OF THE

THIRTY-SECOND ANNUAL CONVENTION

OF THE

Ontario Educational Association

HELD IN THE

EDUCATION DEPARTMENT BUILDINGS,

TORONTO,

April 4th, 5th, and 6th, 1893.

TORONTO:

WILLIAM BRIGGS, 29-33 RICHMOND STREET WEST.

1893.

University of Toronto

MEDICAL FACULTY.

PROFESSORS, LECTURERS, AND DEMONSTRATORS.

J. H. RICHARDSON, M.D., TOR., Professor of Anatomy.
A. PRIMROSE, M.B., C.M., EDIN., Associate Professor and Demonstrator of Anatomy.
H. WILBERFORCE AIKINS, B.A., M.B., TOR., Lecturer in Anatomy.
F. N. G. STARR, M.B., TOR., Senior Assistant Demonstrator of Anatomy.
W. B. THISTLE, M.D., TOR.
F. W. CANE, M.B., TOR.
A. R. GORDON, M.B., TOR.
F. WINNETT, M.D., TOR.
B. E. MCKENZIE, B.A., M.D., MCGILL.
} Assistant Demonstrators of Anatomy.
W. T. AIKINS, M.D., TOR., LL.D., Professor of Surgery.
L. MCFARLANE, M.D., TOR., Professor of Clinical Surgery.
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G. A. PETERS, M.B., TOR., Associate Professor of Surgery and Clinical Surgery.
JOHN CAVEN, B.A., M.D., TOR., Professor of Pathology.
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A. MCPHEDRAN, M.B., TOR., Associate Professor of Medicine and Clinical Medicine.
W. P. CAVEN, M.B., TOR., Lecturer in Clinical Medicine.
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UZZIEL OGDEN, M.D., TOR., Professor of Gynæcology.
A. H. WRIGHT, B.A., M.D., TOR., Professor of Obstetrics.
R. A. REEVE, B.A., M.D., TOR., Professor of Ophthalmology and Otology.
G. H. BURNHAM, M.D., TOR., Clinical Lecturer on Ophthalmology and Otology.
G. R. MCDONAGH, M.D., TOR., Lecturer in Larnygology and Rhinology.
W. OLDRIGHT, M.A., M.D., TOR., Professor of Hygiene.
W. H. ELLIS, M.A., M.B., TOR., Lecturer in Toxicology.
BERTRAM SPENCER, M.D., TOR., Medical Lecturer in Medical Jurisprudence.
HON. DAVID MILLS, LL.B., Q.C., Legal Lecturer in Medical Jurisprudence.
DANIEL CLARK, M.D., TOR., Extra-Mural Professor of Medical Psychology.
R. RAMSAY WRIGHT, B.A., B.SC., EDIN., Professor of Biology.
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WILLIAM H. PIKE, M.A., PH.D., Professor of Chemistry.
W. H. ELLIS, M.A., M.B., TOR., Lecturer in Chemistry.
W. L. MILLER, B.A., PH.D., Demonstrator of Chemistry.
JAMES LOUDON, M.A., Professor of Physics.
C. A. CHANT, B.A., Lecturer in Physics.

The regular course of instruction will consist of Four Sessions of six months each, commencing October 1st.

There will be a distinct and separate course for each of the four years.

The Lectures and Demonstrations in the subjects of the First and Second years will be given in the Biological Laboratory and the lecture-rooms of the University.

Lectures and Demonstrations in the subjects of the Third and Fourth years will be given in the building of the Medical Faculty, corner of Gerrard and Sackville Streets.

UZZIEL OGDEN, M.D.,
Dean.

JAMES BREBNER, B.A.,
Registrar.

MINUTES

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Board of Directors, 1893-94.

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ALEXANDER STEELE, M.A., Orangeville.

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MRS. L. T. NEWCOMB, Hamilton.

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MINUTES OF THE THIRTY-SECOND ANNUAL CONVENTION OF THE ONTARIO EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

TORONTO, *April 4th*, 1893.

The Association met in the Public Hall of the Education Department, on Tuesday, April 4th, at 8 o'clock p.m. S. B. Sinclair, the President, occupied the chair.

Rev. George Grant, of Orillia, opened the proceedings by reading a portion of Scripture and leading in prayer.

Moved by Mr. W. J. Hendry, seconded by Mr. W. Wilkinson, That as the Minutes of the last meeting of the Association have been printed and distributed, they be considered as read and approved. Carried.

The President delivered an address on "The Unification of our Educational System."

Mrs. Ada Marean Hughes read a paper on "The Kindergarten a Natural Method of Education."

Moved by Mr. A. Steele, seconded by Mr. Knight, That the cordial thanks of this Association be tendered to Mrs. Hughes for her very able and instructive address. Carried.

The Treasurer read the Financial Statement for the current year.

The Treasurer's Statement was received and referred to the following committee named by the President: Messrs. C. A. Barnes, A. McMillan and F. F. Manley.

Moved by Mr. Steele, seconded by Mr. Strang, and resolved, That it is desirable to amend the Constitution of the Ontario Educational Association as follows:

Article II., Section 1, first and second items to be combined so as to read, "College and High School Department."

Article IV., Section 1, second sentence to read: "The Board of Directors shall consist of the officers of the Association, the presiding officers of the several departments, who shall be *ex officio* vice-presidents of the Association, the secretaries of the several departments, one director from each of the four Sections of the College and

High School Department, and one director elected by each of the other departments." Carried.

Mr. J. H. Smith gave notice that at the next meeting of this Association he would move to change the Constitution *re* the representation of the Model School Section of the Training Department, upon the Board of Directors of this Association.

A communication from East Huron Teachers' Association was read and referred to the Public School Department.

Mr. J. C. Brown, of Peterboro', gave notice of motion of the following resolutions, to be moved at the Annual Convention of the "Ontario Educational Association," for 1894 :

1. Resolved,—That in the opinion of this Association the Education Department was ill-advised when it withdrew "the principles of reading" from the list of subjects at the Departmental Examinations.

2. Resolved,—That the Education Department has been ill-advised in the authorization of books to be used in the Public and High Schools.

3. Resolved,—That the Education Department has been ill-advised in the matter of plans for Public and High School Buildings.

4. And in consequence, resolved,—That steps be taken to enable the Education Department to obtain the opinions of the teaching profession, School Trustee Boards, and the general public, before important educational matters are determined.

The departure from the Constitution recommended by the Board of Directors at the meeting of November, 1892, relative to the holding of the election of officers on the second instead of the third evening of the general meeting of this Association, was by resolution agreed to and confirmed.

The meeting adjourned.

WEDNESDAY, *April 5th.*

The Association met at 8 p.m., the President in the chair.

Rev. G. McRobbie read a portion of Scripture and led in prayer.

Professor Mills, of McGill University, read a paper on "Heredity in Relation to Education."

Mr. Reazin addressed the Association on "The High School Entrance and Leaving Examination."

Dr. Ross, Minister of Education, addressed the meeting.

The thanks of the Association were tendered to Mr. Mills, Dr. Ross and Mr. Reazin for their addresses.

The Minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

The election of officers was then taken up with the following result: President, Mr. Alex. Steele, M.A.; Secretary, Mr. Robert W. Doan; Treasurer, Mr. W. J. Hendry.

Moved by Mr. W. J. Hendry, seconded by Mr. Houston, That the Committee on Industrial Education be given permission to bring in their report at the next annual meeting of the Association. Carried.

The Auditors presented the following report: The undersigned Auditors for 1893 beg to report that they have carefully examined the accounts and vouchers of the Treasurer of the Ontario Educational Association, from the date of the last audit, April 19th, 1892, to the present date, April 5th, 1893, and find the same correct in all particulars.

FRED. MANLEY,
CHAS. A. BARNES,
A. MCMILLAN.

Moved by A. A. Jordan, seconded by N. W. Campbell, and resolved, That in the opinion of the Association, the amount of History for Entrance Examination be limited to Canadian History, and to English History from the reign of Henry VII. to the present.

The President ruled the motion out of order, and the resolution was considered a notice of motion.

Moved by Mr. G. A. Aylesworth, seconded by Mr. W. F. Chapman, That the Constitution of this Association be changed so as to have the election of officers held on the second day of the Convention. Carried.

The Association adjourned at 10.45 to meet at the Biological Building, Toronto University, at 8 p.m. on Thursday evening.

THURSDAY, *April 6th.*

The Association met in the Biological Building of the University of Toronto, at 8 o'clock p.m., the President in the chair.

Rev. Dr. Middlemiss read a portion of Scripture and led in prayer.

Mr. W. H. Ballard, of Hamilton, read a paper on "Normal Schools."

President Loudon also delivered an address.

The thanks of the Association were given to Messrs. Loudon and Ballard for their addresses, on motion of Mr. McAllister, seconded by Mr. Strang.

The thanks of the Association were given to President Sinclair for the very satisfactory manner in which he had discharged the

duties devolving upon him during the past year, as President of the Association, and to Dr. Ross, Minister of Education, for the generous manner in which he had contributed to the success of the meeting.

The Convention adjourned after singing the National Anthem.

MINUTES OF PROCEEDINGS OF THE TRUSTEES DEPARTMENT, O. E. A.

TORONTO, TUESDAY, *April 4th*, 1893.

The Seventh Convention of the School Trustees of Ontario began in the Examiners' Room, Education Department, Toronto, on Tuesday, 4th April, 1893.

LIST OF DELEGATES.

BOARDS OF EDUCATION.—*Arnprior*, T. W. Kenny, J.P.; *Fergus*, Rev. R. M. Craig; *Guelph*, W. B. Clark, Hugh McMillan; *Hamilton*, John Hoodless, S. F. Lazier, M.A., LL.B., Q.C., Wm. Clucas; *Ingersoll*, Jas. Vance; *Lindsay*, J. R. McNeillie, Col. Jas. Deacon; *Napanee*, W. F. Hall; *Newburgh*, Geo. Anson Aylesworth, J.P.; *Owen Sound*, Rev. J. Somerville, M.A.; *Pembroke*, Jas. H. Burritt; *Smith's Falls*, J. S. McCallum, M.D.; *Uxbridge*, F. N. Raines, M.A., H. McKay; *Waterdown*, John Allen, Geo. Allison; *Whitby*, J. Ball Dow, B.A., D. Ormiston, B.A.; *Windsor*, H. T. W. Ellis.

PUBLIC SCHOOL BOARDS.—*Bracebridge*, Jas. Boyer, J.P.; *Brantford*, W. S. Brewster, LL.B.; *Dunnville*, D. Simpson; *Elmira*, A. Werner; *Galt*, Rev. Dr. Jackson; *Grimsby*, R. A. Alexander, M.D.; *Kingston*, A. Shaw; *Newmarket*, J. A. Bastedo; *Orillia*, Dr. J. McLean; *Ottawa*, J. I. MacCraken, B.A.; *St. Catharines*, W. McGibbon; *Shelburne*, Rev. Dr. McRobbie; *Stratford*, John Welsh; *Toronto*, W. W. Hodgson, S. G. Thompson, M.D.; *Woodstock*, Geo. J. Fraser.

HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGIATE INSTITUTE BOARDS.—*Arthur*, John Anderson; *Bowmanville*, Col. F. Cubitt and J. B. Fairbairne; *Cobourg*, Rev. J. Hay, B.D.; *Collingwood*, J. Hogg; *Dunnville*, J. Parry, J.P., S. W. Brown, L.D.S.; *Elora*, Rev. J. Middlemiss, D.D.; *Goderich*, B. L. Doyle; *Grimsby*, Rev. J. G. Murray; *Mount Forest*, J. J. Cook; *Oshawa*, Rev. M. J. Jeffcott; *Toronto*, John Lewis, Thos. A. Hastings, Wm. Houston, M.A.; *Weston*, T. R. Wadsworth.

First Session.

Tuesday, 4th April, 1893.

The President, Mr. S. F. Lazier, M.A., LL.B., Q.C., opened the Convention with a few appropriate remarks, referring especially to the affiliation of this Department with the Ontario Educational Association, and welcoming the delegates present, sixty per cent. of whom were new members.

The Minutes of the Trustees' Convention of November, 1892, as printed in pamphlets, were considered read, and upon motion were adopted.

The Secretary reported as follows :

Your Executive Committee met in this room at 11 a.m. to-day. The Treasurer's accounts were submitted, audited and adopted—balance in hand, $46.04.

The Constitution of the "Provincial Association of Public and High School Trustees" was revised to suit the changed circumstances under affiliation, and will be submitted to this Convention for approval.

Your Executive Committee recommend—

1. That, since at the Convention of November last, officers were elected for the year 1893, the next election of officers for this Department be held at the annual meeting of 1894.

2. That 9.30 a.m. be fixed as the hour of assembling on Wednesday, 5th April.

3. That this Department vote the sum of $35 to the Secretary-Treasurer for expenses incurred and services rendered since the last annual meeting.

4. That a Committee be appointed to prepare reports for the press.

5. That the following record of the Provincial Association of School Trustees' proceedings be printed with this session's minutes :

Trustees' Department.

Record of the Provincial Association of Public and High School Trustees of Ontario :

The formation of the Ontario Educational Association and the affiliation therewith of our Provincial Association of School Trustees, mark an epoch in the educational affairs of Ontario. At such a time a brief review of the history of this Association may prove neither inappropriate nor unprofitable. Our Trustees' Association was the outcome of the wise and timely action of the Whitby Board of Education, under date of March, 1887. In response to circulars sent out by that Board, representatives of some two-score School Boards assembled in Toronto, in June, 1887, and organized a Trustees' Association, whose object as set forth in the Constitution adopted was and is : (*a*) To provide a medium of communicating to the Minister of Education the views of the people of this Province on educational questions, and pressing the same on his attention ; (*b*) To consider all matters having a practical bearing on Education and the School System.

1887. In November of the same year, forty-two School Boards sent delegates to the Convention, which considered such questions as "Pupils' Fees in High Schools and Collegiate Institutes," "Improved Methods of Financial Support of Public and High Schools," "Assessment for Public and Separate School Purposes," "Holidays in Rural Public Schools," "Collegiate Institute Masters." These and similar subjects were debated, resolutions were adopted and committees appointed to call the attention of the Minister of Education to the conclusions at which the Association had arrived.

1888. At the Convention of November, 1888, upwards of fifty School Boards were represented. The work of the Association this second year consisted chiefly in the reiteration and emphasizing of the resolutions of the previous year. One additional subject was dealt with, "The Method of the Payment of Public School Grants." In the new School Laws of 1891 are to be traced distinctly the results of the votes and proceedings of this Trustees' Association, and the Minister of Education himself has also repeatedly assured the Trustees in Convention of the indebtedness of his department to their suggestions.

1889. The Convention of 1889 discussed the High School Curriculum, and referred it to a special committee, "to ascertain how to give it more of an industrial character without making it less useful for purposes of general culture." The results of the Committee's work, adopted by the Association, are embodied in the Commercial Course as it now stands in the High School programme. The Convention of 1889 also recommended that the December High School Entrance Examination be abolished.

1890. The Convention of 1890 discussed the formation of Boards of High School Entrance Examiners. It also recommended that "Third Class Public School Certificates should be Provincial and not merely County." It resolved that "in cities and towns High and Public School Boards should be permitted to amalgamate." Also that "in cities, towns and villages the election of Public School Trustees should be by ballot." A committee was appointed to endeavor to have embodied in the revised School Laws of 1891, this Association's recommendations.

