. It is this—the sum of the exterior angles of any closed figure is four right angles. The meaning of the terms and the many consequences of the truth must be examined by our pupils in detail.

Joining this truth to the truth previously seen, that the sum of the angles on one side of a line as made by lines radiating from a point in it is two right angles, we together proceed to investigate the sum of the interior angles of closed figures.

If we produce the sides of a triangle successively through the successive angles, so that each side is produced and so that only one side is produced at each angle, we see directly at each angle of the figure that the sum of the interior angle and its adjacent exterior angle is two right angles; and as there are three angles in the triangle, it is clear that the sum of the exterior and interior angles of the triangle is three times two, six right angles. But the exterior angles together are four right angles, therefore the three interior alone are together two right angles. You see that the reasoning all the way through is clear and satisfactory even to the mind of a quite young child. In a way precisely similar we proceed to show that the interior angles of a quadrilateral figure make four right angles, of a pentagon six, of a heptagon eight, and so on.

And here I am furnished with an illustration of what I mean by saying that the collateral relations of truths ought to be exhaustively treated. Take the magnitude of the sum of the angles of the pentagon as an example. By drawing a line from one of its angles to the next angle but one, we divide the pentagon into a triangle and a quadrilateral, the angles of these two figures making up together the angles of the pentagon. But we have seen that the sum of the angles of a triangle is two right angles and of the quadrilateral four. Therefore the sum of the angles of the pentagon must be four right angles and two right angles, six right angles—as we have before seen. If, after thus dividing the pentagon into a triangle and a quadrilateral, we draw any diagonal of the latter, we shall divide the pentagon into three triangles, the sum of whose angles will again be six,—three times two. Lastly, if from a point within the pentagon lines be drawn to its angles, we shall divide the pentagon

into five triangles, the sum of whose interior angles will be five times two, ten right angles. But the angles at the assumed point, making together four right angles as we saw before, are no part of the interior angles of the pentagon, and must therefore be subtracted from the ten in order to give us the sum of the interior angles of the pentagon, which, accordingly, we find as before to be six right angles.

The truths just presented respecting the magnitude of the sum of the interior angles of closed figures have been proved by processes of ratiocination at one or two removes from direct intuition. They can also be proved intuitively, and they ought to be so proved. Time fails for more than a single illustration. I shall show by such methods that the sum of the interior angles of a triangle is two right angles. I mark on the platform on which I am standing three points, 1, 2 and 3, forming a triangle. On the line joining 1 and 2 I stand with my face towards 2. I walk up to 2. So far I have not changed my direction; my back is still turned on 1. But now I turn through the angle at 2 by turning my back upon 3. Without further change of direction I back up to the point 3. My face is now towards 2; I change my direction through the angle 3 by turning my face towards 1. I walk up to 1. My back is now towards 3, and I make my third and last change of direction in turning through the angle 1 by turning my back upon 2. Lastly I back up to my starting point. At first my face was toward 2 and my back upon 1, now my face is toward 1 and my back turned upon 2; that is to say, that in turning through the three angles of the triangle marked on this platform I have made a right-about face,—I have turned through two right angles. The same truth is shown as I make this arrow coincide with the sides of the triangle which I have drawn upon the blackboard by turning it through the *interior* angles of the triangle in succession. You see that the pointer is thus turned end for end—half round—through two right angles in fact. Of course I must take care at each change of direction not to turn the arrow through an *exterior* angle, or I should confuse myself and my pupils. If through a mistake I were to turn my arrow at each point through an exterior angle I should turn it completely round, because the sum of the exterior angles of any convex closed figure is four right angles. You observe then that we may show our pupils by direct appeal to elementary truth, not only that the three interior angles of every triangle are together equal to two right angles, but how this comes to be so.

There are three ways of presenting a truth. Let me use in illustration the truth just stated and proved. 1st. As I do now, we may cut up a

paper triangle, put its three angles together, and observe that their sum is two right angles. This is an appeal to sense intuition. It shows what is. It is the method of the Kindergarten. 2nd. We may pursue some method resembling those of which I have given one or two examples. Not only do we thus show what is, but we prove that what is must be, and we explain how it must be. It is an appeal to intuitions of reason. It is a method the nature and possibilities of which are too little known. It is Euclid's method in a few cases, as in the fourth of the first book. 3rd. By a process of ratiocination founded on intuitions of reason the truth may be established. This is for most truths Euclid's method. It shows that what is, in relations of form, must be; and, except in *ad absurdum* demonstrations, it shows how it must be; but when the process of deduction from first truths is long, the learner usually fails to see just how the truth comes to be. His consent is compelled; his understanding is left in the dimness of a half light.

I must hasten to conclude. The last point which I shall attempt to make is this: we ought to aid the reasoning about form, when our pupils are young, by definite numerical presentation—in other words, we should set children to reason about *measured* rather than about *indefinite* form and magnitude.

It is an example of the indefinite Euclidian method of comparing magnitudes to say that A and B are each greater than C. Now, this enables us to come to no conclusion respecting the relative magnitude of A and B. Either may be greater than the other. The definite arithmetical mode of making the comparison is to say A is greater than C by ten square feet, and B is greater than C by four square feet. This precise statement enables us to compare A and B and to affirm with full conviction that A is greater than B by six square feet. In consequence of this definiteness of numerical relations the *ad absurdum* proof finds no place in arithmetical reasoning. The introduction of an *ad absurdum* proof is tantamount to the confession that, while we know that so-and-so must be the case, we cannot tell why it must be so. Such a proof is an opprobrium to a science and a stumbling-block to beginners. In arithmetical reasoning, if we can assert anything, we can always directly account for it.

Our modern arithmetic places at our disposal an instrument of research immeasurably superior to the cumbrous calculations of the ancients. Mere children in our common schools have a familiarity with numbers and a facility in their use that would have amazed a philosopher of Euclid's day. More and more in our schools have numbers become the

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instrument, the guide and the test of well reasoned thought. Under the guidance of a skillful teacher the child learns not merely to manipulate numbers blindly, as a calculating machine might, but he applies numbers to the solution of practical problems, widely varied in form, and calling for analysis, for reflection and for ingenuity in adapting processes to the attainment of results,—results of which the correctness can be infallibly tested. Now, all the definiteness, precision and convenience of arithmetical procedure can be introduced into the geometry of *measured* magnitudes. It would not be easy for me to find a more striking illustration of this than is afforded by the ready way in which a pupil can be led from the relations of the angles formed by three lines intersecting in three points to those that subsist among those formed by three lines intersecting in two points—in other words, to pass from triangles to parallel lines.

(a) Given any two angles, not contiguous, of the figure formed by the intersection of three lines in three points, and the remaining ten angles can be calculated. The procedure is merely the application of truths already intuitively shown. (b) It is evident, then, that if two lines cut by a transverse be shown, and if two angles not contiguous be given, say the two alternate angles, not only the angles actually formed in the figure as drawn can be all found, but those also that would be formed, if the figure were completed. (c) Given then two lines approximately horizontal cut by a transverse line, given further that the left hand upper interior angle is 48° , and the angle alternate to it is 53° , it will be possible for us to ask with hope of correct answer from little children:—"On which side will these lines meet, and what will be the magnitude of the angle of concurrence?" (d) If now in a similar case we give the alternate angles equal, we shall set our pupils in a train of thought which will unfold for them the doctrine of parallel lines, as we ask them again: "On which side of the transverse will these lines meet, and what will be the magnitude of the angle of concurrence?"

Not one example of each kind, and not ten, will always be sufficient for the purpose; but when many examples as suggested in (a) have prepared the way for examples like (b); when many like (b) have enabled pupils to master examples like (c), answering readily these two questions: "On which side of the transverse will the lines which are cut meet; and what will be the magnitude of the angle of concurrence?" then will the pupil be able in respect to an example like (d) to say: "The lines which are cut will meet neither to the right nor to the left of the transverse; they will not meet at all; they are parallel lines; and the

reason why they will not meet is that the alternate interior angles are equal." In ways that may be modified indefinitely can the intelligent teacher bring under the notice and reveal to the understanding of his pupils all other particulars of the doctrine of parallel lines, both those which are and those which are not treated by Euclid.