1891. The Convention of 1891 appointed committees to inquire into and report upon "Model Schools" and upon "Kindergartens." The Association also discussed—but without at present taking formal action—the conduct of some teachers in engaging with more Boards than one at a time, choosing the one that best suited them. The following resolution was carried unanimously :

"That in the opinion of this Association, power should be given in village schools and in rural schools which are not graded, for the formation of special classes for the instruction of the oldest and most advanced pupils in Arithmetic, Book-keeping, Mensuration and Composition, or any of them ; and for setting apart during the winter months of one-half day in each week, exclusively for the instruction of such pupils in these subjects."

The Public School curriculum was discussed ; also the time of electing Public School Trustees.

1892. The Minutes of the Convention of 1892 embody the reports of the committees on "County Model Schools" and on "Kindergartens," giving statistics and information from nearly all the schools of that kind in the Province ; also Mr. Farewell's paper on "Physical Education in High Schools," and Mr. Burritt's criticism of the Public School Law of 1891.

Mr. C. C. James, M.A., Deputy Minister of Agriculture, in a very interesting lecture, directed the attention of the Association towards the important subject of "Agriculture in Public Schools." At this ('93) Convention that subject is to be reported upon by a special committee.

It was resolved: "That in the opinion of this Association, the amount of the Legislative grant to individual High Schools and Collegiate Institutes should not be diminished from year to year (as is the effect of the present system), but ought rather to be increased."

Also, "That the Boards should have the power to admit to special High School classes occasional students who may never have passed the Entrance Examination, provided that candidates who have passed the Entrance Examination have precedence in the matter of admission, and that the attendance of occasional pupils be not reckoned as part of the regular High School attendance."

But the great achievement of the Convention of 1892 was the affiliation with the Ontario Educational Association, in consequence of which the Province of Ontario now possesses an Educational Parliament such as few other countries, if any in the world, can boast.

On motion, the report of the Executive Committee and its recommendations were received and adopted.

Mr. Jas. H. Burritt, Barrister, etc., Pembroke, and Rev. J. Somerville, M.A., Owen Sound, were appointed to prepare reports for the press.

The following Constitution submitted by the Executive Committee, was considered clause by clause, and finally adopted as a whole:

CONSTITUTION OF THE TRUSTEES' DEPARTMENT.

1. *Name.*—This Department shall be called "*The Ontario Educational Association—Trustees' Department.*"

2. *Purpose.*—The object of this Department of the Association shall be (*a*) to provide a medium of communicating to the Minister of Education the views of the people of this Province on educational questions, and pressing the same on his attention; (*b*) to consider all matters having a practical bearing on Education and the School System.

3. *Membership.*—This Department shall consist of Representatives from School Boards as follows: One Representative from each Collegiate Institute and High School Board for each school under its jurisdiction, and two from each United Board; one from each Public School Board in cities, towns and incorporated villages; one from each township, and one additional Representative for each 20,000 inhabitants or fraction thereof, in cities having a population of over 20,000.

Sub-section 1.—Any member of a High or Public School Board, and any person who has been a Delegate to this department, shall, upon payment of the annual fee, be entitled to take part in its proceedings as an *Associate Member.*

Sub-section 2.—Upon the yeas and nays being asked by any two Delegates upon any question, the votes of Delegates only shall be taken and recorded.

4. *Delegates.*—The Representatives or Delegates to the Regular Annual Meeting of this Department shall be selected on or before the first day of the Annual Meeting of this Department in each year, and a certificate of the appointment of a Delegate shall be placed in the hands of the Secretary of this Department before the Delegate takes his seat. The selection of the Township Representatives shall be made by the Township Municipal Councils.

5. *Officers.*—The Officers shall be a President, 1st Vice-President, 2nd Vice-President, Secretary-Treasurer and an Executive Committee, to consist of the above-named officers and twelve members. The Officers shall be elected annually.

6. The *Executive Committee* shall nominate annually one Director to the Board of Directors of the Ontario Educational Association, and shall have the management of the affairs and business of this Department, subject to the approval of the members thereof.

7. An *Emergency Meeting* of this Department may be called by the Executive Committee, by giving timely notice of the business and object of such meeting by circular or postal card.

8. *Sections.*—This Department may divide itself into two sections, viz.: A High School section and a Public School section. Matters referring to High Schools and Collegiate Institutes exclusively may be referred to the High School section for its consideration; matters referring to Public Schools exclusively may be referred to the Public School section for its consideration. Each section shall report its findings to the General Meeting of this Department.

9. (*a*) The *Secretary* shall keep an accurate record of the proceedings of this Department and of the Executive Committee; a register of Boards in the Department; he shall conduct the correspondence of this Department and of the Executive Committee. He shall notify the Officers of their election, give notice of meetings, and annually report to this Department.

(*b*) The *Treasurer* shall receive and hold all the funds of this Department, and disburse the same, and shall keep a correct account of moneys received and disbursed by him, and shall report at the Annual Meeting.

10. This Constitution shall not be *amended*, unless by a vote of two-thirds of the members present. Of every proposed amendment notice shall be given.

Adopted 4th April, 1893.

On motion of Mr. Burritt, seconded by Rev. Mr. Somerville, it was resolved, That in all discussions of this Department, no member shall speak more than once on the same question, nor for more than ten minutes, except that the mover of a motion may speak a second time for five minutes in reply at the close of the debate.

The Rev. Mr. Somerville introduced the first topic on the programme: "County Model Schools." The recommendations of the Special Committee on this subject were then considered by the Department in Committee of the Whole. Mr. Boyer, Bracebridge; Rev. Dr. McRobbie, Shelburne; Mr. McNeillie and Col. Deacon, Lindsay; Mr. Wadsworth, Weston; Mr. Burritt, Pembroke; Rev.

Mr. Hay, Cobourg; Rev. Mr. Craig, Fergus; Rev. Dr. Jackson, Galt, and others taking part in the debate, which occupied the remainder of the session.

Moved by Mr. Hastings, Toronto, seconded by the Secretary, That the sessions of this Department begin at 9.30 a.m. and 2 p.m., and adjourn at 12 noon, and 6 p.m. Carried.

It being 6 p.m. the Department adjourned for the day.

SECOND SESSION.

Wednesday, 5th April, 1893.

The Department of Trustees reassembled, the President in the chair.

Moved by Mr. Aylesworth, Newburgh, seconded by Mr. J. Ball Dow, Whitby, That Mr. H. T. W. Ellis, the delegate from Windsor Board of Education, be substituted on the Executive Committee for 1893-4, in the place of Mr. James Anderson, who was the delegate from the same Board last year, and who has ceased to be a member of this Department. Carried.

The members of the Public School Inspectors' Department, and of the Model School Section of the Training School Department, came to the Examiners' Room and entered into a conference with the Trustees' Department for the discussion of the proposed changes in County Model Schools. His Honor, the Minister of Education, Dr. Kirkland, Chairman of the Training School Department, and Mr. Atkin, Chairman of the Inspectors' Department, having been invited to seats at the right of the presiding officer of the Trustees' Department, it was moved by the Rev. Mr. Somerville, seconded Mr. A. Shaw, Kingston, That the recommendations of the Special Committee on County Model Schools be now adopted as a whole.

After the question had been ably debated by Inspectors Reazin, West Victoria; Kelly, Brant; Carlyle, Oxford; Smith, Wentworth, and McIntosh, North Hastings, and Principal Campbell, St. Thomas Model School, and Trustees McNeillie, Lindsay; Dow, Whitby, and Shaw, Kingston, and others, the Hon. G. W. Ross, LL.D., etc., Minister of Education, Ontario, upon invitation, addressed the conference.

He congratulated the Educationists of this Province upon the formation of their Association, which might now be called *The Educational Senate of Ontario.* The holding of such a joint meeting as that which he was addressing, with its pertinacious discussions about Model Schools, and other subjects of interest and importance, served to illustrate the broadening influence of Ontario's School System. He could not quite agree with the report of the Trustees' Special Committee on Model Schools. He could not think that Model Schools properly conducted could possibly be

injurious. Model School pupils succeed best in the High School Entrance Examinations. Another good resulting from Model Schools was the sympathetic relations begun and fostered there between Inspectors and the teachers of their localities. Answers returned to certain questions recently issued from the Department strengthened his disposition to stand by the Model Schools as they are at present. Trustees should bear in mind that the Department has been making tremendous demands upon teachers. A thorough training of all grades of teachers having been made imperative, if a still higher grade of professional efficiency is required, better salaries must be offered.

It was moved by Rev. Dr. Jackson, Galt, seconded by Mr. J. Hoodless, Hamilton, and resolved, That this Department of the Ontario Educational Association puts on record its high appreciation of the courtesy of the Inspectors and Model School Principals, in uniting with us in the conference on the proposed changes in the Constitution and management of the County Model Schools, and of the value of their counsel on the question; and

That the thanks of this meeting be tendered to the Honorable the Minister of Education, for the interesting address which he has just delivered, and that he be requested to give for publication in our minutes an abstract of the statistics which he has collected on this matter of the efficiency of our Model Schools.

Analysis of answers received from 54 Model School Masters, in reply to a circular issued from the Department, in March, 1893:

I.—*Does the work of the Model School retard the progress of the Public School pupils?* 9 say "Yes"; 30 say "No"; 15 say "Progress of pupils is not retarded to any considerable extent."

II.—*Does the discipline of the School suffer therefrom?* 5 say "The discipline of the Public School *is disturbed* by the Model School"; 39 say it is "*Not*"; 10 say "It is disturbed but little."

III.—The average time during which *each pupil* is taught by students, during the term of 15 weeks, is 22 hours or 4 days—about ($\frac{1}{19}$) one-nineteenth of the time.

IV.—Forty-nine of the Masters say "The Public School *is benefited* by the Model School being associated with it"; 2 say it is "*Not*"; 3 are "Undecided."

The Conference being concluded, the Principals of Model Schools and the Inspectors retired, and the Trustees' Department resumed the consideration of Rev. Mr. Somerville's motion to adopt as a whole the recommendations of the Special Committee on Model Schools.

Mr. John Ball Dow, B.A., etc., Whitby, seconded by Mr. J. R. McNeillie, Lindsay, moved in amendment:

That inasmuch as the Model School section has reached a finding on the question adverse to the recommendations contained in the Trustees' Committee's Report in favor of a reduction in the number of Model Schools, and as the changes proposed are very sweeping in their character, and require careful consideration before being finally adopted, this Department

therefore recommends that the report be not now finally adopted, but that it be referred back to the same Committee for further consideration and conference with the Model School Section and Inspectors' Department.

Rev. Mr. Somerville having accepted the amendment in lieu of the original motion to adopt, the amended motion was carried unanimously.

III.—"*The High School Law of 1891*, including the *Regulations*." This subject was introduced by Mr. John Ball Dow, B.A., of Whitby, who read the following paper on "The Working of the High School Law of 1891":—

THE WORKING OF THE HIGH SCHOOL LAW OF 1891.

I take this subject to mean the working of the "High Schools Act, 1891," and in so far only as the said Act has made changes of a material kind in the former law and regulations governing High Schools and Collegiate Institutes. I shall, therefore, confine my observations to those portions of the Act which are new.

The important changes effected by the Act of 1891 have reference to, first, the system of support or maintenance of High Schools; second, fees chargeable to pupils; third, the composition of the Board of Entrance Examiners. With regard to the first, let me point out in the first place that the changes in the system of support or maintenance to be found in the Act of 1891 are very largely, if not wholly, the result of the repeated, persistent, and well-sustained efforts of this Department, and the forcible representation of its views upon the subject to the Department of Education. At the meeting of the Trustees' Association, held in November, 1887, the following resolution was introduced and carried unanimously, namely:

Moved by Judge Bell, seconded by Rev. G. G. McRobbie, and resolved,—"That the Provincial Association of Public and High School Trustees recommend to the Government that, in view of the injustice of the present system of supporting High Schools and Collegiate Institutes, and with a view of remedying the same, a scheme be introduced for apportioning the necessary expenses of supporting such schools on a basis similar, as near as may be, to the legislation now existing for distributing the expenses for the Administration of Justice in case of a town separating from the county for municipal purposes."

Representations were made on behalf of the Association to the Minister of Education from time to time, pointing out the injustice of the former system, and the opinion of the Association as expressed in the resolution was reiterated, reaffirmed and emphasized from year to year with such success as is indicated in the passage of the Act of 1891. That Act certainly goes a very long way towards remedying an injustice that had existed altogether too long. A tolerably fair basis of distributing the burden of maintaining our High Schools is

now to be found in the provisions of the new law, the Government, the county, and the local municipality or district in which the High School or Collegiate Institute is situated, each having its several share of the cost of maintenance apportioned to it. It will be found on investigation that the local municipalities or districts in which High Schools or Institutes are situated, have already received, and in the future will continue to receive, a considerable sum in excess of the amount received prior to the passing of the new Act from the county municipalities. The basis of distribution of the cost of maintenance appears to be briefly as follows: The county municipality is now obliged to pay yearly to the several High School Boards in the county a sum of money equal to the average cost of maintenance of county pupils, using the words "county pupils" and "maintenance" in their statutory signification. In the case of the town of Whitby, whose Board of Education I have the honor to represent, the average attendance of "resident pupils" and "county pupils" is about equal, and it therefore presents a fair example of the effect of the new system. Under the new Act, the Whitby Board is entitled to receive from the county of Ontario, for the year 1892, the sum of $744.50 in excess of the amount which under the old system would have been paid by the county as an equivalent to the Government grant. Where the relative average attendance differs, the amount receivable will differ also, being less or more according to the relative numbers of "county" and "resident" pupils.

With regard to the statutory meaning of the term "maintenance," I desire to offer a suggestion. I submit that under the head of "maintenance" there should be included in the case of a municipality, not separated from the county, in which a High School is situated, some allowance to represent the fair and equitable share of the county of the expense for permanent improvements, say, a proportion of the annual interest upon the cost of the High School premises. Why should the local municipality or district be obliged to provide and equip the school premises and not receive some contribution from the county on that head? The local municipality or district annually pays in its county rate a certain proportion of the whole county grant, including the increased amount under the new Act, payable by the county towards the High School, but it gets no credit or allowance for it. It would at least appear reasonable in arriving at the amount of the increased grant from the county, that credit should be given to the local municipality or district in which the High School is situated, for the amount paid by it towards the whole county grant. Unless that is done, the local municipality or district does not get the full benefit intended to be given by the Act. Surely the interest upon the value of the High School premises should come under the meaning of the term "maintenance." No doubt it will be argued that the local municipality or district having the school, derives a number of advantages therefrom, such as

convenience, the expenditure of the teachers' salaries and other incidental advantages connected with having the school in its midst. These advantages, however, are purely incidental, are dependent upon circumstances, and I think should not be considered as a set-off under which the county escapes from paying anything towards the equipment of the school premises. Insurance premiums should also be included under the term "maintenance," if they do not already come under the head of "sundry" expenses, as it is contended by some counties that they do not.

There is another point under the term "maintenance" which I think should be made more clear than it is at present. Under Subsection 9 of Section 2, "maintenance" is defined as including the expenditure for conducting the Entrance Examination. Under the well-known legal maxim, "*Expressio unius*," etc., the expenditure for conducting examinations other than the Entrance would be excluded, and it would be well to add a clause, making it perfectly clear that the expenditure for such examinations, not otherwise provided for, should be included under the term "maintenance." On the whole, this difficult and complicated question of the support of High Schools has been, I think, practically solved by the Act of 1891, and the thanks of the Association are due to the Minister of Education for the passage of that Act.

High School Fees.

The solution of this vexed question to be found in the Act is, I think, one that should be generally satisfactory. The power of imposing fees appears to be under the new Act *permissive*, the county and district having separate and distinct powers over their respective pupils, with proper checks upon each other. The maximum fee chargeable to pupils, other than resident pupils, is a reasonable one, and, in the opinion of very many, would present no barrier whatever to pupils who desire the advantages of a higher education. Indeed, it is a well-founded opinion that a small fee acts as a stimulant or incentive, rather than as a barrier, to free education. By giving a limited number of scholarships to pupils at the Entrance Examination, such scholarships entitling the winners to exemption from fees, any pupils, to whose parents the payment of such fees would be a burden, have a sufficient opportunity, if they possess the necessary ability, of obtaining a free course in the High School. It may be fairly argued that unless pupils in indigent circumstances show sufficient ability to win one of these scholarships, it would be in the interest of the pupil not to fritter away time in the High School to no purpose, and at the same time be a burden upon parents for support. It would clearly be better for such pupils to content themselves with a Public School training only.

Besides, the payment of a small fee has been shown by experience to produce much greater regularity of attendance and better apprecia-

tion of the advantages of a higher education than would be found where no fee whatever is charged; and in our Province, at least, there are few who could not obtain the small fee of one dollar a month by the exercise of a little energy, industry, and economy, the effect of which would be salutary and wholesome.

The Entrance Examination.

The changes with respect to the composition of the Board of Entrance Examiners are not likely to give satisfaction. The lay element, if I may so speak, has been entirely removed from the composition of the Board, and now the Board of Entrance Examiners is purely professional, and will likely develop those defects which are inherent in professionalism. It is a matter for regret that the framers of the Act saw fit to remove the Chairmen of the Public School and Separate School Boards from the Board of Entrance Examiners. The only reasons I have heard of that were or could be advanced against the retention of the Chairmen of these Boards was, that they were not competent to act as Examiners. Now, I am not aware that any attempt was ever made by any of the Chairmen to value the answers of the candidates, except in cases where it would be freely admitted that they were quite capable of doing the work which they undertook to do. From my knowledge of the character of trustees, generally, I am unwilling to believe that there is any considerable number of them who would assume to act as Examiners in valuing answers without having the necessary qualifications for the work, and I do not believe that any considerable difficulty was ever experienced on that score. The presence of the Chairmen of the Public and Separate School Boards upon the Board of Entrance Examiners was a guarantee to the public that the examinations would be conducted in the interests of the public and according to the regulations, that all parties would receive justice, that the interests of the several High Schools and Public Schools would be properly guarded, and at all events the people had a feeling that where the Chairman of their own Public School Board had a voice as one of the Entrance Examiners, they could freely appeal to him if they felt aggrieved. There is another undesirable feature in the present system of conducting these examinations. The results of different schools present a great deal of unevenness. For example, take the results at the several High Schools in the County of Ontario, of the last Entrance Examination, and we find the following: Port Perry, 150 candidates, passed 65, failed 85, percentage passed $43\frac{1}{3}$; Oshawa, 78, passed 47, failed 31, percentage $60\frac{2}{3}$; Uxbridge, 75, passed 49, failed 26, percentage $63\frac{1}{3}$; Whitby, 76, passed 26, failed 50, percentage $34\frac{1}{19}$.

Now, it can hardly be supposed that there was as much difference in the attainments of the candidates as the above results would indicate, and I think it will be generally admitted that the unevenness

of these results is ascribable to the difference in the mode of valuing the answers of the candidates, some examiners being inclined to follow the regulations very strictly according to the letter of the law, others being inclined to be more elastic, and to use their own judgment, more or less, in determining the fitness or want of fitness of candidates. It would be, I think, desirable to have more uniformity in valuing the answers of candidates in each county, at all events, than would appear to be the case at present. Many public school teachers and their pupils watch the results from year to year, and form opinions as to the relative degree of difficulty or ease of passing Entrance Examinations at the different schools in their neighborhood, and it is well known that many pupils (if not teachers) select High Schools at which to try the Entrance Examinations according to the supposed difficulty or ease likely to be met in passing the examination. If this feeling exists, and I claim that it certainly does exist, something should be done to remove it. The High School at which the regulations are strictly adhered to, and the papers examined with, perhaps, some severity, is likely to suffer in point of attendance, at all events. While it may be urged that pupils will select the best school after having once passed the Entrance, still there are many influences which induce the student to continue at the school where he has passed his Entrance Examination, other things being reasonably equal.

The same regrettable features which are said to attend the difference in standards of the Matriculation Examinations in our Universities, are thus found attaching themselves to the present system of conducting Entrance Examinations. What I would suggest as the remedy is not new; it has been suggested before and in different places, but I believe it is the true remedy for the defects of the present system. That is, that the Entrance Examinations in each county should be conducted at the several schools as at present, but the answers of the candidates should be valued by one Central Board of Examiners for each county, the several School Boards to have direct representation on such Examining Board. If this were done, the unevenness of the results now existing, and its attendant evils, would almost wholly vanish, and a better standard of merit would be obtained. If a County Board or Central Board of Examiners for each county were constituted, it seems to me that that Board should have the final settlement of the fate of each candidate, subject only to an appeal to the Department by the candidate. Surely a Board of Examiners for the county should be allowed to decide whether or not any particular candidate should be passed into the High School. Let the present regulations regarding recommending pupils be done away with altogether, and let the examiners say finally who are to be passed and who are not, subject only to an appeal.

So far as the change from two examinations to one for Entrance in each year is concerned, I am of opinion that the conclusion of the

Legislature on this point is sound, and that it is in the interest of the High Schools, of the Public Schools, of the teachers, and of the pupils themselves, that there should be but one Entrance Examination a year.

Power to Borrow Money.

At the last meeting of this Association, Mr. Hogg, of Collingwood, drew attention to the fact that there was a doubt as to the power of High School Boards to raise money in advance for the purpose of paying their teachers and other incidental expenses in connection with the school. On examining the Act it appears to me that there is some room for doubt, and I understand that banks in some cases have been unwilling to advance money to High School Boards.

It would be well, therefore, I think, to insert a clause in the High School Act, enabling such Boards to borrow money for the purposes aforesaid, or make the municipal grants payable in advance. The former would probably be preferable.

The Commercial Department.

I cannot refrain from drawing the attention of the Association to a portion of the regulations respecting departments. You will observe that under the new law the "Commercial Department" has been placed upon a proper footing. Before the Trustees' Association took the matter in hand this department was of very secondary consequence, and it was felt by trustees that the attention given in our High Schools towards fitting pupils for mercantile or industrial pursuits was altogether inadequate. It is very gratifying, therefore, to find that this department has been accorded that prominence in the High School curriculum to which it is justly entitled. A perusal of the proceedings of the Trustees' Association will show that the matter was pressed upon the attention of the department, and that the views of the Association were duly recognized. It is pardonable, therefore, to claim that in two important particulars at least, namely, the system of supporting High Schools and the recognition of the importance of the "Commercial Department" in those schools, the mark of the Trustees' Association has been imprinted upon the "High Schools Act, 1891," and if anything was required to be said to justify the existence of the Association, the evidences of its usefulness as found in the new law are abundantly clear.

John Ball Dow.

Whitby, April 4th, 1893.

The following resolutions were referred to me for consideration in connection with the foregoing paper. The questions with which they deal are of much interest and importance, and I cannot do better than simply give the resolutions in full, without expressing any

opinion upon them, and they will then come up for discussion at the next meeting of this Department.

Moved by Col. Deacon, of Lindsay, seconded by Mr. McNeillie, "That candidates who appear before the Boards of Examiners for professional or non-professional examination and obtain a fair average of marks above the aggregate required but fail in one subject, be in future granted a supplementary examination within three months in the subject in which such failure occurred, provided that no expense be incurred by the public of such supplementary examination."

Moved by Col. Cubitt, of Bowmanville, seconded by Col. Deacon, of Lindsay, "That in the opinion of this Department of the Ontario Educational Association, the curriculum for High Schools contains so many subjects that pupils of ordinary capacity seldom obtain much more than a superficial knowledge of them; that if some of the subjects were omitted from the curriculum it would be greatly to the advantage of the pupils educationally and in respect to health; such omission would also enable teachers to discharge their duties more efficiently and decidedly tend to reduce the expense of maintenance of High Schools which at present is somewhat oppressive."

Resolution passed by the Collegiate Institute Board of Clinton, 30th March, 1893, forwarded to Dr. Birchard, and referred to me, protesting against the provisions of the "High Schools Act, 1891," and regulations respecting the "Commercial Department" for the following amongst other reasons:—

(*a*) That to carry out such requirements will necessitate a material change and disorganization in the present staffs of Collegiate Institutes.

(*b*) The Commercial course as prescribed in the Act and regulations is not properly part of Collegiate Institute work.

(*c*) That in most Collegiate Institutes few, if any, pupils are desirous of taking the prescribed Commercial work.

(*d*) That the High School curriculum is already too heavily loaded.

Whitby, April 7th, 1893. J. B. D.

After Mr. Dow's paper had been briefly discussed by Rev. R. M. Craig, Fergus; Mr. J. H. Burritt, Pembroke; and Mr. George J. Fraser, Woodstock, 12 o'clock noon having arrived, the Convention adjourned.

THIRD SESSION.

Wednesday, 5th April, 1893.

The Trustees' Convention resumed the consideration of the paper read by Mr. Dow ("*High School Act, 1891*"), the president occupying the chair.

After Rev. Dr. Jackson, Galt; Mr. John Anderson, Arthur;

Mr. J. R. McNeillie, Lindsay; and Col. Cubitt, Bowmanville, and others had spoken, it was moved by Mr. Burritt, seconded by Rev. Dr. Jackson,

That the paper which Mr. Dow just presented be received with the thanks of this Department; that the said paper be returned to Mr. Dow to consider such additional matter as he shall think advisable to have submitted to this Department; and that the whole paper be then prepared by Mr. Dow for publication in the minutes.

It was moved in amendment by Col. Cubitt, seconded by Mr. Anderson, Arthur, That all the words after "thanks of this Department" be struck out, and the following put in their place, "and that it now be considered clause by clause."

The amendment was lost; the original motion carried.

The Convention next proceeded to consider Mr. Burritt's paper on "*The Public School Law of 1891*," clause by clause, as printed in the Minutes of 1892 (pp. 24-29). After debate,

Section I., relating to *Text Books*, was adopted;

Section II., relating to the *Decision of Disputes*, was rejected;

Section III., relating to *Union School Boards*, was adopted;

Section IV., relating to *Trial of Controverted Election of School Trustee*, was adopted;

Section V., relating to School Boards' *Power to Borrow Money*, was rejected.

At this stage it was moved by Mr. George J. Fraser, seconded by Rev. Dr. Jackson, That this Convention do now receive the report of the Committee on Agriculture in Public Schools. Carried.

Mr. William Houston, M.A., read the following report:

The Special Committee appointed to consider the question of Agriculture in Public Schools, begs leave to report:

1. The present state of the law on this subject may be gathered from two paragraphs in the Departmental Regulations respecting the "Course of Studies" in the Public Schools. The first is a general prescription of work in Form IV., in the following terms:

"*Agriculture for Rural Schools.*—Plant life, composition of soils, etc. (The course in authorized book to be followed.)"

The second is a special direction prescribing the manner in which the subject is to be dealt with.

"*Agriculture.*—The authorized Text Book on this subject should be introduced into every rural school. Special attention should be given to such points as: How plants grow and what they feed upon; how farms are beautified and cultivated; the value of shade trees; what trees to plant and when to plant them; the relation of agriculture to other pursuits; the effects of climate on the habits of a people."

2. With the exception that the teaching of agriculture should not be limited to Form IV., there does not seem to be any need for a change in

the phraseology of either the regulation or the direction. Under them agriculture may be taught to any extent and in any way that seems good to the authorities of each school. If the trustees of a particular school desire to have agriculture taught, they can require the teacher to give instruction in it, and the inspector will have to see that the requirement is complied with. The subject is not optional, but obligatory in rural schools, and if it is neglected, rural school boards have themselves to blame.

3. The fact that agriculture is optional at the entrance examinations is an advantage rather than otherwise, as the teacher is thus left entirely free to adopt the most advantageous method of dealing with the subject. It will be noticed that, though the course embodied in the authorized Text Book is to be followed, the use of the book itself as a text book in the hands of the pupils is not compulsory. Anything more likely than "cramming" the contents of a manual for examination purposes to create a distaste for agriculture, and thus defeat the very object in view, it would be difficult to imagine.

4. The proper method of dealing with agriculture must be determined with reference to the purpose for which it has been introduced into the school programme. This purpose is twofold: (*a*) to arouse the scientific curiosity of the pupils about agricultural operations, and thus make them self-reliant investigators of agricultural methods, and (*b*) to make agricultural pursuits more attractive, and thus check the tendency of young men and women to abandon them for others that are intrinsically inferior to them.

5. As a matter of fact, these two objects, so far from being incompatible, can best be secured by the same means, namely, the adoption of a rational method of dealing with the subject in schools. One great reason for the disgust of farmers' sons and daughters with farm life, is the feeling of drudgery caused by the want of an intellectual interest in the operations performed. The best way to arouse interest, and thus counteract the feeling referred to, is to make the so-called "teaching" of agriculture a search for the reasons why operations, familiar to all rural pupils, are systematically performed. The teacher, who knows how to ask the right kind of question, can easily set, not merely the pupils, but the farmers themselves, thinking, and he may in this way become a centre of influence and a source of inspiration to a whole community. One such teacher quietly pursuing his investigatory and suggestive treatment of his great subject from week to week, may easily accomplish more for his district, in the way of an agricultural revival, than a series of farmers' institutes can do.

6. It is urged as an objection that teachers who do not know the subject cannot teach it, and there is force in the objection. It must be borne in mind, however, that there are few teachers who do not know something about agriculture from practical experience, that the true attitude of the expert teacher is not that of a dogmatist but an enquirer, in this or any other subject, that if he starts questions, he will find that both he and his pupils can find answers to most of them in the experience of the farmers themselves, and above all, that the true function of the teacher is not to fill the minds of the pupils with facts, but to make them expert at finding out facts for themselves, to supply them, not with a mass of information, but with a method of investigation. This he can do, while he is himself a learner.

7. The objection referred to is further obviated by the establishment

of summer courses for teachers at the Provincial Agricultural College. If Boards of Trustees insist, as they have a right to stipulate, that the teachers they hire shall know something about agriculture, and if the Provincial Department of Agriculture furnishes teachers who desire to acquire a knowledge of the subject, with an opportunity of doing so, the objection loses most, if not all, of its force.