I must here conclude what has been for me a most pleasant half-hour, thanking you for your courteous attention. I could not in these few minutes introduce you into what is to me a splendid shrine of the temple of truth. I have opened a chink. You have peeped in. Thrust the door wide open and enter boldly. My language has not been at all points what I could desire. Bring the subject before your little classes, and express yourselves with greater fullness, conciseness, clearness and force than I can do, and I promise that none will rejoice in your success more heartily than I. Without the slightest tincture of bitterness or envy, we, earlier teachers, the teachers of the 19th century, bid you who will soon be the teachers of the 20th, for your own sake, for the sake of your pupils, for the sake of our mother-land for whom we have labored with too little success, and in whose forgiving bosom we shall soon nestle in our last long sleep—nay, for the sake of humanity itself, blindly struggling with its woes, overwhelm the memory of our failures by the grandeur of your successes.

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THE KINDERGARTEN DEPARTMENT.

The Kindergarten Department met in the Library of the High School on Wednesday at 3 o'clock.

Mr. Arthy opened the meeting by asking for appointment of a chairman, and Miss Hart, of Toronto, was appointed.

Miss McKenzie acted as secretary.

A Committee consisting of three members, Mrs. Newcombe, Mrs. Harriman and Miss McIntosh, was formed to make nominations for officers, and report on Thursday.

Mr. Hughes was then called to address the meeting, taking the place of Mrs. Hughes, who could not be present.

The subject was "The Kindergarten as a Natural Method of Education."

After thanking Mr. Hughes for his helpful words, Miss Boulton of the Normal School, Ottawa, was called on to give "A Morning Talk in the Kindergarten," which proved very interesting to those present.

The meeting then adjourned to meet on Thursday.

On Thursday the first business was receiving the report of the nominating committee (after the reading of the minutes), and the following were elected: President, Mrs. Newcombe, of Hamilton; Vice-President, Mrs. Harriman, of Halifax; Secretary, Miss Henderson, Montreal; and a Board of Directors, consisting of the Kindergartens from all sections of the country; Miss Boulton of Ottawa as first Director.

Miss Newcombe was then asked to take her place as President; in the absence of Miss Henderson, Miss McKenzie acted as Secretary.

Miss Hart was then asked to give a paper on the "Relationship of the Kindergarten to Art."

There was no discussion on this subject, and Mrs. Harriman followed with the "Social Aspects of the Kindergarten."

There was no discussion following the paper, but two questions were asked: 1st. How can Kindergarten methods be introduced into Country Schools? 2nd. How far can they be introduced into Sunday Schools? Both of them were discussed freely.

Mrs. Wylie, of Brantford, then gave two notices of motion for next meeting.

Mrs. WYLIE, Brantford:—"I give notice that I shall move the following resolution at the next session of the Kindergarten Section of D. E. A.:—

"That in future all nominations for officers shall be in open meeting, and all elections of such officers be by ballot."

MRS. WYLIE, Brantford :—“ I give notice that I shall move the following resolution at the next session of the Kindergarten Section of D. E. A. :—

“That our meetings be conducted according to recognized Parliamentary usages.”

TO THE CHAIRMAN AND MEMBERS OF THE KINDERGARTEN DEPARTMENT
OF THE DOMINION EDUCATIONAL CONVENTION OF CANADA :—

Your Committee beg leave to report the nomination of the following Kindergarteners for the several offices of *President, Vice-President, Secretary and Board of Directors*, viz. :—

President, Mrs. L. T. Newcombe, Hamilton.
Vice-President, Mrs. S. S. Harriman, Halifax.
Secretary, Miss E. Henderson, Montreal.

BOARD OF DIRECTORS.

Mrs. Hughes, Toronto,
Miss McIntosh, Montreal,
“ Orr, St. John, N.B.
“ E. Boulton, Ottawa ;
“ Laidlaw, Toronto ;
Mrs. Sara Patterson, Truro, N.S. ;
Miss Mary J. Bazin, Montreal ;
“ L. Currie, Toronto ;
“ McKenzie, London ;
“ Bertha Savage, Hamilton ;
Mrs. M. J. Wylie, Brantford ;
Miss Green, Chatham ;
“ S. Little, Brockville ;
“ H. J. Bowman, Kingston ;
“ Holmes, Strathroy ;
“ Margaret Young, Aylmer ;
Peterborough.
“ Warner, }
Ingersoll.
Berlin.
St. John, N.B.

Nominating Committee :—

Jane McIntosh, Montreal ;

Susan S. Harriman, Halifax ;

LEONTINE T. NEWCOMBE, Hamilton, Ont.,

Convener.

Montreal, July 7th, 1892.

If we may judge by numbers, the Kindergarten Section was very popular, as the attendance numbered nearly two hundred each day, and many distinguished visitors were seated in the capacious and beautiful room provided for this meeting by the kindness of the Local Executive Committee.

The Kindergarteners wish to place on record their high appreciation of the many kindnesses shown and favors extended to this Department of the Dominion Educational Association by the friends of Education in general and the Local Executive Committee in particular.

The inspiration gained by coming in contact with such noble people as are found in Montreal, and the remembrance of such environment as the spacious and beautiful halls of the "Montreal High School," will remain in our hearts and memory as "a thing of beauty that will be a joy forever."

The meeting closed with singing "God Save our Queen."

July 7, 892.

A. E. MCKENZIE,

Sec. pro-tem.

THE KINDERGARTEN A NATURAL SYSTEM OF EDUCATION.

BY JAMES L. HUGHES, PUBLIC SCHOOL INSPECTOR, TORONTO.

The Kindergarten is a natural system of education, because it recognizes the natural laws of human growth, and supplies the necessary conditions adapted to stimulate the special powers of each individual child. It recognizes the fact that each child has individuality peculiarly its own, and that the greatest evil of school life in the past has been the dwarfing of individual power. No two children are alike, no two should be alike. All should be in unison by having the same desire to live for the right, but the powers of each and the methods of using them should be his own. The mightiest, holiest part of each individual is the quality or power in which he differs from all others. Schools generally manufacture men and women "to pattern." Whatever the ability, general or special, possessed by the different pupils in a class, they have all been expected to rise or fall to the same dead level. Usually the level has been very *dead*. The Kindergarten is founded on the broad principle that the Creator had a special purpose in giving life to each child, and that the school should aid each child in becoming as nearly as possible what God meant him to be when He first let him enter the world. The Kindergarten insists on the proper control of each child, because uncontrolled spontaneity commonly leads to anarchy and unbridled evil, but it never allows power to be destroyed by controlling it.

2. The Kindergarten values the child more than the knowledge to be communicated to it or acquired by it. It values knowledge highly, but it places its highest estimate on the child, who has power to give the only real value to knowledge. It knows that the development of the child increases his capacity for gathering and using knowledge. It believes that the child's powers should grow forever, that they grow most rapidly in early years, and that true growth in childhood is the only basis for the highest development of maturity. Therefore it makes the child and his universal tendencies and activities the chief study of the educator. The highest function of the teacher is not to select the knowledge most appropriate for children or to decide the best plans for fixing it in their minds; his greatest study is the child and the ways

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in which he educates himself in those most prolific years before he goes to school. Some teachers claim that the teacher's duty is to teach the child how to "go." The child was set going long before he went to school. He was kept going before he went to school more rapidly than he ever goes after that time. Others say, the teacher's duty is to start the child to *grow*. How he had been growing before he went to school! How he grew physically; how his mind unfolded and defined itself; how his spiritual nature recognized the Creator in the wondrous material creation and reached out to the mysteries of the unknown! He was ever going before he went to school; and growing because he was going. The reason he stops growing rapidly as soon as he goes to school is that his teachers interfere with his going. They stop his going altogether during school hours, and the reason he does not stop growing altogether physically, intellectually and spiritually is that he is fortunately not kept in school all the time. How full of gratitude we should be for the fact that the blighting processes of the school room last but six hours of five days in each week! We should be even more grateful, when we remember that the school hours may become the most productive of the day in real growth. This is a part of the revelation which the Kindergarten bears to all teachers who study it with sympathetic spirit. There is no good reason why the child's development should be checked after it goes to school. It should continue to improve with accelerated speed throughout life. Teachers will do vastly better than they do now, when they keep up after the child goes to school the rate of advancement attained before he goes to school. They can never hope to do this until they study and understand the fundamental principles that underlie the motives of children and guide them in the infinitely varied activities of their childish work and play. All their activities are in harmony with a divine purpose in the accomplishment of their fullest development. Man can best learn how to teach from the greatest teacher. His power and the unequalled success of his plans can be learned by the careful and continuous study of childhood. The teaching profession has been learning this fact from the Kindergarten. There are several organized agencies already in existence for recording and comparing the characteristics, the tendencies, the habits, the activities, the capabilities, and the progressive development of children in different parts of the world. The new era has begun.