8. It has been further urged as an objection, that there is not time to deal with agriculture as a subject in an already overcrowded programme. The obvious answer is, that if it is more important than other things for rural schools, the other things must give way to some extent at least. The programme has been constructed for the schools, and for them it may be modified whenever change seems to be necessary or desirable.

9. The objection referred to usually takes the form that the great aim of school education is intellectual training, and that agriculture is not as well adapted as some other subjects for use as an instrument of mental discipline. Each of these statements is incorrect. There are other objects quite as important as intellectual development to be effected by a school course, and agriculture is one of the very best means in rural districts of securing intellectual development. The kind of mental culture that is serviceable for life may be defined as including (*a*) the faculty of observing individual facts ; (*b*) the ability to classify them according to resemblances or differences, and (*c*) the power of drawing correct inferences by generalization from knowledge so systematized. To pupils in rural schools the facts and phenomena of farm life and agricultural operations are, or may easily be made, familiar as the result of original observation prompted by a teacher's well-directed questions. The natural tendency of the human mind to arrange facts in classes or categories, and to draw conclusions or assign causes, needs only to be encouraged by careful direction in order to open wide and inviting fields of deeper research. Compared with the ordinary methods of acquiring book learning, which are for the most part simply appropriating systematized knowledge at second-hand instead of systematizing it for oneself, such a study of agriculture may fairly lay claim to be an exceptionally advantageous and effective means of intellectual discipline.

10. Finally, in the opinion of your Committee, no change is required in the law relating to this subject, except one permitting agriculture to be taught in the Third and Fifth Forms, as well as in the Fourth. They avail themselves of this opportunity to express approval of the proposed summer course in agriculture for the advantage of teachers who desire to equip themselves for the more effective teaching of agriculture. And they desire to call the attention of School Boards in rural districts to the fact that the law has placed this matter entirely in their hands ; that they may have agriculture taught in their schools if they wish it ; that it is not a drawback but an advantage to leave agriculture out of the list of obligatory subjects for the High School Entrance Examination, and that it would retard rather than promote the object in view in the introduction of agriculture in Public Schools, to make the use of the present or of any authorized treatise on the subject compulsory to pupils.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

(Signed) WM. HOUSTON,

Toronto, 5th April, 1893. *Convener of Committee.*

Moved by Mr. H. T. W. Ellis, Windsor, seconded by Mr. John Anderson, Arthur, That the report of the Committee on Agriculture in Public Schools be received, and that the thanks of this meeting be tendered to Mr. Houston and the Committee of which he was convener, for the able and instructive paper on "Agriculture in Public Schools," to which we have listened with great pleasure, and that said paper be published in the minutes of this meeting. Carried.

Moved by the Secretary, seconded by the Vice-President, Thos. A. Hastings, That the papers prepared under Topics V. and VI. of the programme be now read. Carried.

Rev. Dr. Jackson read the following paper on "High School *Entrance Examination*, including *Fourth Form* work in the Public Schools":—

HIGH SCHOOL ENTRANCE EXAMINATION, INCLUDING FOURTH FORM WORK IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

This topic, which was formulated and assigned by the committee to me, has two parts: the standard of entrance to the High School, and the examination for entrance.

1. And, first, I believe that the standard of entrance to the High School should be raised to include Fifth Form work. This would require Fifth Form work to be compulsory in the Public Schools. In the notice of motion submitted at last meeting of the Association (see page 17, Minutes of Trustees' Association, 1892), I am therefore not to be understood as in any way or to any degree in favor of lowering the standard of our Public Schools, but, on the contrary, would like to see it raised. Our Public Schools are *par excellence* the people's schools, and they should be utilized for the people to their utmost limit.

(*a*) My first reason for raising the standard of entrance to the High School is, that it would thereby raise the general average of education in the Province and make our Public Schools more of a benefit to the people and to the commonwealth. The last report of the Minister of Education shows that 79,357 pupils were in attendance in the Fourth Form of the Public Schools, but only 11,691 were in the Fifth Form. If the remainder of the pupils who left the Fourth, entered the High Schools or Collegiate Institutes, or even if a reasonable proportion of them did so, there could be no fault found with the system. But only 14,950 left the Public Schools to enter the High Schools, leaving 53,157 whose education ceased with the Fourth Form. For every two pupils entering the High Schools, there are seven who leave school for good at the end of the Fourth Form. In order that this fact may be more clearly manifest, I have collated the following figures from the report of the Minister:*

* Since this paper was read before the Trustees' Association, I have been favored (by the courtesy of the Hon. Dr. Ross) with an advance copy of the report of the Department of Education for 1892. At the suggestion of the Minister of Education, I have incorporated the corresponding statistics of the later report, as affording a wider basis of comparison.

SCHOOL ATTENDANCE, 1890.

	Counties.	*Towns.*	*Cities.*	*Total.*
Kindergarten, etc	75,908	17,766	18,243	111,917
First Form.....	52,394	10,303	8,348	71,045
Second "	66,511	12,064	12,328	90,903
Third "	71,652	12,050	13,379	97,081
Fourth "	60,594	9,678	9,085	79,357
Fifth "	8,755	740	2,196	11,691

SCHOOL ATTENDANCE, 1891.

	Counties.	*Towns.*	*Cities.*	*Total.*
Kindergarten, etc.....	76,913	16,999	14,739	108,651
First Form.....	51,965	9,942	8,639	70,546
Second "	64,326	12,285	12,492	89,103
Third "	68,589	11,977	13,270	93,836
Fourth "	60,700	9,697	10,112	80,509
Fifth "	9,764	727	2,437	12,928

Leaving out the Kindergarten department, these tables show that there is a steady increase in number of attendance from the First Form up to the Third; but in the Fourth Form there is a falling away, and in the Fifth it almost disappears. There left the Public Schools, in 1890:

	Counties.	*Towns.*	*Cities.*	*Total.*
At end of Third Form ..	15.43%	19.68%	32.08%	18.25%
" Fourth " ..	83.91 "	92.50 "	75.80 "	83.94 "

These figures show (1) that in the cities a much larger number of pupils leave school at the end of the Third Form than in towns or counties, probably because there is a much larger number of very poor people in the cities, and more numerous opportunities for children engaging in remunerative employment, and possibly also because there is more truancy on the part of children, and disease, crime and ignorance on the part of parents. But the special teaching of these statistics is (2) that the Public School is the people's school; and (3) that there is something seriously wrong in a system which turns out over ninety-two per cent. of the pupils from town schools without an education higher than the Fourth Form affords.

No doubt, a large number of pupils drop out of school as soon as they pass the age of compulsory attendance. The parents of many are poor, and the children are started to work or apprenticed to trades; or the parents are in poor health, and the girls are kept at home to assist in housework, and the boys on the farm or in the workshop. But making all allowance for the operation of the law of necessity, and for the culpable neglect of parents, it hardly seems reasonable that only from fourteen to eighteen per cent. should drop out of the Public Schools at the close of the Third Form, and over eighty-three per cent. at the close of the Fourth. And if we take account of those entering the High School, there are still found to be 66.42 per cent.,

in 1890, and 62.39 per cent. in 1891, who ceased attending school altogether at the end of the Fourth Form.

If we take the number attending the Third Form as a basis of comparison, the failure is shown to be still more serious. In 1890, 72.55 per cent. of those attending the Third Form, dropped out of school altogether, without anything higher than the Fourth Form afforded. And if we add to these the 6,732 children under thirteen years of age, who did not attend any school, it would appear that no less than 79.49 per cent. of the children of this favored province receive only a Fourth Form education, or less. The report for 1891 shows a slight improvement here. The corresponding figures for the year are: 67.73 per cent. of Third Form pupils go no further than the Fourth; and adding the 4,516 children under thirteen, who are out of school, there were 72.54 per cent. of the children of Ontario receiving no higher education than the Fourth Form afforded, and a large proportion of these did not even receive so much.

But we are not left to conjecture for an explanation of the sudden stopping of so large a proportion of Public School pupils at the end of the Fourth Form work. In accordance with the recommendation of the Department (see Regulations, p. 105, sub-sec. 3), sixty five towns, with a High School, have no Fifth Form in their Public Schools; and twenty-three towns, having no High Schools, have a Fifth Form. Manifestly these twenty-three towns are in a fair position to test the public appreciation of the Fifth Form in the Public School. We have seen that 92.35 of the Fourth Form Pupils in towns did not enter the Fifth; and that from sixty-two to sixty-six per cent. of the Fourth Form pupils neither enter the Fifth Form nor the High School. But if the sixty-five towns which had not the Fifth Form work in their schools, had been circumstanced the same as the twenty-three which had it, the decrease would only have been 48.88 per cent. in 1890, and 30.01 per cent. in 1891. This reveals the cause of the great falling-off of pupils at the end of the Fourth Form. We are warranted in making this deduction: if the Fifth Form were the uniform standard of admittance to the High School, and if all Public Schools were required to provide it, nearly one-half of those pupils who leave school at the end of the Fourth Form would continue in it to the end of the Fifth, and the standard of popular education be correspondingly raised.

And if in the towns, results so favorable would be secured by the change suggested, no doubt correspondingly favorable results would accrue in cities and country. That many educationists are in favor of the change is proven by the fact that six of the eleven cities and two towns with High Schools, have the Fifth Form in their Public Schools. But this is eminently unsatisfactory. "It is neither fish, flesh nor good red herring." The Fifth Form should be compulsory in the Public School and the standard of entrance to the High School.

(b) This change would not only tend to raise the popular standard of education, but it would be in the interests of economy. The

Province spends over five millions of dollars ($5,284,980, in 1890), for educational purposes. The average cost per pupil in our different schools in 1890, was as follows :

	Counties.	*Towns.*	*Cities.*	*Total.*
Public Schools	$7 38	$9 70	$14 46	$8 67
High Schools	....	....	....	30 91
Collegiate Institutes	....	....	....	33 95

And in 1891, it was :

	Counties.	*Towns.*	*Cities.*	*Total.*
Public Schools	$7 25	$8 92	$13 57	$8 34
High Schools	....	....	....	31 61
Collegiate Institutes	....	....	....	37 36

Or, the comparative cost of each pupil is about as follows :

In Counties	19.40	per cent. of pupil	in Collegiate	Institute.
In Towns	23.87	"	"	"
In Cities	32.32	"	"	"
Average	21.81	"	"	"

That is, it costs an average of over five times as much to educate a pupil in Fifth Form work in the Collegiate as in the average country school ; over four times as much as in the average town school ; and three times as much as in the average city school. Therefore, in the interests of the economical management of our educational system, the Fifth Form work should be relegated to the Public Schools, and made the basis for the Entrance Examination for the High School. Our people are heavily enough taxed, without being made to bear a burden that is both unnecessary and positively hurtful to our educational interests.

(*c*) I might have rested my case here. These are the main arguments. But there are others, two of which I will merely indicate. I believe the work of the Fifth Form would be better done in the Public School than in the High School. There is not enough pains taken in the High Schools, usually, with the details of foundation work in the junior classes. But this is a phase of the subject which is difficult to handle. Opinions, at best, are only opinions, and the old adage holds true here,

" Convince a man against his will,
He's of the same opinion still."

(*d*) A fourth reason for this change is, that it would tend to stay the tide of population flowing from the country towards the towns and cities. The standard of the Entrance Examination being the Fourth Form, pupils try it, and when they pass, naturally feel that they ought to obtain the promotion which they have earned, and parents are tempted to favor their children. Why should my child be kept in the Common School when his companions are in the High School ? Consequently, many pupils take one or two terms at the

High School who would not do so if the Entrance Examination were the Fifth Form work. But one winter in a town or city is enough to turn many a farmer's boy from the quiet life of the farm and country. He becomes unsettled, and is not satisfied until embarked in some occupation or profession in a city or town. I believe there is considerable truth in these two arguments, but I present them mainly as supplementary to the first two.

2. In regard to the second part of the topic, the High School Entrance Examination, only one point calls for discussion now. We have argued that the standard of the Entrance should be raised. But how should the examination be conducted? The department has given up the semi-annual examination, and now a candidate has no redress if he should come short in the required marks. He must wait for a whole twelve months before he is given an opportunity to redeem himself.

In accordance with the notice of motion, I am prepared to advocate the adoption of the following resolution:

"That this Association memorialize the Minister of Education either to have the semi annual Entrance Examination re-introduced, or that a supplemental examination be available for such candidates as may have failed in one or two subjects, or have only come short of the necessary average of marks, but have obtained ——— number of marks."

In the case of professional examinations, the supplemental might be dispensed with to the advantage of the public. The standard of popular education should be raised, and one certain way to do it would be to bar the way of all slip-shod work. But it is a different matter with the Entrance Examination.

(*a*) The young mind has not the tension to hold the quantity of matter nowadays crowded into an ordinary curriculum of study. The trained and disciplined and somewhat mature mind may take an examination once a year, or even less frequently, but it is unreasonable and unphilosophical to expect the same power of comprehension and relative retention in the average Public School pupils. The mind of the young is in a formative state; many of the powers of mind are slow in coming to maturity. Our system of cramming is often very injurious, tending to paralyze the faculties instead of drawing them out and strengthening them. No young person should be asked to write on an examination representing a whole year's work. It is barbarous. But if a semi-annual examination is not provided, there ought to be a supplemental, and thus young people who are overcome with terror and incapable of the best work, may both be encouraged, and, failing, have an opportunity to redeem themselves.

(*b*) Frequently even the best pupils, from temporary indisposition or nervousness, or other incidental cause, fail in an examination. In such cases it is a hardship to the pupils, and a wrong to the commonwealth, if a whole year must elapse before an opportunity is given to retrieve the failure.

(*c*) Even where the pupil may be blameworthy, a reasonable opportunity ought to be provided for him to recover the ground lost by his failure. Our educational system is for the good of the pupils, or ought to be. It deals with young, moral and mobile minds, and as far as reasonably possible, everything should be provided and done to contribute to the best advantage of the pupils.

(*d*) Many of the best and most promising pupils have difficulty with certain subjects. They are, perhaps, deficient in certain faculties; consequently, they make a worse showing on examinations than others who are their inferiors in general ability and promise. Very few of the world's great geniuses could have passed satisfactorily in all the subjects which are required for the Entrance Examination. Are the pupils who labor under such disabilities, then, to have no opportunity to "grind up" on the subjects in which they have failed? Or must they wait a whole year before they are again permitted a trial at them? I do not hesitate to say, that a system which answers "yes" to these questions, is a parody of a true educational system, and the day is not far distant when it will be pronounced so.