3. In the Kindergarten the child's spontaneity is respected. He is not guided too much. He is allowed to work out, with the material given him, the plans, the designs, the problems that arise in his own mind.

The Kindergarten dictates plans, designs or problems to him only so far as may be necessary to help his mind to recognize new conceptions. He never has a lesson in which he is a follower or an imitator all the time. The idea that he should produce a result similar to his neighbor's is never presented to him. He is trained to depend on his own mind for the plan or design and for its execution. Nature's plan before the child goes to school is to let him find his own problems. His greatest mental power is the ability to recognize in the material world by which he is surrounded the new things he has not seen before and the new problems he does not understand. If he has the privilege of growing up among the beauties of natural life, if the trees, and flowers, and birds, and butterflies, and bees, and crickets are his companions, if he has sand, and stones, and sticks for his playthings, there are few of the problems of science and material philosophy that do not present themselves to his mind. He solves thousands of them unaided, and brings those that are too deep for him to his mother, or father, or most sympathetic older friend. These problems are not forced upon his mind by any external agency; they lie all around his path awaiting recognition by his mind. The recognition comes under such conditions exactly at the right moment, when the mind is ready to deal with the problem. No wonder that, under such conditions, knowledge is acquired and mental power defined and developed so rapidly. But when the child goes to school, all these conditions are absolutely reversed. The teacher finds the problems, and brings them to the child. Worse than this, the problems are those that suggest themselves to the teacher's mind, and not the child's. Such problems cannot be appropriate for the child. The problems suitable for one child cannot be the best for other children at the same time. No mind but the child's own can decide the character of the problems suited to its present condition of development. Mind growth can be dwarfed in no other way so completely as by the presentation of unsuitable problems. Loss of interest, and loss of power, negation instead of positivity, indifference in place of aggressive wonderment, must follow when the child is forced to deal with problems that are not in harmony with his mental development.

One of the greatest improvements in School teaching will be the placing of the children in such conditions that they may find their own problems. In the Kindergarten this is the foundation principle of mental growth. Self-activity does not mean activity in working out the directions of a teacher or any other superior mind; it means the revelation of execution of the conceptions of the child himself. The child's work should

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be self-expression not imitation, not mere responsive action in accord with the suggestion of a teacher. "The children are not interested in study, and most of them need to be forced to learn, so it would be worse than folly to expect them to find problems for themselves," so says the teacher who has had no true inspiration, no clear enlightenment. My dear friend, I reply, it is quite true that the children are not interested in your problems. It is true, moreover, that the few who gratify you and their parents by paying attention to your problems and learning your lessons usually make weak men, lacking in originality and force. Every head boy who leaves school with a load of prizes in his arms and a load of knowledge in his head, and then becomes a respectable non-entity, is an unripe falling apple to set educational Newtons thinking.

The pupils do rebel against your problems; but they do not rebel against the problems of nature before they go to school. Wake up! There are apples falling all around you. The greatest development in school processes during the next twenty-five years will be the introduction into the school room of appropriate material calculated to stimulate the investigative and executive powers of children, and thus continue the natural educational processes that led to such rapid and definite growth before school life began.

By reversing nature's plan and bringing the problems to children instead of allowing them to find them for themselves, teachers prevent the development of the power to recognize new problems. This is the most important of all intellectual powers. The solution of new problems is a simple matter when we can clearly recognize them. The ability to see the things yet unseen must precede the knowledge of the things yet unknown. The power to see new problems should grow in strength and clearness more rapidly than any other mental power. It cannot grow unless it has the opportunity for exercise. The greatest teacher is the one who presents to the child the best opportunities for the recognition of new problems by his own mind, and the most perfect facilities for expressing or representing his new conceptions in material form. The wonderment of the child in regard to the material world should become much more than a mental stimulus; it should ultimately become our highest, broadest, keenest spiritual insight. We are even in the midst of new spiritual problems that we fail to recognize, because our wonder power was not allowed to act up to its natural limit.

4. In the Kindergarten, knowledge is made clear by the self-activity of the child. All growth of human power is based on the self-activity of the individual to be developed. No thought is ever definite until it has

been consciously lined out or wrought out. The Kindergarten makes use of self-expression in the child to define the thought already in its mind, and to reveal new thought. There is no other way by which thought can be clearly revealed and defined. Self-activity on the part of the child secures four very important results: it enables the teacher to be sure that the child is paying attention to its work, it reveals the nature of the child's own conceptions, it is an accurate test of the clearness of the thought received from the instruction of the teacher, and it is the most productive incentive to originality.

5. In the Kindergarten, knowledge is applied as it is gained. The old plan of learning definitions, or tables, or the names or powers of letters, or the theoretical principles of any science as a preparation for practical work to be done in geometry, algebra, arithmetic, reading or science was not in harmony with natural laws of growth. It is unnatural to value knowledge of any kind for itself alone. Knowledge has no value except as it is used; and an assumed value based on any other foundation must be fictitious and misleading. The child should not be interested in knowledge that it is not required to use in some way. When it becomes conscious of a lack of knowledge that is essential to the accomplishment of any definite purpose in its mind, it needs no artificial stimulus to make it give active and persistent attention. The consciousness of necessity should precede the effort to acquire. The Kindergarten leads the child to define knowledge by using it, and uses knowledge as soon as it is acquired.

6. The Kindergarten trains the executive powers of children. Formerly only their receptive powers were cultivated. They were made receptacles for knowledge communicated by the teacher, and their powers of receiving knowledge independently were developed. When teachers had accomplished the two purposes of storing the minds of their pupils and training their powers of observation, so as to qualify them for gaining knowledge readily and accurately themselves, they were satisfied. Better teachers were soon convinced that the accumulation of knowledge by even the most perfect methods was not the true aim of education, and gradually the reflective power received attention as well as the receptive powers. The lesson that the Kindergarten has for us is, that the best training of the receptive and reflective powers is practically valueless unless the executive powers are trained too. It will not do to leave the training of the executive powers to the circumstances of life outside of school. The receptive powers receive a great deal of good training outside of school, so do the reflective powers, so, too, do the executive

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powers. There is no reason for leaving the development of the executive powers to the conditions outside of school that does not apply with equal force to the culture of the receptive and reflective powers. Such a course would do away with schools altogether. There are two reasons that render the training of the executive powers of children absolutely essential in a complete education: first, the receptive and reflective powers are really useful to the individual and humanity only when they are made productive by executive ability; and second, the training of the executive powers is the only way by which the receptive and reflective powers can be thoroughly cultivated. Nature's sequence is: receive, reflect, use. The first two steps must be imperfect without the third. The Kindergarten always completes the ascent; it never destroys the unity of the trinity.

7. The Kindergarten makes children creative; or it is better to say that it preserves and utilizes their creative powers. Men and women were not intended to be mere imitators or servile followers of other men and women. They should be independent, original, creative. Man cannot be creative as God is creative, but the divine in each human being gives him power to be and do what others have never been or done. There is something for each of us to discover and reveal; something for each to produce; something for each to add to the helpful agencies that serve to make man happier; something that will aid in the realization of the highest hopes of the heart of humanity. The Kindergarten aims from the first to develop the truly productive more than the reproductive tendencies and talents of the child. It makes children not merely submissive and responsive, but suggestive, inventive, creative. The schools and universities will learn to do so in due time.

8. The discipline of the Kindergarten is natural. It is based on love, and executed by love. There is no heart whose feelings are not purified and ennobled by the consciousness of the love of another heart; no mind that is not aroused and stimulated to grander effort by the full sympathy of another mind. The young heart yearns for the mother love, and there is no other who could make so perfect a teacher as the mother of the child to be taught, if her education and her time were sufficient for the work. There will come a time when noble mothers will train great daughters and sons for humanity to a much greater extent than they do now. As women more clearly realize their powers and their responsibilities, it will be impossible to satisfy them with the society customs of semi-civilization. The social instinct has been terribly degraded. The period of its ennobling is at hand, when social unity shall in no sense

be formalism. The Kindergarten emphasizes the need of mother love as an educational force. It does not propose that the Kindergarten shall be a substitute for the mother; but it tries to provide for the little ones a beautiful home where they may enjoy the sympathetic affection of a true woman's heart, and have at the same time the advantages of the culture of a trained educator. It is only when the child's nature opens to the light that its complete life grows; it is only when the child's heart is happy that its mind is free. In the true Kindergarten no woman can find a place whose heart is not young, whose life is not pure, and whose aims are not unselfish. Love is the greatest controlling force and the greatest intellectual stimulus.

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• MORNING TALK IN THE KINDERGARTEN.

BY MISS BOULTON.

The following report of Miss Boulton's address appeared in one of the Montreal daily papers:—

“ Miss E. Boulton, of the Ottawa Normal School, gave her ‘ Morning talk in the Kindergarten,’ and a very interesting and instructive talk it was. She did not read a paper, but gave a practical talk instead. In order to carry out her idea, she asked all present to consider themselves children; to put aside for the time being the attitude and thoughts of men and women and return to children's thoughts once more. Then she began her talk. What have we to be thankful for to-day? That was the question she put to her audience of supposed children. Then followed the prayer of thanks, which Miss Boulton sang very sweetly, assisted by Miss Alexander at the piano. The rain song followed, in which the growth of the plant is impressed upon the young mind. Other sweet and simple songs followed, all illustrative of some practical or natural subject. In this way Miss Boulton said she created a desire in the child to gain information about things that lie around him; a real deep love for nature in all her moods. He sees sights and hears sounds unknown to the average man or woman. Birds, flowers, the stars, the sunset, clouds, rain, dew, insects, animals, these are his friends, and speak to him each in its own tongue of the Author and Creator of all. A firm foundation is thus laid for the study of natural science. She told of the many subjects brought up in the morning, and the deep interest taken in them by the children. The spring time furnishes its topics, such as the influences of the clouds, rain and sunshine; the summer and autumn with its ‘ seed time and harvest;’ and the winter with its frost and snow. At the close a well deserved vote of thanks was tendered Miss Boulton, and after remarks from Messrs. Hughes and Scott, the meeting adjourned to meet to-day in the same room at 3 o'clock.”

THE RELATIONSHIP OF THE KINDERGARTEN TO ART.

By MISS CAROLINE M. C. HART, PROVINCIAL INSPECTOR OF KINDERGARTENS FOR ONTARIO.

A study of the history of Art, with its constantly varying forms of expression, furnishes us with a record of human development. Philosophy truly declares it to be but the history of the process,—the visible manifestation of the course of thought by which man's mind has developed. As thought progresses, we find its expressional ways in an appropriate form; therefore, tracing the course of Art in the world's history, we trace also the course of thought, interpreting the thought by the Art and explaining the Art by the thought. In the development of the Kindergarten system, Fröbel recognized that race development and individual development are mutually interpretive, and that these two find their explanation again in the course of nature. "The law of all things is one, for God is the law," he writes. Nature is God's earliest work, and therefore infant humanity and the individual child find in nature a response, because of agreement. Nevertheless, in each we may read the law of the whole. From stone and star, from flower and tree, we may gather the lessons of life. Humanity repeats the cycle of creation, beginning in bondage, ending in freedom, as nature faintly foreshadows. The course of human development has been slow and painful, often interrupted. Perceptible efforts towards higher progress are impeded and seemingly overcome, but the great general movement gathers strength with the advancing years. The poet compares it to the tired wave vainly dashing against the shore, gaining no inch, but far behind

"Through creeks and inlets making
Comes silent, flooding, in the main."

Education undertakes to spare the child the painful interruptions. Undertaking the unity of all development, it looks to the GENERAL course of progress, and the child under rational direction, indicated by the parallel growth of nature and the race (for all natural growth is reasonable growth), is carried at the quickest rate of speed over the road so slowly travelled by his race progenitors. Therefore the general forms of Art-production, in their succession, re-appear, as mediums of expression

for the child, in the gifts and occupations of the Kindergarten. I shall endeavor briefly to trace the double course of development showing their unity. When men were in a state of spiritual childhood their thought was vague, undefined, imperfect; it found expression in an appropriate form, and the early Egyptian architecture, the imperfect form of an imperfect idea, the symbol only of a thought, appears. SCIENCE, ART and RELIGION were all implicit in these earliest productions. Faint foreshadowings of the mathematical laws (SCIENCE) that regulated their productions (ART) revealed themselves in progressive higher forms, and as all earnest thought of men has always been and will always be RELIGIOUS thought, we find clearly expressed in the Sphinx and other high forms of early Art mute questionings as to life, its origin, its destiny (Religion). Corresponding to this early stage, the child receives as his first gift his earliest means of expression, the *ball*, a solid form, a mass of material, as later the *divided solid*, the *plane*, the *line* successively find their parallel in the higher arts that follow architecture. Tracing the correspondence still further, we find that as primitive men produced rude forms, and out of them, through the doing, discovered the REASON of their doing; as mathematical laws revealed themselves slowly to the dim apprehension; so out of the child's rude expression SCIENCE dawns for him in the color, form, number and direction, the surface qualities of the ball. Thus Science and Art have ever kept pace. Men have passed from a recognition of the surface qualities of objects to their deeper and hidden relations, hidden in order that their minds might be allured to search out the mysteries of creation, and in this seeking be brought to an ever higher form of perfection by rethinking the most perfect form of thought. Thus, too, as the gifts advance the qualities become more complex and hidden, and the child, by discovering them for himself, begins through the necessary activity the creation of his intellect.

Finally, as joined in the Art expression were men's undifferentiated powers, as through their art they found expression for body, mind and soul, so also is the same triple appeal made to the child. The gifts become for him not only a means of cultivating manual skill and dexterity through handling, and not only a means of assisting him to see the elementary truths of Science that shall serve as food for his intellect. Science, Art and Religion are ever *one*, separate strands radiating from the great centre *Truth*. To the infant race and to the child these three exist in UNDIFFERENTIATED unity. As their art products are rude, the thought derived from them vague and dim, so, too, vague and dim are the religious questionings expressed. "What is the world?" "What

is life?" "From whence did I come?" "Whither am I going?" "What made the world?" was the dim questioning. "Power," answered their Art, as they fashioned in stone a god with multiplied hands and feet. Then a new thought awakens,— "We must live forever, but how?" and the Pyramids, wonderful tombs that will preserve the body, imperfectly answer the dawning thought of immortality. Again they question, "What is life?" and the Sphinx, half human, half animal, helps to interpret the awakening thought of the struggle that goes on in every human life. The same questions that stirred at the heart of man in the childhood of the race are stirring in the heart of the child. They are mute questionings, too dim for word expression, but understanding how in time symbolic art led on to a clearer idea, which again found its expression in a higher symbol, a clearer Art-expression. Fröbel helps the child to relieve the process of thought by giving him, in answer to his questionings, a material symbol, a foundation for clearer ideas. "What is life?" silently questions the child. "Life is unity," whispers the ball to his heart, thus shadowing to him the great fundamental truth that rules all life. It speaks to us from the life of nature as its truths are proclaimed by Science, and it speaks to us from the life of man as the truths of the united life of mankind are proclaimed to us by the fundamental doctrines of religion and their embodiment in the laws of civilization. "Physical life is one," says Science. There is no unrelated object. Every breath of wind and ray of sunshine carry untold influence into the very heart of the universe. The clod of earth is bound to the most distant star,—dust and planet are one, bound by invisible chains linking them all into one vast system. "Human life is one," say Religion and Civilization; invisible chains are linking all life, past, present and future, binding the high and the low, and man is only great when the

"World's heart stirs in his pulse."

This is the great truth that faintly whispers to the child in his earliest gift. The full truth is deep in the heart of the Kindergarten, and softly it is whispered to him, again and again, from the many different experiences that she has prepared for him. As the gifts advance clearer and clearer the great truth discloses itself to his heart. The second gift through its contrasted forms (ball and cube mediated by the cylinder) not only tells him that all *form* is one, though different in degree, but hints to him a new phase of unity in all things. Life is apparent conflict, but all differences must lose themselves in unity, as the sweetest

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harmony springs from two different chords. Life is vanity, complexity, but still harmony echo the building gifts still more clearly, and thus education begins to shadow to the child (through the gifts where each part has its place and function) his place and part in the world,—showing him in symbolic form that he, too, is a unit in the organism, with a part and a purpose different from all others, and yet in harmony.