(*e*) Then, one of the clamorous wrongs of our educational system, is its procrustean, mechanical character. Nature, or God rather, is infinite in variety. No two leaves in Vallambrosa are exactly alike, and no two men in all the world are exactly alike in body or mind. But the trend of our system, in the larger towns and cities, is to drill the individual soul out of the pupils and transform them into animate machines, to be manipulated like so many wax figures by the teacher. Classes are graded, with from twenty to fifty pupils, and the work of each grade is strictly uniform. The bright pupils are kept back because of the dull. The standard of progress is generally—not always, but generally—the average—neither the dullest nor the brightest, and as a result, the bright pupil is tempted to slight his work; his task can be gotten up so easily, and he makes, what seems to him, such slow progress. In the United States, I observed that the vast majority of the prominent and successful men in public life, were graduates of public schools, and I am convinced that one of the reasons is in the grading of the school. The classes in country schools are generally small, and the pupil is encouraged to make as rapid progress as he is able to accomplish. The young mind is elastic and buoyant, and is nourished by healthy stimulus. It grows by the outgoing of its own energy. Both the healthy growth and the habit of application help the pupil forward and upward, giving him momentum in life even after he has left the school. But in the graded school, the bright pupil has often little to stimulate him. He can easily do his work, and is accordingly tempted to slight it. He becomes mentally indolent, careless and cobwebby. The crowding-back process, which is to some extent almost a necessity in our large graded schools, approximates in results its procrustean ideal. The bright boy becomes the dull one, or develops his energies in other lines, until the stupid teacher fancies

him to be the incarnation of evil. I do not say that is the course and result in every case. There are many successful teachers who are "educating" their bright pupils in spite of the system. But I do say, that the tendency of our graded system is in this direction. Then, that a reasonably good pupil should, because of temporary indisposition, nervousness or the arbitrary questions of a pedantic or cranky examiner, make a poor showing in some subject at the Entrance Examination, and be kept back for a whole year, intensifies the evil, and entails most serious injury in many cases.

Our educational system is supported by the people, and it is, or should be, for the people. In order, therefore, that the greatest good for the greatest number shall be secured, the Fifth Form work should be compulsory in the Public School and the basis of the Entrance Examination for the High School; and either the semi-annual examination be re-introduced or a supplemental examination substituted.

ALEXANDER JACKSON, PH.D.

Knox Manse, Galt, April 12, 1893.

Moved by Mr. A. Shaw, Kingston, seconded by Mr. T. A. Hastings, Toronto, That the valuable paper brought forward by Rev. Dr. Jackson be received and printed in the minutes of this meeting, and that the thanks of this Department be tendered to the Rev. Dr. Jackson for the said paper. Carried.

Mr. John Hoodless, Chairman of the Board of Education, Hamilton, delivered an address on the subject of "The Public School *Leaving Examination*, including *Fifth Form* Work in Public Schools," for which the Convention by resolution tendered him thanks.

The Convention resumed consideration of Mr. Burritt's paper on "*The Public School Law of 1891*," taking up Section 13 (Minutes, "1892," p. 28), which deals with the "*Fifth Form Work in Public Schools.*" After a most animated debate, the section was adopted on a division of 18 to 7.

At six o'clock p.m., the Convention adjourned for the day.

FOURTH SESSION.

Thursday, 6th April, 1893.

President Lazier occupied the chair, and the Trustees' Department considered first a resolution submitted by Col. Deacon, of Lindsay, relative to the establishing of a supplementary examination for candidates who have failed in not more than one subject at the High School Departmental Examinations.

This resolution was referred to Mr. Dow, to be printed with his paper on "The High School Law of 1891," etc.

Col. Cubitt, Bowmanville, submitted a resolution relative to a reduction of the number of subjects on the High School curriculum.

After a somewhat prolonged discussion of the alleged lack of thoroughness in the High School work of the present time, this resolution was also referred to Mr. Dow, to be printed with his paper on "*High School Law*," etc.

Moved by Mr. John Welsh, Stratford, seconded by Mr. J. R. McNeillie, Lindsay,

That in cities and towns where the supervisors or Model School Masters are appointed to have the general supervision of the city or town schools, and teach only the Model School class, they be qualified to act also as Inspectors of said city or town schools; and that this Convention of Trustees request the Minister of Education to have the law so changed as to give effect to said recommendation. Lost.

The Convention then concluded its consideration of the remaining clauses of Mr. Burritt's paper on the "*Public School Law*," etc., and finally adopted the following recommendations:

(See *Minutes "1892"* (p. 24-29), "*Provincial Association of School Trustees.*")

I. *Text Books*: That of text books for the use of pupils in Public Schools, no authorization or withdrawal be made hereafter without the consent of a Committee of Educationists, to be named by the Legislature.

II. *Rejected.*

III. That Section 8, Sub-section 5, "Public Schools Act" (54th Vic.), be amended so as to read: "Hereafter it *shall* be lawful for the trustees of any Public School to unite with the trustees of any High School to form a *Board of Education.*"

IV. Section 32: That in all cases the *trial of a controverted election of a School Trustee* shall be held by the County Judge: or if the Inspector is still to try rural cases, that he be given all the powers of a County Judge as recited in Section 105.

V. *Rejected.*

VI. That Section 65 be so amended as

(*a*) To make the subject matter for arbitration include any question of the justness of the price asked, as well as the suitability of the site selected.

(*b*) To give to the Inspector the powers of convener and chairman of such Board of Arbitrators;

(*c*) To give power to the Inspector, as chairman of the Board of Arbitrators, to compel the disputing parties to deposit with the Secretary of the Board, sufficient to cover the expense of the arbitration.

[Note.—Either in Section 65, or 72, it should be made clear that the Arbitrators have power to award costs, if the Legislature intend they should have such power.]

VII. That Section 92 be amended so as to make every Union School section one section for *all* school purposes.

VIII. That Section 93 be amended so as to withdraw from the Town-

ship, and make part of the Village for *all school purposes* the rural parts of a Union School section, consisting of an Incorporated Village within a school section.

IX. That the provisions of Section 96, with reference to the *time of passing* a by-law, etc., be made to harmonize with Section 81, Sub-section 3, and Section 82.

X. That Section 132 be amended by striking out all the words after the word "writing."

[Note.—The object desired is that the word "agreement" shall not be construed to exclude an agreement by telegram or letter; nor to be more stringent than it is by Section 40 of the High Schools Act; and that in cases of dispute the agreement, as in commercial affairs, may be left to be interpreted by the courts.]

XI. That Section 172, Sub-section 2, be amended by striking out the words "mutually agreed upon," and substituting therefor the words "fixed by such trustees."

XII. That Section 145 be so amended as not to exclude legally qualified High School Teachers from eligibility for appointment as County Examiners.

XIII. That the Fifth Form be made compulsory in all Public Schools in cities, towns and incorporated villages; and that the Junior Form in High Schools be made to begin where the Fifth Form in Public Schools leaves off; and that the Legislature give a special grant for such Fifth Form, to be apportioned as provided by Section 123, Sub-section 2.

Moved by Mr. A. Werner, Elmira, seconded by Mr. H. T. W. Ellis, Windsor, That we tender a hearty vote of thanks to Mr. Burritt, Pembroke, for his ably prepared paper, wherein are suggested remedies to a number of defects in the Public Schools Act of 1891. Carried.

The Truancy Act and Night Schools.

Mr. H. T. W. Ellis, Windsor, excused the absence of Mr. Bartlet, Police Magistrate of Windsor, who was to have read a paper on the Truancy Act.

A brief discussion of the subject ensued. Messrs. McNeillie, Lindsay; Boyer, Bracebridge; Bastedo, Newmarket; Rev. Dr. Jackson, Galt, and Mr. Lazier, LL.B., etc., Hamilton, and others taking part. It was argued that the Truancy Officer should be required to send to the local School Board a copy of his reports to the Education Department; that the School Boards and not the Municipal Councils should have the power of appointing the Truancy Officer; that if the Truancy Act were to be strictly enforced in all cases, there would often be danger of unfit street-arabs being brought into the schools to the serious risk of the morals of the other pupils.

It was moved by Rev. Dr. Jackson, Galt, seconded by Mr. J. Ball Dow, B.A., etc., Whitby, and resolved, That we ask the Minister of Education to consider whether some additional assistance should not be given for Night Schools.

The Public School Department, through Director S. McAllister,

Toronto, requested the Trustees' Department to consider at its next meeting the advisability of having the Township Municipal grants to Rural Public Schools made ($200) two hundred dollars each, in place of ($100) one hundred dollars, as at present.

Moved by Mr. J. Ball Dow, B.A., Whitby, seconded by Mr. B. L. Doyle, Goderich, That we tender a vote of thanks to the presiding officers of this Department for their uniform courtesy during this Convention. Carried.

After the President and the Secretary-Treasurer had responded to the vote of thanks, the Trustees' Department adjourned.

OFFICERS OF THE TRUSTEES' DEPARTMENT, ONTARIO EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, 1893-94.

Ex-Presidents.

1887-1888—Mr. John E. Farewell, LL.B., Q.C.... Whitby
1889—His Honor Judge A. Bell..... Chatham
1890—Rev. John Somerville, M.A..... Owen Sound
1891—Mr. John I. McCracken, B.A. ..... Ottawa
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Secretary Treasurer—Geo. Anson Aylesworth,
Newburgh, Addington County

Executive Committee.

The above-named Officers and ex-Presidents, together with

Mr. John Ball Dow, B.A..... Whitby
Mr. Wm. Houston, M.A..... Toronto
Mr. Walter McGibbon..... St. Catharines
Mr. Geo. J. Fraser ..... Woodstock
Mr. John Hoodless..... Hamilton
Mr. H. T. W. Ellis..... Windsor
Rev. Dr. Alex. Jackson..... Galt

Geo. Anson Aylesworth,
Secretary.

Newburgh, Addington County, Ont.,
27th April, 1893.

COLLEGE AND HIGH SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

WEDNESDAY, *April 5th*, 1893.

The Department met at 10.10 a.m. Mr. Alex. Steele, Orangeville, in the chair; I. J. Birchard, Brantford, Secretary.

In consequence of a change in the Constitution, by which the "University and College Department" was united with the "High School Department," under the name of "College and High School Department," the chairman stated that it would be necessary to appoint officers under the new organization. On motion, the same chairman and secretary were re-appointed.

Moved by Prof. Fraser, of University College, seconded by Mr. Carscadden, Principal of Galt Collegiate Institute, That Messrs. Fletcher, Manley, Squair, Merchant and Strang be a committee to draft a Constitution for the Department, and to report on the following morning. Carried.

The first subject on the day's programme, "To what extent should a student's school record be considered in connection with the Departmental Examinations," was introduced by Messrs. Merchant and Steele. Discussion followed by Messrs. Strang, Waugh, Ellis, Burt, Embree, Reid and Milloy.

Moved by Mr. Ellis, seconded by Mr. Spotton, That Messrs. Levan, Steele, McBride and Elliott be a committee to consider the subject and report to-morrow morning. Carried.

The second subject, "The effect on our High Schools of the present system of professional training," was introduced by a paper read by Mr. R. A. Thompson, Principal of the Collegiate Institute, Hamilton. Discussions followed by Messrs. Burt, Robertson, Lennox, Hogarth, Strang and Manley.

Mr. Levan, of Owen Sound, rose to a question of privilege. He read a letter from a High School principal to a student, in which the latter was solicited to leave the school which he was attending and to attend the school under the control of the writer. The question of Professional Etiquette was then discussed by Messrs. Ellis, Steele, Strang, Milloy and Reid.

The Department adjourned at 12 p.m.

THURSDAY, *April 6th*.

The Department met at 10 a.m. Mr. Steele in the chair. I. J. Birchard, Secretary

Minutes of previous session read and approved.

A communication from the High School Board of Clinton, protesting against certain regulations of the Education Department, and asking to have the matter considered by the Association.

Moved by Mr. Chase, seconded by Mr. Manley, That the communication be referred to the Trustees' Department. Carried.

A report from the Committee appointed to draft a constitution was presented by Mr. Squair. The clauses were considered *seriatim*. The following is the report as amended and adopted :—

CONSTITUTION OF DEPARTMENT.

Article I.—Name.

The name of this Department shall be "College and High School Department."

Article II.—Membership.

All persons engaged in teaching in any of the Universities, Colleges or High Schools of Ontario, who are also members of the Ontario Educational Association, and such other persons as may be elected by the Department on the recommendation of the Executive, shall be members of the Department.

Article III.—Officers.

The officers of this Department shall consist of a President and a Secretary, and the representative from each of the following Associations on the Board of Directors of the General Association, viz.: The Modern Language Association, the Natural Science Association, the Classical Association, and the Mathematical and Physical Association. These shall constitute the Executive of the Department.

The following report was presented by Mr. Levan :—

Toronto, *April 6th*, 1893.

To the Chairman and Members of the High School Section, Ontario Teachers' Association.

Your Committee appointed to consider the present unsatisfactory state of affairs in commercial branches, and also how far a student's school work should count in his examination, beg leave to report as follows :

With reference to the commercial work they recommend :

1. That in the subject of Drawing, all the work be dropped from the High School course except Perspective and Model Drawing.

2. That Book-keeping be not required of pupils who are preparing for Matriculation.

Your Committee can see no satisfactory way of counting a pupil's school work in the Departmental Examination. They recommend, however,

1. That examiners be required to exercise the utmost care in setting examination papers.

2. That in the English branches, the chairman of each committee of Associate Examiners be required not to read answer papers, but simply to revise the work of his committee with the view of maintaining a uniform standard throughout the examination.

Which is respectfully submitted,

J. M. Levan,
Convener.

The report was adopted.

Professor Fraser, of University College, presented the claims of the Women's Residence Association, and asked the co-operation of the Department in securing financial assistance.

Moved by Mr. McMurchy, seconded by Mr. Strang, That the following gentlemen be appointed a committee to consider the question of Professional Etiquette, and to report the following year: Messrs. McMurchy, Toronto; McMillan, Ottawa; Fessenden, Peterboro'; Dow, Whitby; Steele, Orangeville; Carscadden, Galt; Strang, Goderich, and Miss Newcombe, Hamilton. Carried.

The subject of University Matriculation on the basis proposed by Mr. Seath, High School Inspector, was introduced. A paper on the subject was read by Prof. Dale, of University College. A paper was read by A. W. Burt, of Brockville.

Moved by Mr. Robertson, seconded by A. McMurchy,—That a committee of four representatives, chosen from each of the four sections, be appointed to consider the whole question of Matriculation and to report to the Senate of Toronto University. Carried.

Election of Officers.

The following officers were nominated and unanimously elected for the ensuing year: Chairman, I. J. Birchard, Ph.D., Brantford; Secretary, J. Squair, B.A., Toronto.

Mr. Strang presented the following report from the Committee appointed to draft a congratulatory address to Prof. Loudon:—

That the congratulations of the College and High School Department be transmitted to Professor James Loudon, upon his appointment to the Presidency of the Provincial University; and that the Department records its unqualified approval of the action of the Government in appointing to the position one so peculiarly qualified by his learning, his intimate knowledge of the requirements of higher education in this Province, and his exceptional administrative ability, to discharge efficiently the duties of the important and honorable office; and that the Department finds additional cause for gratification in the fact that the Government has felt itself justified in entrusting the highest position in the Provincial Educational System to one whose education has been received under that system.

The report was adopted.

Moved by Mr. Embree, seconded by Mr. O'Connor, That a committee be appointed to ask the Registrar of the College of Physicians and Surgeons to harmonize the requirements of their Matriculation with those of the University Matriculation or the Junior Examination. The committee appointed consisted of the Principals of the Toronto Collegiate Institutes. Carried.

Moved by F. F. Manley, seconded by R. A. Thompson, That in the opinion of this Department the fee of the Associate Examiner in the Departmental Examinations be estimated on the basis of the

number of papers read. After discussion the matter was referred to a committee consisting of Messrs. Manley, Carruthers and Thompson. Carried.

The Department adjourned at 12.30 p.m.