Thus far the broad relation of the Kindergarten gifts in their succession to the historic development of Art,—the latter showing the natural unfolding of Thought and Will, as it moved with toil and struggle through the ages,—human thought seeking its expression through material, this historic progress forming the justification of the Kindergarten gifts, as the mind of the child, kept in the straight line of progress, seeks through material to express and ever more clearly define his struggling thoughts. Science and Religion, as we have seen, both for child and race, are born of this expression. Thus, developed out of his own living experiences, they shall have a real meaning for the child. Appealing thus through these three,—Science, Art and Religion,—to his *complete* nature, we begin to build up an *organic education*, holding it in its indissoluble unity, as the cultivation of body, mind and soul.

Thus far we have traced the connection of the Kindergarten with Art in its broadest and most general meaning; it remains for us to consider it in its relationship to Art in its limited sense. Educational systems are closely connected with progress in every other branch of life; this is because each age is organic, the soul of it lives in every one of its forms. The "Erd Geist" breathes upon Art, Science, Literature, Education, and leaves its impress there. Through these different channels we must realize the greatness of our age, how powerful is its life, how great and good its strivings. Each nation must begin and travel the beaten road in the march to civilization. It moves from a condition of drudgery to culture,—the first named condition necessitated by an ignorance of Science, an ignorance of Nature and her laws, working *against* her instead of *with* her. This bondage to nature results in poverty; man is bound down by the material necessities of his life. This nature should provide for his daily wants, but ignorant of her laws he cannot wrest her secrets from her, he does not know how to secure her help, he is in bondage, both material and spiritual,—in bondage everywhere to the common and inferior. Science rises and gradually conquers every form of matter, helping to the fulfillment of all lower wants. These *bodily* wants satisfied, the spirit mounts, its bonds are loosened. For a time it has seemed that we, as a nation, have been using money as an end instead of a

means, stopping short of the end to be attained, arraying the outer man in purple and fine linen, leaving the soul in poverty and rags. The whole trend of social life seemed material. We are fast learning that the true gain that accrues from the wealth that has so closely followed in the wake of science is in the time saved from work for leisure, which, rightly defined, means "the diligent use of time for higher ends than the wants of our bodies." We are nearing the time when life seeks its true interpretation,—the deepening self-consciousness of this latest century is searching for standards of true living, for true knowledge of itself. And this knowledge is to be found in the different forms of Art. In its highest forms the pen and the brush seem taken from the hand of the artist and wielded by the Divine hand. Human souls meet then the counterpart of what they should be. Thus Art, whether expressed in colors, or words, or sounds, becomes the interpretation of life.

It is this growing insight into the new wants that civilization brings, needs equally pressing as those of hunger and thirst, which impels the nations to make their educational systems means of the highest development, regarding each child as a Divine spirit in human form. This idea makes us "cast aside as a debasing illusion" utility solely. "Seek ye first the Kingdom of Heaven," "That is," writes Frœbel, "the realization of the Divine Spirit in your life, and all things else will be added to you." For this reason the Kindergarten places stress primarily upon the development of spiritual power—utility will follow as an inevitable accompaniment. In this spiritual development Beauty is an important factor. It is one of the means appointed by God for the exaltation of the human soul. All children may become elevated and refined without ever becoming artists. "A certain measure of Art intellect," says Ruskin, "is born annually in every nation, greater or less, according to the degree of cultivation in the nation." This cannot be increased, but may be lost to the nation unless means are taken for its preservation. The Kindergarten is an early experimental school, where, from the general nature of the material, early tendencies may be discovered and guided. More important, however, is the daily, almost hourly, cultivation of the creative imagination. The child's mind, in the Kindergarten exercised through a progress by which the different faculties receive due exercise, is led from the abstraction of an idea to its reproduction. This highest form of mental activity constitutes the new departure of the Kindergarten. It bears closely upon an Art training, as in the creative activity there is the full assertion of the supremacy of mind in its reaction, and consequent freedom from sense-impression. The poet studies life in its con-

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crete manifestations, but spiritualizes these sense-impressions and fills them with a higher meaning; the painter looks upon nature, and from these concrete perceptions paints scenes that never were on land or sea; the child, using the same faculty,—the faculty that witnesses of God in man,—idealizes his sense-perceptions in his inventions, giving them the form of his own original idea. In this way the Kindergarten shows itself as the most efficient means for preserving and cultivating the *art intellect*. The child, after abstracting his simple ideas of colors, form, number, etc., embodies them in new forms, rising from "forms of life" to "forms of beauty," first with blocks, tablets and sticks, later with pencil and crayon. At first there is a judicious resorting to the net-work to correct the inaccuracy of the eye. As has been said by a master in drawing, "the eye will not be trained into truthful perception by allowing it to become accustomed to its own imperfection." The training begins in the physical, to strengthen limbs and muscles, more particularly the hand, that thoughts may be manifested in actions, in the unceasing correspondence that goes on between the internal and the external. We cannot conceive power without these trained members. It is the old story of Ariadne and the Lion. Beauty always rides upon strength, and in the fullest sense all *true* power manifests itself as delicacy. The aesthetic work of the Kindergarten, regarded merely from the utilitarian standpoint, in the production of beautiful designs, either in modelling, drawing or coloring, must be looked upon as highly important, considered as the foundation of successful industrial work. Social economists concede that it is the duty of the nation to provide measures looking to the promotion of improvement in the character of its industries, in order to increase the demand and enlarge the market. The merely *useful* will not accomplish this—the more beautiful the industrial production the greater the demand. The aesthetic wood manufactures of Belgium are rated at one thousand times the value of the same articles from Sweden and Norway. This artistic excellence of manufactures can *only* be brought about by a training begun in early childhood. Using the mathematical as the basis of beautiful forms, the child begins thus early to feel what later in many forms he will realize, that

"Beauty is but the splendor of the true."

It remains to show the Kindergarten as related to literary Arts. We all know the value of ideals. Greece made her heroes by holding up the valor of the three hundred. It is said that persons approaching the famous statue of Apollo insensibly erect themselves and take on a more

dignified attitude. So confronted by the soul's ideal, the soul endeavors to assume the higher form. Ideals of true living are presented to us in Art. The artist is greater than we, because, consciously or unconsciously, he has penetrated deeper into the truths of life. He shows us the best of ourselves, what we ought to be, and filled with the ideals of life we try to attain them. In literature we come face to face with the highest ideals,—it makes us know how infinitely great are our gifts, for how much we may hope. The child needs also this reflection, and the "Mutter und Kose-Leider" furnishes such an ideal. It is Art, simple yet high, and offers to the child standards of true living. "How do I stand in this triple relation-ship of life, to nature, to man, to God?" Art answers to the mature mind and soul, lifting it above itself, and giving strength to its aspirations. Duties and obligations are there presented, wakening the strong ethical sense, alive but perhaps sleeping in man. So shall the child in these happy days of childhood be brought lovingly face to face with his duties, and the feeling, stirred into life by the reflection of what he ought to be, finds its complement in an action. Thus, with a three-fold reverence inculcated, for things below him, around him and above him, he is initiated into life. The "Mutter und Kose Leider" is true poetic art, for as the poet goes below the surface of events, showing us the inspiration and the motive, so Fröbel shows us, in his wonderful analysis of the child's instinctive manifestations, the springs of action. Nature, to the poet, sings night and day the rhymes of the universe—he listens, and with his trained ear catches the music, uncomprehended by us, and interprets it that we may understand. The child in his free untrammelled actions sings the universal rhyme. The poet-philosopher has caught the music and interpreted it for all mothers and all children. Again, the stories find their correspondence in early Art. The "mystic fancies," sung in the childhood of the race, we give again to childhood. "They see themselves again in a fairy world," says the German mystic. "All fabulous tales are merely dreams of that home world which is everywhere and nowhere. The higher powers within us, which one day as Genii shall fulfill our will, are for the present Muses which refresh us in our toilsome march." Children love the marvellous because it touches the sleeping possibilities of their minds, and faintly whispers that some day all this shall be more than realized—nirnd shall create more splendor than glistens in the fairy palace, time and space be more completely transcended than with the seven-leagued boots. The mythologic tales and legends elevated by Christian symbolism express in symbolic form the noblest and highest aspirations of the human heart.