I. J. BIRCHARD,
Secretary.

PUBLIC SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

TORONTO, *April 4th*, 1893.

The Public School Department of the Ontario Educational Association met in Dr. Carlyle's room, Normal School, at 10.30 a.m. to-day.

W. Wilkinson, M.A., Brantford, occupied the Chair, A. McMillan, Toronto, acting as Secretary.

The roll officers being called, Mr. Alexander moved, seconded by S. A. Gardiner, That the Minutes of last year's meeting, having been printed and circulated, be taken as read. Carried.

Messrs. Narraway, Harlton and Campbell were appointed to prepare synopses of the papers for the press.

Moved by P. McMaster, seconded by D. Stewart, That the hours of meeting in the morning be from 9.30 to 12. Carried.

Moved by Mr. Barber, seconded by Mr. Alexander, That the afternoon meetings be from 2 to 4. Carried.

The chairman, Mr. Wilkinson, then read his paper, "Information in Education."

A discussion on the paper followed, in which Messrs. Liddicoat, Cork, McAllister, Keith, Musgrove, Putman and Harlton took part.

On motion, the thanks of the Department was tendered Mr. Wilkinson for his paper.

The Minister of Education was then introduced. He briefly addressed the meeting.

The meeting then adjourned.

TUESDAY, *April 4th.*

The Public School Department resumed its session at 2 p.m. The Minutes of the morning session were read and adopted.

It was agreed, on motion by Mr. McQueen, seconded by Mr. Ward, That the Election of Officers be the first order of business Wednesday p.m.

It was also agreed, on motion by J. A. Hill, seconded by Mr. Stewart, That the officers be elected by open vote.

Miss Russell, Hamilton, then read a paper on "Supplementary Reading." Discussion on the paper by Messrs. Brownscombe, Robinson, Grant, Ramage, Liddicoat, Campbell, Hindson and McAllister.

On motion, a hearty vote of thanks was tendered Miss Russell for her paper.

Moved by Mr. McAllister, seconded by Mr. Hindson, That in the opinion of this Department, it would tend to advance education in the Province if books for supplementary reading in the various grades were sanctioned by the Education Department. Carried.

After some notices of motion the Department adjourned.

WEDNESDAY, *April 5th*, 1893.

The Department met at 9.30.

Mr. Smith opened the session with devotional exercises.

The Minutes of the previous session were read and adopted.

After an informal discussion on Railway Certificates and Membership, W. F. Newlands, Kingston, read a paper on "Vertical *vs.* Oblique Penmanship.

A lively discussion followed, Messrs. Eckardt, Palmer, Young, Cork, Stevens, Stewart, Campbell, Narraway, Elliott, Howell and McAllister taking part therein.

Mr. Liddicoat moved, seconded by Mr. Campbell, That the Secretary be instructed to send a copy of Mr. Newland's paper to the Hon. the Minister of Education, with the request of this Department that he consider the advisability of facilitating the adoption of vertical writing in the public schools of the Province.

Further consideration of this motion was deferred till the afternoon session.

Mr. Newlands was tendered a hearty vote of thanks.

Mr. Davis' paper, "Commercial Work in Public Schools," was then read, and discussed by Messrs. Musgrove, Edwards, Keith, Brownscombe and Dame; Mr. Davis replying.

Mr. Davis was tendered the thanks of the Department for his excellent paper.

The Department adjourned at 12 o'clock.

WEDNESDAY, *April 5th.*

The Department met at 2 p.m.

The Minutes were read and adopted.

It was moved by Mr. McQueen, seconded by Mr. Young, That the membership fee in this Department for this year shall be 60 cts., which shall include 50 cts. for registration and 10 cts. to defray the general expenses of the Department. Carried.

Notices of motion were given by Mr. Eckardt regarding drawing books, and by Mr. McEachern regarding the Easter holidays.

Moved by Mr. McAllister, and seconded by Mr. McQueen, That in the opinion of the Public School Department, it is desirable, in the interests of public school education, that pupils should not be required to pass the High School Entrance Examination before trying the Public School Leaving Examination, and that pupils who have passed the Public School Leaving Examination should be considered as having passed the High School Entrance Examination. Carried unanimously.

The Department then proceeded to elect its officers.

Messrs. McMaster and McMillan were nominated for the office of Chairman.

The vote being taken, Mr. McMillan was declared elected.

For Secretary, Messrs. Hill, McQueen and Newlands were nominated.

Mr. McQueen was elected.

For Director, Messrs. C. Campbell, D. Stewart and F. Browns-combe were nominated.

Mr. Campbell was elected.

Mr. Harlton was nominated and elected Treasurer.

Mr. Hill, Dundas, then read a paper on "The Educational Value of Form and Drawing," and was given a hearty vote of thanks therefor.

Mr. McAllister's paper on the "Present Condition of the Administration of the Superannuation Fund" was then given. A discussion followed, in which Messrs. Eckardt, Husband, McQueen, Campbell (Toronto), Ramage, Campbell (Ottawa), Narraway and the Chairman took part.

Mr. McAllister was tendered a vote of thanks for his paper.

Mr. Gardiner moved, seconded by Mr. Narraway, That the matter of the Superannuation Fund be referred to a committee consisting of Messrs. McAllister, Campbell (Ottawa) and Eckardt to draw up a resolution tending toward its improvement. Carried.

Moved by Mr. McMaster, seconded by Mr. Ramage, that a com-

mittee of six members be appointed to draft a set of by-laws for the guidance of this Department, and to report at to-morrow's session. Carried.

The committee appointed with reference to the foregoing resolution were Messrs. W. E. Smith, D. Stewart, W. J. Hendry, A. McQueen, P. McMaster and C. Ramage.

The Department then adjourned.

THURSDAY, *April 6th*, 1893.

The Department opened at 9.30 with devotional exercises, conducted by Mr. Campbell, Ottawa.

The Minutes of the previous session were adopted.

Mr. Eckardt moved, seconded by Mr. Stewart, That in the opinion of this Department, one drawing book is all that can be profitably filled in one year, and that the Minister of Education be asked to drop either No. 5 or No. 6, requiring but one for the High School Entrance Examination. Carried.

Moved by Mr. Edwards, seconded by Mr. McQueen, That in the opinion of this Department it is advisable to allow any Public School, with the consent of the trustees, to do Public School Leaving Examination work, and that all schools doing such work receive a share of the Government grant given for the Public School Leaving Examination. Carried unanimously.

Moved by Mr. McQueen, seconded by Mr. Brownscombe, That the Executive of this Department notify the various County Associations of the Province as to the import of Public School regulations relating to the sending of delegates to this Association, after having obtained the opinion of the Minister of Education on the subject. Carried.

Moved by Mr. Liddicoat, seconded by Mr. Grant, That this Department recommend that Section 109 of the Public Schools Act be amended, so that the amount paid from the general funds of the township to each school and department in the municipality be $200 instead of $100 as at present. Carried.

Moved by A. C. Stewart, seconded by C. B. Edwards, That this Department request the teachers of the Province to give a trial to the system of vertical writing, advocated and illustrated before this Department by Mr. Newlands, of Kingston, with a view of having its merits brought before the Hon. the Minister of Education next year. Carried.

Considerable discussion arose on the foregoing resolution. Messrs. Stewart, Liddicoat, Edwards, McAllister, Campbell, McQueen, Sheehan and others taking part therein.

Mrs. J. S. Arthurs, Toronto, then read a paper on Phonic Reading, and was tendered a hearty vote of thanks therefor.

The Department adjourned at 12.35.

AFTERNOON, *April 6th.*

The Department resumed at 2 p.m.

After the adoption of the Minutes, Mr. Smith presented the report of the Committee on By-laws.

The report was received and considered clause by clause.

The following is the Report:—

PUBLIC SCHOOL DEPARTMENT OF THE ONTARIO EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

Article I.—This Department shall be called the Public School Department of the Ontario Educational Association.

Article II.—Any member of the General Association may become a member of this Department on payment of the annual fee.

Article III.—The annual fee for membership in this Department shall be twenty-five cents.

Article IV.—The officers of this Department shall be a President, Vice-President, Secretary, Treasurer, and one Director, who shall be elected annually.

Article V.—There shall be a Committee of Management consisting of the officers of the Department and three members who shall be elected annually.

Article VI.—On the second day of the Annual Meeting, immediately after assembling in the afternoon, the officers shall be nominated in open convention and elected by ballot, a majority of the votes cast being necessary for a choice.

Article VII.—Two auditors shall be elected at each Annual Meeting for the purpose of auditing the accounts. These auditors shall hold no other office in the Department during their term of office.

Article VIII.—The duties of the officers shall be similar to those of the officers of the General Association.

Article IX.—The duties of the Committee of Management shall be to consider all notices of motion and other matters submitted to it by this Department, and to report on the same.

Article X.—Notices of motion shall be given in writing to the Secretary, of all questions proposed for debate.

Article XI.—The rules of Order for the General Association shall govern this Department.

Article XII.—These by-laws may be amended by a two-thirds vote of the members present, provided notice of the proposed amendment be given at a previous session.

(Signed) W. E. SMITH,
M. P. MCMASTER,
W. J. HENDRY,
D. STEWART,
C. RAMAGE.

Clauses 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10 and 11 of the foregoing report were adopted as reported. Clause 12 was amended by adding after the word "present" the words "and voting."

A clause was added requiring the presence of not less than twenty members at the meetings to constitute a quorum, said clause to be designated Article XIII. of the by-laws.

Mr. Husband moved, seconded by Mr. Stewart, that the by-laws come into force at once. Carried.

Messrs. McQueen, Stewart and McAllister were appointed to confer with a committee of the Training School Department regarding changes in the Public School Programme of Studies.

On motion by Mr. Jamieson, seconded by Mr. McKenzie, it was agreed that the resolution from the East Huron Association, relative to the History Limit for Entrance Examinations, be laid over till next year.

Mr. Kearney moved, seconded by Mr. Robinson, That the Education Department be requested to fix the History Limit for the Entrance Examination, as follows: English History, beginning with Henry VII.; Canadian History as at present. Carried.

The report on Superannuation was received and adopted. It is as follows:

Your Committee recommends that in the opinion of the Public School Department of the Ontario Educational Association, the Education Department should be requested to amend the methods of administering the Superannuation Fund, so as to secure the following:

1. That while protecting the Fund from fraud, the self-respect of the participants be interfered with as little as possible.

2. That teachers who are admitted as participants in the Fund, should thereafter be exempt from further contributions to the Fund.

3. That all participants in the Fund should be placed on the same footing as to the amount paid for each year of service.

(Signed) S. McAllister,
W. D. Eckardt,
C. Campbell.

It was ordered that the report as above be forwarded to the Minister of Education.

In accordance with the requirements of the new by-laws, the following additional officers were elected:

Vice-President, Mrs. J. S. Arthurs, Toronto; Committee of Management—Mr. W. E. Smith, Toronto; Miss A. Hendrie, Hamilton; Miss F. Pocock, London; Auditors—G. K. Powell, James Grant.

The Treasurer reported $6.30 funds to the credit of the Department.

Accounts amounting to $4.60 were presented by the Secretary, and were ordered to be paid.

Mr. McQueen's paper on "Public Schools and the Future of the Race," was then read.

Mr. Smith being called to the chair, Mr. McQueen moved, seconded by Mr. Hendry, That the hearty thanks of the Department be tendered to the retiring chairman, Mr. Wilkinson, for the very efficient way in which he has presided over the meetings. Carried.

Mr. Wilkinson made a happy acknowledgment.

C. O'Hagan, M.A., Waterdown, then gave his address on "The Study of Literature in the Schools."

On motion by Mr. Campbell, Windsor, seconded by Miss Preston, a hearty vote of thanks was tendered Mr. O'Hagan for his eloquent address.

In connection with each of the papers read, it was resolved that the Executive Committee be asked to have them printed in the Minutes.

The Department then adjourned for the year, singing "God Save the Queen."

A. McMillan, *Secretary.*

TRAINING DEPARTMENT.

The Training Department of the Ontario Educational Association met in Mr. Kirkland's room of the Toronto Normal School, at 11.30 o'clock, on the forenoon of April 4th, 1893. Mr. Kirkland, the Chairman of the Department, presided. In the absence of Mr. Tilley, Mr. Rannie, of the Newmarket Model School, was appointed to act as Secretary *pro tem.*

Mr. Kirkland then read a paper on "Professional Training."

Messrs. Murray and Alexander were appointed a committee to arrange with the Public School Inspectors for a suitable time to carry on the work of the Training and Inspectors' Departments jointly, where the subjects on the programme are of common interest to both departments

Mr. Barber moved, and Mr. W. Houston seconded, That the Executive be requested to have Mr. Kirkland's paper printed in the Minutes. Carried.

Messrs. Barber, Rannie and Scott were appointed a committee to suggest how far the recommendations of Mr. Kirkland can be carried out.

On motion of Mr. Barber, seconded by Mr. Merrill, the Department adjourned at 12.30 o'clock, to meet to-morrow morning at 9.

WEDNESDAY, *April 5th*, 1893.

The Department met in Mr. Kirkland's room at 9.20 a.m., Mr. Kirkland presiding.

The Minutes of the previous meeting were read and confirmed.

Mr. Barber read the report of the Committee on Mr. Kirkland's paper, as follows :

To the Chairman and Members of the Training Department :

We, your committee, appointed to consider the paper of Mr. Kirkland, report as follows :

We recommend that committees be appointed as follows :

1. One to deal with questions suggested on pages 3, 4, 5 and 6.

2. One to deal with the professional reading of teachers, and also how such reading may be enforced.

3. One to deal with the subjects of the Public School programme as outlined on page 8.

We recommend the committees to be constituted as follows :

1. Principal Kirkland, Principal MacCabe, Model School Inspector Tilley, Principal McLellan, of School of Pedagogy, and Principal Barber, of Cobourg Model School.

2. Mr. Scott, Ottawa Normal School ; Mr. Powell, of Kincardine Model School ; Inspector Dearness, Inspector Mackintosh, and Mr. Rannie, Newmarket Model School.

3. Dr. Carlyle, W. Houston, Robt. Alexander, Inspector Carson, S. B. Sinclair.

Mr. Scott moved, and Mr. Bowerman seconded the motion, That the report be received and adopted.

The report was amended by adding to the third clause, "and three men to be appointed by the Public School Department."

The whole report as amended was then adopted.

Dr. MacCabe, of the Ottawa Normal School, then read a paper, "How shall the Normal School develop Practical Skill in Teaching."

The Department adjourned at 10 30, to meet at 9 o'clock to-morrow morning.

THURSDAY, *April 6th*, 1893.

Department met in the usual place. The President of the Department occupied the chair.

The Minutes of the previous meeting were read and confirmed.

Dr. MacCabe repeated the leading points of his paper, read yesterday. After the paper had been discussed by several members, Mr. Suddaby moved, and Mr. Rannie seconded, That the Executive

Committee of the General Association be asked to have Dr. MacCabe's paper printed in the Minutes. Motion carried.

"How to develop the power of observation among students of the Model School," also "How best to secure, on the part of Teachers-in-training, a desire for criticism," was discussed by several members.

The following officers were elected:

President, Thos. Kirkland, M.A., Principal Toronto Normal School.

Secretary, Wm. Rannie, Principal Newmarket Model School.