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There are stories of dangerous journeyings far, far from home, and trials and temptations overcome. There are tales of the beautiful princess who lives across the sea. The heroes set sail—and there are monsters of the deep, and dangerous rocks and siren voices to lure them to destruction. But the hero is brave, the dangers are surmounted, and the beautiful princess is found. These are the symbolic truths that voice the yearning of the human heart for Divine truth and beauty; and as long as aspiration lives, so long will human hearts thrill and respond to these earliest forms of literary Art.

As a parting word to the Kindergartners, to whom this paper is especially addressed, I would tell the legend of St. Christopher. The good saint stands beside a raging stream, and as he stands there a little child appears before him, and with arms stretched out to the saint cries, "Carry me across!" The tempest is raging, but taking the child in his arms he plunges into the stream. The waves threaten to engulf him, and heavier and heavier the burden grows, but holding the child aloft with his strong arm, he battles against wind and wave, and at last, placing the child in safety on the further bank, he beholds him all clothed in light, and the child cries: "Know ye that in bearing me ye bore the weight of the world." We have a task like St. Christopher's—we must bear the children aloft, far above the tempests of life, far above the waves that threaten to engulf them. This is our task to uncover the Divinity within them, that after the journey we may see them, like the Christ-child, all clothed in light. This is our work,

"Worthy the proudest strength of man,
And woman's finest skill."

How shall we arm ourselves with the strength that shall enable us to bear the children aloft? To Art we must turn, for there the human soul in all its purity, divested of its fallen nature, speaks to the soul within us, answering our questionings of life, furnishing us with true standards and stimulating us to their fulfillment. Here can we gather the fullest and richest conceptions of life, for if education is "a communication of life from the living to the living," must we not know life in its completeness? Armed with this strength thus gained, we shall do our work and gain the reward in the beautiful promise to the Teachers: "They shall shine with the brightness of the firmament, and they that turn many to righteousness as the stars for ever and forever."

8

SOME SOCIAL ASPECTS OF THE KINDERGARTEN.

BY MRS. SUSAN S. HARRIMAN, HALIFAX, N. S.

A few years ago there appeared in the literary world a book as unique as it is interesting, picturing forth as it did to the multitudes of eager readers a most glowing future, in which society stood forth exalted to perfect peace and happiness, radiant in its purity. Poverty and crime were done away with, and a luxurious and harmonious life assured to all.

Readers lay down the book,—the older ones with a feeling of regret that they could not even *hope* to see the realization of the beauteous vision, the younger ones trusting that it might be their good fortune to see, if not the consummation, at least the approach of the race to its glorious destiny. But even now the world has thrown aside the book, and as it gazes forth from its windows do the sights which meet its eye give promise of any such glorious outcome? As it glances at the morning paper, does it find anything to predict, that even in a thousand years we may hope to see justice, brotherly love and purity triumphant over the oppression, jealousy and selfishness which is so noticeable in the world to-day?

Can even the most hopeful person look upon the tendencies of the age and hope for any such result unless radical changes take place?

Would that we might remain in the harmonious frame of mind in which the book leaves us. Would that, we might enjoy the material advance of the age, which offers so much to us all, resting assured that somehow and some time all would be right. Sad, indeed, that as we look around us our souls should be stirred to their depths by a realization that our peace and happiness are only those of a dream, and that in reality danger lurks everywhere.

That society is imperilled, no thinking person can deny. Everywhere we hear a call for reformation. The minister sounds it from the pulpit, the orator from the platform, the daily paper in its items shows the need of reformation, and in its editorial endeavors to point out the line of improvement. The people bemoan the evil tendencies of the times, and in Houses of Assembly throughout the civilized world their chosen representatives enact law after law for this purpose—reformation: a law to protect the rights of one corporation against a stronger—in reality a law

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to crush out selfishness ; a law to prevent men with neither education nor natural ability from advertising themselves as doctors of medicine, —really a law to kill out deception. Reformatories are built for the more vicious class, and their rooms are seldom vacant ; and in spite of all the law avails not, and again and again must acknowledge the weakness of its position.

Notwithstanding this discouraging outlook, a day is dawning whose close shall see a result far more wonderful and more to be desired than Edward Bellamy's fair picture. The moving cause, no larger than a man's hand, can even now be distinguished upon the horizon. For quietly and with the easy grace of a David, the Kindergarten is advancing against the Goliath of social wrongs, and as surely it is destined to victory. The Kindergarten sees that reformation is not the one thing needful, but formation, and consecrates itself to childhood, taking for its watchword :—

“The hope of the world lies in its children.”

While the law makers have been busy conscientiously patching up each rent resulting from an outburst in the social world, and which, if it held, served only as a warning of a future outburst in some other part, Fröbel has been searching out the causes of upheavals, and has found their origin to lie in the human heart. Here he found that the work of regeneration must begin. Those working on the outside might alter the appearance of the problem, but the solution must begin within, not in the hearts of men and women, seamed and scarred as they are by sin and sorrow, but in the stainless, tender, loving hearts of the children, fresh from their Creator. But where shall we find the proper soil, where shall we look for a gardener to whom we may safely entrust these tender human plants? “Surely,” you will say, “the home should be the garden, the mother the gardener.” That the child is placed in the home dependent entirely upon the mother proves the answer correct.

But in how many homes do these human plants find the right atmosphere, for just as our well-being depends upon our breathing the proper proportions of oxygen and nitrogen, so the child must find wise government as well as love. Mental and moral food are demanded by the soul, just as nourishment by the physical nature, and little we know how great an influence is exerted by the environments of a child ; even when he seems so unconscious, every word, every tone, every expression of the face about him, every gesture is leaving its impression upon him, and thus becoming a factor in his development.

"Can you tell, oh mother," says Fröbel in a book dedicated to motherhood, "when the spiritual development of your child begins? In God's world, just because it is God's world, the law of all things is continuity; there are and can be no abrupt beginnings, no rude transitions, no to-day which is not based on yesterday. The distant stars were shining long before their rays reached our earth, the seed germinates in darkness, and so in the infant soul a process goes on which is hidden from our ken, yet upon which hangs more than we can tell, of good or evil, of happiness or misery." This book of Fröbel is full of such tender and wise exhortations to mothers, and many have responded to his call.

Her mothers there are who have not heard his voice, but whose hearts are so akin to his that unconsciously they are furthering his work. We would not forget these mothers or their homes. But as the Kindergarten glances around the morning ring, how many such homes does she see represented? Very few; and she rejoices that it is her privilege to let fall on the others a ray of that love light which never penetrates the homes of some, and in others is obscured by an ignorance of the needs of child nature.

She thinks of Katherine, delivered at the door one morning by a muscular, loud-voiced mother, with the same degree of tenderness with which the grocer delivers a barrel of flour. "Beat her all you want, teacher, and I won't interfere, for she needs it;" and the mother goes out while Katherine, with beseeching eyes, cowers against the wall, as if the rod was already visible to her imagination, cultivated as yet in no other direction. Was it the same Katherine who came in a few moments since, shyly, to be sure, but eyes brimful of confidence and happy expectation?

Look at that four-year old in green velvet kilt and silken tie. His mother appeared card-case in hand, the most delicate perfume arising from her dainty handkerchief, and left her son with the remark, made openly before him: "I hope you will succeed in breaking his will, for we can't do anything with him." See him five minutes later, as he was asked to join in the ring, his whole figure breathing defiance, the spirit of the bully shining in his blue eyes. Here is the same green kilt to-day, but can it be the same boy, leading a little maid into the ring, and acknowledging her thanks with a manly bow?

And these children represent types of homes, not only in my city, not only in your city, but everywhere, among the rich as well as among the poor, for to every unfortunate mother who leaves her ragged children to learn the lessons of the street, while she scrubs for the wherewithal

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to earn their supper, there is a well-to-do mother who leaves her dainty darlings to the care of an ignorant nurse while she answers the demands of society.