Director, Albert Barber, Principal Cobourg Model School.

Dr. McLellan, Principal of the Ontario School of Pedagogy, then addressed the Department on "The Function of Oral Reading in the Teaching of Literature."

A vote of thanks was tendered the Doctor for his able address, coupled with the request to have the paper published in some form, that it may be fully studied by the public.

Mr. A. A. Jordan moved, and Mr. Ward seconded, That in the opinion of this Department, the amount of History at the Entrance Examination should be limited to Canadian History, and English from the reign of Henry VIII. to the present time, and that a copy of this resolution, if carried, after being presented to the General Association, be forwarded to the Minister of Education. Motion carried.

Mr. A. Barber moved, and Mr. Campbell seconded, That there be a committee consisting of Mr. Kirkland, Dr. MacCabe, Dr. McLellan, Mr. W. Houston, Mr. S. B. Sinclair, Mr. Powell and Mr. Barber to enquire whether there should not be another option by which a First A standing may be reached by a course in Psychology, Logic and Professional Reading, said committee to bring the subject before the authorities with a view to getting such course on the curriculum.

Adjourned at 12 o'clock noon.

THOS. KIRKLAND, M.A.,
President.

W. RANNIE,
Secretary pro tem.

MINUTES OF MODEL SCHOOL SECTION.

Section met at 2 p.m. April 4th.

On account of the absence of Mr. Moran, Mr. Alexander, of Galt, was asked to take the chair.

The Section proceeded to discuss the recommendations made by the Public and High School Trustees in regard to Model Schools. The results were as follows:—

1. The Section was opposed to the reduction of number of schools, as in its opinion such an arrangement would only intensify the evil complained of, as it would throw a larger number of students into one session.

2. The number of students at each Model School should not exceed twenty-five.

3. The opinion of the Section was that while an ungraded school may be used with profit occasionally, yet it is not a necessary adjunct to a Model School.

4. The present qualifications of head masters are sufficient for the requirements of the schools; also the proposed qualifications would close against Public School men about the only door left to them.

5. That in view of the fact that the work done in the Model School is provincial in its character, and the counties receive at least ninety per cent. of the benefit, the legislative and county grants should be increased.

6. That there should be two terms of four months each, as in our opinion eight months is not too long to cover the work required of each student by the departmental regulations.

On motion the Section adjourned to meet to-morrow at 2 p.m.

WEDNESDAY, *April 5th*, 1893.

Section met at 2 p.m., Mr. Alexander in the chair.

Minutes of former meeting read and confirmed.

The Section having attended a union meeting of the Trustees', Inspectors' and Training Departments, at which the Hon. Minister of Education had given an address, the unanimous thanks of the Section were tendered to the Minister for his address.

On motion it was decided to meet with the Inspectors' Department at 3.30.

The Section proceeded to discuss the subjects of the programme.

1. What time and what amount of time should students spend outside of the Model School proper.

Introduced by Mr. Barber, of Cobourg. Spoken to by Mr. Bower-

man, of Napanee; Mr. Campbell, of St. Thomas; Mr. Jordan, of Meaford; Mr. Powell, of Kincardine; Mr. Allan, of Durham; Mr. Reid, of Forest, and Mr. Brown, of Whitby.

2. The best use to be made of the criticism hour. Introduced by Mr. Reid, of Forest, spoken to by Mr. Powell, of Kincardine.

At 3.35 p.m. the Inspectors came in, and further discussion of the subject was deferred.

Mr. Dearness, Public School Inspector of Middlesex, introduced the subject, "Examining and valuing the work of candidates in teaching at the Final Examination of the Model."

The subject was discussed fully.

After the Inspectors had withdrawn, the following were elected officers of the Section:—President, Mr. Campbell, St. Thomas; Secretary, A. Barber, Cobourg.

On motion, it was resolved to support the change in the Constitution so as to give this Section a Director.

The Section adjourned, to meet to-morrow at 2 p.m.

THURSDAY, *April 6th*, 2.30 *p.m.*

Mr. Alexander in the chair.

Minutes of former meeting read and confirmed.

Mr. Bowerman, of Napanee, moved, seconded by Mr. Brown, of Whitby, That the Chairman, Secretary, and Mr. Alexander be a committee to wait on the Minister of Education for the purpose of placing before him the views of the Section regarding the subject of Model Schools as outlined by the resolutions of the Trustees' Department.

The Section then continued the subject of yesterday, "Criticism Hour," after which Model School text-books were considered. All agreed that students come to the Model Schools with very scant information in many cases as to subject matter to be taught in the Public Schools.

The following books were commended for private reading:

Brooks' Normal Methods; Sully's Outlines of Psychology; Bain's Science of Education; Welch's Talks on Psychology; Youman's Culture Demanded by Modern Life; Fitch's Lectures on Teaching; McLellan's Applied Psychology; White's Pedagogy; Parker's Talks on Teaching; Dr. Graff's School Room Guide; Prince's Courses and Methods; Laurie's Language and Linguistic Studies; Murray's Psychology; Klemm's European Schools; Cowham's Physical Geography; Cowham's Oral Teaching; Cowham's School Organization; Johonnot's Principles and Practice of Teaching.

On motion, the Section adjourned.

INSPECTORS' DEPARTMENT.

TUESDAY, *April 4th.*

The Inspectors organized in the North Library at 10 a.m., Tuesday, 4th April, 1893. W. Atkin, Chairman; J. S. Deacon, Secretary, and F. L. Mitchell, Assistant-Secretary. After a short address by the President, it was resolved, on motion of D. Fotheringham and C. A. Barnes, That the Chairman name a committee to confer with a committee from the Training Department to arrange for a joint meeting on matters of common interest. The Chairman named Messrs. Mitchell and Fotheringham.

By permission of the Chair, Dr. McDiarmid lead a discussion *re* the issue and value of Third Class Certificates. He thought the certificates, non-professional and professional, should be issued by county Boards and be limited to the county where granted. On motion of Messrs. McIntosh and Barnes, the discussion was adjourned to the next day at 2 p.m.

J. Elgin Tom, P.S.I., South Huron, read a paper on the "Public School Leaving Examination." In discussion, Mr. Brebner thought Euclid and Algebra should be taught in the Public Schools, and that all schools should be paid for Public School Leaving work done. Mr. Moses—That the Public School Leaving should have a value in the High School course. A. Brown, Rev. Grant and Dr. Tilley—That last examination was too difficult. Messrs. Barnes, Reazin, McIntosh and J. C. Brown made valuable suggestions.

On motion of Messrs. Fotheringham and Knight, Messrs. Tom, Moses, Brebner and McDiarmid were appointed a committee to embody in a report the views advanced on this subject.

W. Carlyle, P.S.I., Oxford, made a strong plea for "Raising the Standard of the High School Entrance." He contended (*a*) that the present standard limits the usefulness of the Public Schools; (*b*) that pupils lose interest after passing the "Entrance"; (*c*) that many leave school earlier on account of the low standard, and (*d*) that a higher standard would improve the Public Schools and benefit the High Schools as well.

Mr. A. Brown thought that pupils were sent away from home before they were old enough to dispense with home influence. The discussion was continued by others.

On motion of Messrs. Grant and Barnes, the name of Mr. Carlyle was added to the Public School Leaving Committee.

On reassembling at 2 p.m., it was resolved on motion of Messrs. Deacon and Tilley, That those who introduce subjects be requested to make an abstract thereof for publication in the Minutes.

Mr. F. L. Mitchell presented the report of the Committee *re* joint

meetings with the Model School Department. It recommended that the papers of Mr. Summerby, Mr. Dearness and Mr. Barnes be read in the Training Department at 3 p.m. Wednesday.

J. H. Smith, P.S.I., Wentworth, introduced the subject of "Teaching English in Public Schools." He favored language teaching instead of formal grammar to first, second and third classes, and contended that technical grammar, when introduced early, created distaste for the entire subject. He objected to the definitions in present use, and said there had been too much attention to *terms*, when the object is *language*.

Mr. Platt thought that more language should be taught (as in deaf and dumb institutes) by the use of the vocabulary known to the pupils.

Dr. Tilley suggested the use of the *language* and less attention to its parts.

Mr. McIntosh defended the teaching of technical grammar, but not for the purpose of language. Pupils should be required to cultivate *sentence answering*.

Messrs. Carlyle, Craig, Knight, Tom, and (by invitation) Dr. Carlyle and Principal Kirkland continued the discussion.

Mr. Morgan being absent, Mr. Knight led a discussion on "What Constitutes an Inspection of a Rural Public School." He allows the teacher to conduct the junior classes and does senior work himself. Corrects the work himself to secure improvement in neatness. Suggests more attention to Mental Arithmetic. The subject was very profitably discussed by Messrs. Summerby, Moses, Tilley and J. J. Craig, each being questioned extensively on all the details of an efficient inspection.

Second Day.

Wednesday, *April 5th.*

At 9.30 a.m. the Minutes were read and approved.

Dr. Kelly and Mr. Knight criticised rather unfavorably the professional training of teachers at present as compared with that of former years.

At the suggestion of Mr. Mitchell, a conference with the Trustees' Department was arranged, to discuss Model School changes proposed by the latter. At said conference Dr. Kelly and Mr. Carlyle strongly opposed the changes. On returning to our department, it was moved by Messrs. McIntosh and Reazin, and unanimously resolved, That in the very decided opinion of the Inspectors' Department of the Ontario Educational Association, the adoption of any such sweeping changes in the Model School system as are recommended by the Trustees' Department, would be prejudicial to the educational interests of the country.

At 2 p.m. Mr. J. E. Tom presented the report *re* High School Entrance and Public School Leaving Examinations. On motion, the report was tabled for further consideration.

Mr. A. Brown, Public School Inspector, Dundas, resumed the discussion on the present management of the non-professional and its results. He favored its relegation to the County Boards. More attention would be given to the important subjects and a higher standard exacted in them. Candidates now pass by marks made in French and other subjects not taught in Public Schools. Mr. J. C. Brown considered that Reading was greatly neglected. Messrs. Tom and Brebner criticised the valuation of papers at the Departmental Examinations. Messrs. Tilley, Barnes, Knight, McIntosh, McDiarmid and others continued the discussion. All opposed the present management, and nearly all favored the limitation of Third Class Certificates to the County granting them.

Mr. J. Dearness, Public School Inspector, East Middlesex, discussed with the Model School Principals, "Examining and valuing the work of candidates in Teaching at the final examination of the Model." He showed several points of weakness as follows:—

1. That by the last report only 60 candidates failed out of 1,400.

2. That many who passed had failed in the essential subjects.

3. That because certificates are provincial, examiners are too lenient.

4. That the science option should be required of all candidates.

5. That certain literary works should be read for entrance to the Model.

The discussion was continued by Inspectors Carlyle, Kelly, McIntosh, N. W. Campbell, A. Campbell, and J. W. Garvin; also by Principals Campbell, Alexander, Suddaby, Merrill, Jordan, and Powell.

The chief points were (*a*) that the previous literary training of the Model School students is commonly found defective; (*b*) that the subject of Reading should be transferred from the non-professional to the professional examination; (*c*) that many who are weak at the examination prove successful in their schools.

After returning to our own room, it was resolved on motion of Messrs. Dearness and Johnston, That all candidates for entrance to the Model School should be required to take the Science option.

On motion of Mr. J. C. Brown and Rev. G. Grant, it was resolved, That the County Board and the Principal of the Model School should examine candidates for the Model School in reading, spelling, penmanship and mental arithmetic at the beginning of the term.

On motion of Messrs. J. J. Craig and Summerby, it was resolved,

That the Minister of Education be requested to devise some better scheme than the present for examining in reading, drawing and book-keeping.

The following officers were elected for the ensuing year: President, Arthur Brown, Morrisburg; Secretary, J. E. Tom, Goderich; Director, J. S. Deacon, Milton.

THIRD DAY.

THURSDAY, 6*th April*.

The Department resumed work at 9 a.m. The Minutes were read and approved.

Mr. W. Houston, M.A., Director of Institutes, presented a topical limit table for Public Schools. He suggested many changes, most of which were well received. The table will be printed with the Minutes of the O. E. A.

Mr. N. W. Campbell, P.S.I., South Grey, took up the subject of "Promotion Examinations." He gave his own experience, and then asked numerous questions of the Inspectors present, eliciting the following facts:

(*a*) That a majority have uniform promotions; (*b*) that a majority have *extended* limit tables; (*c*) that nearly all regard the limit on register cover as not sufficiently full or explicit; (*d*) that Inspectors, instead of teachers, prepare the papers; (*e*) that results are not perfectly reliable—much depends on the pupils' school record.

Mr. H. Reazin, P.S.I., West Victoria, read a paper on "The restriction of inexperienced teachers to the lowest grade of schools," as classified by the Public School Inspector. He suggested that Inspectors be authorized and required to classify their schools into three grades: (*a*) All graded schools: principal male, experienced, 2nd or 1st class; (*b*) the larger rural schools: principal either sex, experienced, any class; (*c*) the smaller rural schools: principal either sex, with or without experience, any class of certificate.

Dr. Curry, P.S.I., Haliburton, discussed "Evils of unequal taxation and the remedy sought." He showed that in his inspectorate, sections varied in value from $6,000 to $100,000.

On motion of Dr. Curry and Mr. Dearness, it was resolved, That Section 109 should be amended by making the grant for each additional department $100 instead of $50 as at present.

Mr. C. A. Barnes, M.A., P.S.I., Lambton, discussed "Additional inspection of Public Schools." He found no fault with the present officer, but the term was too short for him to see every school each year. He thought the County Inspector should have more to do with the Model School. The County Inspector might be permitted to begin his second round of visits on the 1st June; this would enable him to spare time for Model School work in short term.

The following report of committee *re* High School Entrance and Public School Leaving, was then considered :

1. That it is not in the interest of education to raise the standard of the High School Entrance to that prescribed for the Public School Leaving.

2. That both these Examinations should be retained.

3. That Euclid and Algebra be added to the subjects required at the Public School Leaving.

4. That complete selections, instead of extracts, be assigned in literature for the Public School Leaving, and the amount materially reduced.

5. That the High School regulations be so amended as to admit, without examination, the holders of Public School Leaving certificates to the second form of any High School or Collegiate Institute.

The report was adopted after the fifth clause had been struck out.

On motion of Messrs. Carlyle and Dearness, it was resolved, That pupils of rural schools should be eligible as candidates at the Public School Leaving without previously passing the High School Entrance, provided their application be sanctioned by their teacher and inspector.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOL LEAVING EXAMINATION.

An Address by J. E. Tom, I.P.S., West Huron, Goderich.

Mr. Chairman.—I am convinced that this examination will prove a great benefit to our Public Schools if a few changes are made in the subjects prescribed for examination. The mode of conducting the examination and the arrangements for reading the papers are satisfactory. The examination should include all the work taken in one of the Courses in Form I. of the High Schools. Many of the pupils who pass the High School Entrance return to the Public School for some time. The Public School Leaving Course will give these pupils a stimulus which was formerly wanting in our Public Schools. These pupils receive more individual attention in the Public Schools than can be given them in the High Schools, and are under the care of their parents at a time or age when they should not be away from home. The Fifth Form work can be more cheaply done in the Public School than in the High School where the pupils have to be taken from their homes to attend a High School. The presence of a good Fifth Class in a Public School stimulates the pupils of the lower forms, and also induces the teacher to continue his studies. The changes which are necessary to make the Public School Leaving Examination acceptable to Public School teachers and pupils are as follows :

1. The work in English Literature should be reduced to about one-half of that now prescribed.

2. Papers should be added in Algebra and Geometry.

3. Candidates should be allowed to take Agriculture *or* Temperance and Hygiene as a bonus, but should not have any marks added as a bonus unless a minimum of one-quarter is obtained.