For the poor mother we have only pity and sympathy. Her eyes never reach beyond the circle of poverty and ignorance. For the well-to-do mothers we have sympathy and pity too, but also a righteous indignation at a system of education which sends young women forth from its schools, beautiful, graceful, refined and learned, and places them in the midst of families wholly ignorant of the rights of child nature and the theory of education. Plainly, they are not wise gardeners. Though wholly unfitted for the position, it has been thrust upon them; wholly ignorant of the laws of true education, she works from impulse and observation of home life around her as faulty and unsystematic as her own. Plainly it and even the child blessed with the ideal home and mother cannot be wisely educated by them alone. The time comes when he needs to enter upon a wider relationship than that of home, needs to associate with others of his own age, that he may learn to conform to the laws which govern society. And this he learns in the miniature social system seen in the Kindergarten. The world, to be sure, does not yet recognize the means of its own salvation, but it is only the break of day, and nature's fairest blossoms reveal their hidden beauties only to the fully risen sun. No flower has she so modest in opening, no flower revealing such perfection and harmony of parts as Frebel's gift to the world—the Kindergarten.

Those whose eyes fail to pierce the surface of Kindergarten life will say, "How can play be considered so potent a factor in the endeavor to elevate society?" We refer any such to Plato, a man acknowledged as a leader among wise men, who centuries ago voiced his sentiments thus:

"Play has the mightiest influence on the maintenance or non-maintenance of laws; and if children's plays are conducted according to law, and they always pursue their amusement in accordance with order, it need not be feared that when they are grown up they will break laws whose objects are more serious. But if their plays and those mingling with them are arbitrary and lawless, how can they become virtuous men, law-abiding and obedient citizens?"

Let us take a hurried glance at Kindergarten work, and then trace, if possible, its influence on the future of society.

Look at the sixty children sitting quietly and self-possessed in the morning ring. Can you imagine them sitting thus at home? Is not this control of their active limbs, this harmony, a most desirable gain? Hear

their happy voices as they wish one and all good morning. Notice that the whole face responds as well as the hands, as the Kindergartner passes around the ring, showing that the courtesy is not a mere form, but proceeds from the hearts, manifesting itself in the smiles and dimples.

The farmer has been the subject of the week, and the children have been asked to search their picture books for anything suggestive of farm life. Only last September, a twice-repeated request in regard to another subject brought no response, but now hands are raised in every direction as we look around. Books, cards and varied materials are collected and put aside for the moment; but one card has been suggestive, it was evidently torn from a gardener's advertisement, and represents a bulb from which a few shoots are peeping forth. Easily and quickly it is reproduced in colors on the blackboard, and little by little, partly through expression of their own knowledge, partly through outside suggestions, they learn of the long sleep, underground or in cellar, the wise storing of food in the fall for spring use, the gradual awakening when once more restored to the sunshine, and in and throughout the whole they perceive the wisdom and tender care of a Supreme Being extending not only to themselves, but to his plant children, and as they join in singing

" Father, we thank Thee for the night
And for the pleasant morning light,
For health, and food and loving care,"

their reverent little faces prove that they have grasped the meaning, that the hymn is indeed a hymn to them and not a meaningless arrangement of words. With the same reverence and understanding they repeat the prayer, for it is only natural to ask help from a Father whose love is so apparent. Thus are they led "thro' Nature up to Nature's God." Surely hearts and minds opened wide to such influences will never be guilty of unbelief.

And now the books must be searched for illustrations of farm life, and we see the ploughman patiently guiding the plough, the picture of a heavy farm wagon, of horses, cattle, turkeys and hens. An illustrated volume of Bible stories is opened to show us the sower going forth to sow, and the joy of the children in the picture is as nothing to that of the Kindergartner as she realizes for the first time, perhaps, that both Christ and Fröbel taught in parables, and that loyal discipleship to Fröbel leads to that higher discipleship with Christ. She realizes, too, that it is given to her to be as a sower, sowing seeds, and, notwithstanding much seed seems to fall on barren ground, trusts that some at least

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The picture of a lamb suggests something to Hattie, and she announces that she knows a piece about a lamb, and stands to tell us once more that "Mary had a little lamb."

However, we can well afford to listen, for do we not see reasoning and association of ideas? Mother Goose with the cow jumping over the moon has also been brought as not at all incongruous with the subject. And is a knowledge of farm life the only gain? Is there not an interest awakened in outside life, a sympathy aroused, a power of classification which will be of the greatest use throughout life?

But the hands and feet require a change of position. Chairs are carefully placed against the wall, and soon hands and feet are keeping time to a spirited march. Not only exercise, but an opportunity to develop a sense of rhythm, the necessity of which is evident as we notice the uneven steps and wild clapping of the new comers. And now, dull, stolid boys, with a few spry ones for leaders, are sent into the ring as the farmer's horses racing over the pasture, while restless, nervous little maidens are encouraged to show the graceful, even motion of the butterflies in the garden. They are refreshed physically, and, as the mental can proceed through the physical, we look for good mental work. At one table the babies with colored worsted balls are learning of number and direction, and at the same time, through their imaginary robins, bluebirds and canaries, of the return of the birds in the springtime.

At another table the builders with blocks are acquiring the carpenter's skill in building the farmer's barn, houses and gate-ways. How the carpenter in return buys the farmer's produce, showing the dependence of one class of society upon another, proving the universal brotherhood of mankind. And how quickly these little builders learn of the relation of parts to the whole, and how neatly their material is handled and disposed of. The orderly habits alone are of great benefit, for we are told that "Order is Heaven's first law."

The games begin; here, too, the general idea of work is carried out. The game of the farmer is entered upon with enthusiasm, and the barley and oats are sowed, reaped, threshed and sifted.

The birds build their nests, and while the mother bird cares patiently and lovingly for the little birdlings, the father flies far and wide in search of food, until

"At last the little birds are fledged,
And strong enough to fly;
And so they stretch their tiny wings
And bid the nest good-bye."

What could so clearly demonstrate the family relation as this father and mother working together through storm as well as sunshine for the well-being of their offspring?

Once more all are seated at their tables ready for the occupation. Deftly the material is distributed and pleasantly acknowledged. The babies with their beads are stringing imaginary raspberries and blueberries. The older ones are fully absorbed in weaving the mats for the farmer's parlor, and their intent faces and busy fingers show it is work indeed to them. But how happy they are in their work.

But what can have happened that such a wail arises from yonder corner? A little girl crying because she is not allowed to work. She has been unkind to her neighbor, and must be made to feel that as a discordant element she must be excluded. Why is it that while at home children dislike work, perhaps for the reason that it is too often given as a punishment, that here they cry for it. It is because the work here is suited to their years and minds. Children are not naturally lazy; what seems so generally proves unsuitable and uninteresting employment.

And now hats and coats are donned, the older ones helping the younger, good-byes are sung, and sixty happy faces pass by, for they are going home to live out the ideas gained in the Kindergarten.

Dark, indeed, the room without the light of baby eyes.

And now that they have left us, let us recall what we have noticed during the day as having a bearing upon that symmetry of life of which the Kindergarten aims to lay the foundation. What seeds have we discovered, which can promise us a rich harvest in years to come?

Let us notice the physical benefits:—

First. Because of the attention to physical work, we look for children with strong bodies and lithe limbs.

Secondly. We look for a certain ease and grace of carriage and gesture, not outwardly assumed, but a natural expression of feelings aroused.

Thirdly, and closely connected with the mental results: we look for quickened senses, a definite *education* of the senses leading to an increased quickness of vision, hearing and touch.

Again, let us notice mental results:—

First. Among these we notice the power of observing correctly. The whole mental life depends upon this, for all the powers depend upon *clear sense-perceptions*.

We look for the ability of fixing the attention, of reasoning, of grasping any suitable subject presented to the mind. In fact, we look for a foundation of good mental habits.

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Secondly. The child has been led to natural expression in language. His observations have borne rich fruit in thought and words.

Thirdly. The mind has broadened. The range of thought has been such that he is interested in many things unknown before. If his school years are limited in number, we have put him in the very best road for self-education, including book knowledge, for he will gladly go to books for knowledge which cannot be gained through observation. If the Nature lessons have been attractive, they will lead to a desire for greater knowledge, and it is desire which leads to effort, and effort to progress. This is seen in the case of any great achievement whether in the world of science or art. Edison's early interest in electricity led him to desire more knowledge. Gradually he experimented in many different directions, and how the world watches his progress. What an inspiration it would be to know that we started some little feet on such a career, and who can tell but what an infant Edison or Agassiz visits us even now in the Kindergarten?

Before we consider any moral results, let us glance at the æsthetic side, for the germ of the æsthetic exists in every child, and its presence proves that it is one of the roots by which the child's nature is nourished, and that it rightly demands development. But it has not in the past received this attention. The mass of the people have been so engrossed in providing the necessaries of life, that they have found neither time nor inclination for the beautiful. It has been considered something secondary in importance to the three Rs, something which could well be attended to when one had by hard work gained enough of this world's goods to allow him leisure during the remaining years of life. We even find so wise a man as Herbert Spenser saying: "When the forces of Nature have been fully conquered to man's use, when the means of production have been perfected, when labor has been economized to the highest degree, and when therefore there has been a great increase of leisure time, then will the beautiful in art and nature rightly fill a large space in the minds of all."

But is this the wisest way of looking at the matter? Is it not true that those whose early years are entirely devoted to material interests find that in later years they have neither knowledge nor appreciation of the beautiful? The æsthetic germ, which as surely exists in childhood as the germ for mental development, if neglected becomes stunted, and at maturity we have no trace of it.

But the Kindergarten, through its lessons in color, the pictures on its walls, its occupations, and especially through its nature lessons, teaches of beauty, and leads *through* it to both morality and religion.

The moral results seem as evident as they are numerous.

1. A love of work and knowledge, the only legitimate stimulus thereto. The child works for the love of it, not for a reward offered, nor for the honor of gaining the highest per cent.
2. Respect for labor, and sympathy for the laborer. The child who gazes into the open grate and says, "Some men worked down in a dark mine picking up the coal that keeps us warm," has grasped the truth that "No man liveth to himself."
3. Orderly habits.
4. A due regard for the rights of others, leading to a proper estimate of self.
5. Punishment viewed as a natural outcome of the offence, not as the result of a hasty temper in one stronger than himself.
6. Unselfishness.
7. Politeness.
8. Self-control, making possible true freedom.

Finally, we notice the religious results.

What child can see the plant storing up food in root and underground stem, can view that wonderful specimen of vegetable life which seems endowed with reason itself—the Venus fly-trap, can watch the winged maple seed blown about by the wind, or pick open the varnished buds of the horse chestnut, where the tiny leaves, perfect in outline, lie wrapped in their woolly covering, "like a baby's hand in a white mitten," and not feel that someone has planned these wonders, and feel a deep love and reverence for that One, whatever name he may give Him,

The child who has learned of God's truth as told by Nature's voice will never scoff at His written word, but, on the other hand, will find in it only an overwhelming proof of Nature's veracity.

Only beginnings all of these, but do they not promise much for the welfare of society?

But the Kindergarten is not a tree with only one stem, rather it is like a Banyan tree, its original stem is the Kindergarten; but, as it grows, sending down roots on all sides which firmly fix themselves in the home, school, and the church.

1. In the home. Froebel intended that the closest of relations should exist between the Kindergarten and the home. To further this idea, mothers' classes are formed, and those mothers who are not above *learning* meet and discuss methods of child culture. The light of the Kindergarten reveals to her a deep and holy meaning in those songs and games which she has so often sung and played, and which until now have

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seemed so simple, and perhaps nonsensical. She has played hide and seek day after day, but never has she realized the deep spiritual significance of the baby's happy smiles upon seeing again his mother's face after a momentary hiding behind door or curtain. She sees that, as years go on, he will necessarily be absent from her sight for longer and longer periods, and she wonders if, as a boy returning from school, as a young man returning from the university, he will look so eagerly for his mother? if at the sight of her face his eye will reveal such love and confidence? She sees now that a wise mother's influence is a golden thread running through childhood, youth and maturity, and hopes that when the call of conscience replaces her voice, it will be as implicitly obeyed.

She learns at the meetings the value of toys, and that the choice of them demands care. She no longer blames him for pulling to pieces the expensive drum, but rather blames herself for not supplying a toy which would satisfy his desire for investigation without destruction; allowing him to study and to draw satisfactory conclusions, developing his mental powers rather than discouraging him, and allowing his desire for knowledge to dwindle into mere superficial observation, which can result only in vague ideas. She learns that even the simplest stories may lay the foundation of a literary taste. That fairy stories are not senseless, but that they serve to develop fancy and the power of imagination, by which alone man can rise above material things, by which alone he can conceive of eternity and the glories of an eternal life.

But the influence of these meetings upon the home life is as nothing compared to the influence of the children as they return to it each day. And those who seek to improve the mental and moral condition of the poorer classes learned long since that the most practical way is through the children. Those people may be visited and advised to no avail, but the living messages in the shape of children sent home with clean faces, helping hands, happy hearts and quickened minds are the messages understood and willingly received.

The Kindergarten has also taken root in the school, and what a transformation there has been! Who of us fails to remember the primary school of only ten or fifteen years ago, where memory was the only mental power developed, where Nature's method of learning through observation and experience was entirely unknown, where dreary hours were spent in poring over the books of men, while the beautiful stories written by God throughout Nature were ignored. Little they heard of the wonders of crystallization, the mysteries of plant life. And all these

stories are written so plainly, if only we are careful translators and wise interpreters to the children.

But the child is no longer introduced to a world as dismal and discouraging as the dense jungles of the tropics. When he raps at the primary door, he rejoices to find among the many strange surroundings something familiar. Perhaps he sees his old friends, the buttercups, and he is rejoiced at the prospect of a closer acquaintance, to learn of the different parts and their uses.

No longer is he given the dry crumbs of the alphabet, no longer allowed to sacrifice all expression in reading through puzzling out the meaning of words. Instead he is led to express an idea, and having the idea sees in the written words upon the board, or the printed words in the book, only a symbol or picture of the idea.

Through beads or beans number work is made concrete, and only when through using them he has grasped the meaning of three, seven or ten, is he given their symbols,—figures.

Through all the grades the Kindergarten influence has penetrated, encouraging the education of the whole child, not his mind alone. In the study of geography, he learns not only that there are other countries, but other children, very like himself, notwithstanding their modes of living are different. In history, facts are not the chief gain, but the heart is stirred by the stories of heroic deeds and a high ideal of manhood presented.

The Kindergarten methods, when adopted by the Sunday School, show two results: first in the methods of religious study, secondly in its practical outside work. The Sunday School sees now a deep meaning in that God, when He wished to redeem the world, sent a living Word to His children. What effect would it have had on them had they read in the sky, even though in letters of fire, "God is Love"? But who could miss the meaning when He sent His only Son, the embodiment of love, to tell of His tenderness towards them, His children? And the Sunday School no longer offers first to its little ones catechism and Bible verses, but leads them to see love breathed forth in the mother's care, in the tender caressing of the young in the animal world, in the warm sunshine of winter and cooling breeze of summer. All this must enter into his experience before he learns from the Bible that "God is Love." Only then does he grasp the meaning, only then is it revealed to him as a message from above.

And just as the Saviour dwelt among men, teaching not only by word but by example, rejoicing in their joys, sympathizing in their grief, heal-

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ing their infirmities, leading them to a higher life, so the Sunday School, through its free Kindergarten, carries on His work of social regeneration. Not alone gathering the children together for an hour on the Sabbath, but for three hours every day, that they may learn of love by loving, of kindness by being kind to one another, of purity by being pure in thought and deed. Especially in asylums and institutions does the Kindergarten show its blessings. The dull, stolid faces of those children who have never known the awakening influence of a mother's caresses quicken into intelligence and happiness under a skilful Kindergartner, showing that their mental and spiritual natures were not wanting, but like plants brought from the winter prison into sunshine, waiting for Frœbel's legacy to childhood. Last of all, the influence of the Kindergarten is being felt by the world in the hundreds of young women who every year are studying Frœbel's works and words. Miss Peabody says:—"To be a Kindergartner is to be a worker with God at the very fountain of intellectual power and moral character."

There is no education so broad, none which shows so plainly the boundless opportunities of womanhood, none which so sweeps aside the veil and reveals to us the eternal plan of the Creator.

Thus because of its methods of dealing with childhood, because of its influence in the home and school, where in the children we see that to be citizens of the State, we claim that the Kindergarten is the most important factor in settling the social question of to-day.

Only a beginning has been made; but may not what Carlyle said of the French Revolution, "A moment is sometimes the mother of ages," be applicable to the Kindergarten? Here are seen the parents of the next generation, and it is in the future we look for results. This is only the seed time, then will be the harvest.

The human soul is destined to live through countless ages, and if to any it seems that too much importance is attached to the care of early childhood, let them remember the remark of the astronomer as he adjusted his instrument with utmost care: "A hair breadth's difference here makes such a world-wide difference there."

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Bliss, N
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