If such changes were made, I believe it would be a gain to the High Schools as well as the Public Schools.

ADDITIONAL INSPECTION OF MODEL SCHOOLS.

An Address by C. A. Barnes, M.A., P.S.I., Lambton.

Mr. Chairman,—In a brief introduction of this subject, permit me to state that I have no objection to the present Inspector, for I have never met him in a Model School, but we need more Model School inspection or none. To my knowledge, at least one Model School has been inspected but once in three years. If inspection is worth anything to principal, assistants and students, it should be furnished every session. I would not advise the appointment of an additional Inspector. A better plan would be to distribute among the County Inspectors an equal expenditure of money as a remuneration for one or more weeks' inspection of each of the Model Schools. County Inspectors should have more to do with the Model Schools—not in opposition to the Principal, but in harmony and conjunction with him. They may be less efficient than the Provincial Inspector in Model School work, but it is not an extravagant statement to make that the Public School Inspectors could do as much valuable service in one or two weeks as the Provincial Inspector can do in three or four hours.

Inspection by an officer of the Department may be necessary. At the inception of Model Schools it was certainly needed, but it may have outlived its usefulness. Assuming that it is still a necessity, the time is probably too short for one official to reach all the schools annually. The only remedy that suggests itself to me is, to have the Model School open during the first half-year, and with our present arrangement of school year this does not seem feasible. Failing to secure a longer term, the Minister of Education might appoint three or four Inspectors to take a few schools each, and thus relieve the Model School Inspector sufficiently to enable him to complete his work each year.

I repeat, however, that the County Inspector should have more to do with the Model School. The Fall term is nearly all required for his Public School work. If the Model School term were in the first half-year, the element of time would no longer be an obstacle. If no change of term can be effected, I would suggest that Inspectors be allowed to begin their second visit to the Public Schools in June, and finish after midsummer.

MINUTES OF KINDERGARTEN DEPARTMENT.

April 5th, 1893.

Meeting opened at 10 a.m., Mrs. Hughes in the chair. Sixty present. Roll of officers then called. Those present, Mrs. Hughes, Mrs. Newcomb, Miss Bowditch.

Minutes of previous meeting were then read and approved.

"Training of Assistants" was discussed by Mrs. Hughes, Miss Laidlaw, Miss Young, Mrs. Mackenzie, Mrs. Newcomb and Mr. Carson, P.S.I., of London.

Moved by Mrs. Newcomb, seconded by Miss Russell, That a vote of thanks be tendered Mr. Carson. Carried.

"Round Table" discussion. "Representative Drawing and its Relation to the Froebel Drawing."

Meeting adjourned.

April 6th, 1893.

Meeting opened at 9.30, Mrs. Hughes in the chair. Fifty present. Roll of officers called.

Minutes of last meeting read and approved.

"Symposium—Nature Study in the Kindergarten." Papers were read by Misses Young, of Aylmer; Lawson, Heakes and Russell, of Toronto, and Misses Laidlaw, MacKenzie, Bolton, Duff, Smith, Currie, Patterson and Mrs. Newcomb took part in discussion.

(*a*) What should be taught? (*b*) What are its advantages? (*c*) How can it be introduced?

Mrs. Newcomb then read a paper on "Vital Principles."

Mrs. Hughes then suggested that a Reading Circle be formed for Kindergartens.

Moved by Miss Mackenzie, seconded by Miss L. Bolton, That a Reading Circle be formed. Carried.

A committee was then formed in connection, consisting of Mrs. Newcomb, Miss Lawson, Miss Laidlaw, Miss Mackenzie, Miss Young, Miss Bolton, Miss Adair.

Following officers elected for ensuing year: President, Miss Laidlaw, London; Secretary, Miss Bowditch, Hamilton; Director, Mrs. Newcomb, Hamilton.

Meeting adjourned at 12.

A meeting of Reading Circle Committee was called, Mrs. Newcomb, Convener; Miss Lawson, Toronto, Secretary.

It was decided to make Toronto, Hamilton, London and Ottawa library centres, from which outside Kindergartens may draw books on becoming members.

F. BOWDITCH,
Secretary.

MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION.

SEVENTH MEETING—*April 4th, 1893.*

The President, Mr. G. A. Chase, took the chair at 10 a.m.

After routine business, certain proposed changes in the constitution of the Ontario Educational Association affecting the relations of the Modern Language Association to that body, were discussed, and the President and Secretary were appointed as a committee to meet with committees from other associations with regard to effecting these changes.

Messrs. A. Stevenson and A. W. Wright were appointed auditors.

The following papers were read:—"The Association Principle in Language," Mr. G. A. Chase, and "Modern Language Text-reading from a Literary Standpoint," Mr. J. N. Dales.

2 p.m.

On motion, it was agreed to pay into the Ontario Educational Association the sum of fifty cents for each member of the Modern Language Association paying the annual fee of one dollar.

The following papers were read:—"Local Peculiarities in every-day Language," Mr. E. A. Hardy; "The Year among the French and German Reviews," Messrs. J. H. Cameron and J. H. Needler.

April 5th, 2 p.m.

The following papers were read:—"Shakespeare and Malherbe—a Contrast," Prof. J. Squair.

The auditor's report, showing a cash balance of $85.25, was adopted.

Discussion on a motion to amend the Constitution, adjourned from the previous year, was resumed, and by unanimous vote it was decided to amend Article IV. of the Constitution by omitting the words, "an Honorary President."

The following officers were elected:—President, W. J. Alexander, Ph.D.; Vice-President, J. Squair, B.A.; Secretary-Treasurer, W. H.

Fraser, B.A.; Councillors: G. A. Chase, B.A., L. E. Horning, Ph.D., M. F. Libby, M.A., Miss H. Charles, B.A., Geo. E. Shaw, B.A., J. N. Dales, B.A., J. M. Levan, B.A., W. H. VanderSmissen, M.A.

April 6th, 2 p.m.

A discussion took place, introduced by Prof. Alexander, on the Modern Language Curriculum at Matriculation.

On motion, the Executive was instructed to prepare a circular to be submitted to the teachers in order to obtain their views on the details of a Modern Language curriculum for matriculation.

Messrs. Fraser, Chase, Gibbard and Stevenson were appointed representatives of the Association on the Committee of the College and High School Department appointed to consider the matriculation curriculum.

On motion, the Association records its opinion that no specialist's certificate should be granted until after at least two years' successful teaching, and that the first class C certificate should no longer be regarded as sufficient qualification for High School assistants now regularly qualified.

The following paper was read:—"History of English Literature in Schools," Mr. W. Sykes.

On motion, it was agreed that the Executive decide what papers of those read before the Association be published.

FINANCIAL STATEMENT OF THE ONTARIO EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, 1892-93.

Receipts.

Balance from last Statement	$247 61
Members' fees	63 00
Ontario Government, annual grant	200 00
Sale of Minutes	80 70
Advertisements in Minutes	17 00
Interest on deposit	7 85
	$616 16

Expenditure.

Expenses of Convention	31 00
Executive Committee (1891), railway fare	17 50
Printing circulars, programmes, etc	45 25
Board of Directors, railway fare	37 45
Printing Minutes	155 60
Postage, stationery, cyclostyle work	14 55
Salary of Secretary	50 00
" Treasurer	10 00
Balance on hand	254 81
	$616 16

Robert W. Doan,
Secretary.

W. J. Hendry,
Treasurer.

Toronto, April 4th, 1893.

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J. HENDRY,
Treasurer.

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

"THE UNIFICATION OF THE ONTARIO EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM."

A year ago to-night we of the Teachers' Association were urged with earnest and eloquent words to close our broken ranks and form a more cosmopolitan, a more thoroughly corelated, a more helpful organization than the previous thirty-one years of the Association's life had brought to us. The necessity of such a change seemed to be universally admitted, and this sentiment so quickly crystallized that at the conclusion of our meeting we found ourselves with an entirely new Constitution, designed to embrace every educational element in the Province.

During the year the Trustees' Association has affiliated with us. The various University Associations—Modern Language, Classical, Mathematical and Natural Science—have signified their intention to do so. They have already done so in reality by holding their meetings at a common time and place, and I earnestly hope that before the conclusion of this session we may have them indissolubly joined with us in a way which will not interfere with their original plans, and yet which will be entirely satisfactory to the other departments, all of which have been organized and officered according to the new constitution.

I congratulate the Association upon the consummation of its unity thus far, and more especially upon the addition to its ranks of the Trustees' Association. In addition to the many other advantages which will accrue from the union, the members of that Association will bring to us marked business capacity, for which teachers are not too famous, a wider and more practical insight into the great problem of education as it really is when viewed from the parent's standpoint (a most essential requirement in its proper solution), and what will be of more priceless value than either, that spirit of self-sacrifice which must ever characterize those who, without any hope of financial reward, are willing to bring all under contribution for the educational upbuilding of their country, knowing that in very many cases the task is sure to prove a thankless one.

To the members of the Trustees' Association we extend our most hearty and fraternal greeting. We hope you will be able to carry on your deliberations as independently and successfully as when alone, and that in union with us you may find reciprocal advantages in return for those to which I have referred.

And let me say to all who have honored us with your presence, and especially to any who have not previously been with us, that we

extend to you a most cordial welcome. We hope you will enjoy the meetings, and make yourself an active member. This Association is in a tentative condition. It requires your sympathy and help. Any aid which you can give it by speaking or by keeping silence will be thankfully received and heartily appreciated by all who have the best interests of the Association at heart and desire to see it approach the ideal for which it was formed.

We must remember that this is no longer a purely Teachers' Association. It is organized upon entirely new lines. I take it that all are equal here, that there are no vested *a priori* rights to spring up upon the occasion of subsequent experience to mar the harmony of our meetings.

Like all new machinery, there will probably be some friction at first, and there may require to be some recasting. I am certain, however, that all necessary changes can be easily effected if we constantly bear in mind, as I am sure we shall, the higher purposes for which the machinery is constructed, and without which it is utterly worthless.

Let us ever keep in view our possibilities and our duties. We are not a labor organization, except in so far as employer and employee have a common cause. We exist for other and higher aims.

1st. To impress upon ourselves, the country, and our legislators the great truth that every child born into this world possesses the inalienable right of the advantages of a free, thorough, liberal education.

2nd. To point out ways and means of perfecting and improving our present educational system and methods.

3rd. To render more universal the knowledge of the fact that the salvation of our schools and universities lies at the portals of the teaching profession, and to see that in every case the best available men and women are chosen, especially to positions of prominence and leadership.

4th. And lastly to take a wider outlook and seek for truth along lines not purely pedagogical.

It is essential to the best interests of all that costly experimenting should be reduced to a minimum, and this can be done only by securing a consensus of the best educational thought and experience in the consideration of educational questions. The Minister of Education and his advisers, no matter how able and enthusiastic, must (as we have often heard them say from this platform), depend very largely upon the opinions of those who are immediately connected with the various lines of educational work. I ask you what better means could be devised for such a purpose than those furnished by such an organization as this.

The Council of Public Instruction did grand service in the cause of education, but it never possessed the power to lay its hand upon the educational pulse of the country as this Association can. I am of the opinion that if our Association were more strictly representative in its voting capacity, our influence would be extended, but con-

stituted as we are, a resolution resulting from the careful consideration of the several departments of this Association, and backed up by a large and representative vote should, and undoubtedly would, receive recognition at the hands of our Provincial Legislators.

I have thought that it might not be inappropriate on such an occasion of fusion as the present to refer briefly to the unification of the Ontario Educational System, the system of which this Association, if true to itself, is destined at no very distant date to become, in a sense, the Educational Parliament.

Every student of Political Economy is familiar with the illustration of the formation of capital which traces the growth of a community from poverty to affluence. At first a number of half-clad barbarians upon the seashore eke out a precarious livelihood, each trusting to the scant supply of fish which, by his own individual, unaided effort, without boat, or bait, or tackle, or net he is able to catch.

Through various stages of development, invention, education, growth, these people rise until at length we find a civilized community. There are now but a few fishermen, and these are specialists with all that that implies. Poverty, hunger and nakedness have given place to wealth and comfort. New interests, new desires, new impulses have arisen, new possibilities of pleasure. Above all, the individual has been submerged in the general good. The principle of vicariousness is more and more acknowledged, and all realize that no man liveth to himself, that each cannot exist without the other.

This organic tendency is the distinctive feature of civilization, and this is essentially an age of organization, co-operation, socialism.

We pay the railway superintendent, who sits in his cosy office, many times the salary of the brakeman, who lives in constant peril to life and limb, and justly so. It is a question of muscle *versus* brain; and there is, and should be, an ever-increasing appreciation of those who, by inventive or organizing power, can lessen labor. The self-binder does the work of a hundred sickles of fifty years ago, and the time will quickly come when the weary mother of to-day will give place to one who will gaze on restfully and happily while the baby laughs joyously under the exhilarating effects of the patent, combined, adjustable, baby-nursing and dishwashing machine.

This spirit of co-operation of unification is laying its magic wand upon every department of endeavor, and more particularly, it is destined to be felt in the life of the school.

The word apperception, so common in the Kantian philosophy, is a recent importation into the realm of pedagogical psychology. We are only beginning to realize the importance of the synthetizing and relating functions of mind, a utilizing of former experience at every step, a clear fusion of the new idea with the previous one, a clear association of related ideas in reception, in order that in retention, reproduction and recognition the great principle of association may make memory easy. With the progress of more natural methods,

education will be more generally conceived to consist in a growth from the individual to the community plane.

Our schoolroom work is highly specialized, and when we step out of the schoolroom and view the system in its entirety, we cannot fail to be impressed with the fact that the principle has been at work everywhere, until specialization may be written upon the whole structure from base to turret stone.

What a complicated system is this! The Kindergarten, the Public School, the High School, the University, with five years of home school at one end, and fifty years of world school at the other. Then there are the Training Schools, and Separate Schools, and Art Schools, and Private Schools, and all the rest of it. What a wise people we must be! Wise to understand the system, even. One thing is certain, we shall work more intelligently, more satisfactorily if we do understand it.

I hold that it is as necessary to have a copy of the School Law and Regulations in every house, as to have a copy of the Church Catechism or Discipline.

Someone may object that the law changes so often that it would be difficult to keep pace. Even so, but the Discipline and Catechism also change, and none too often. That they change simply proves as someone says, that "the world do move." If it stop the ice will soon be at our hearts. Perfection consists not in a having and a resting, but in a growing and a becoming.

It is not my purpose to-night to refer to the history of the processes by which this organism has been evolved, but I cannot pass without a word of reference to its great founder.

After viewing the many excellencies of the schools of the United States and of the Old World, and being charmed with the art tributes to the illustrious dead, in the Louvre and Westminster, I came home again, and with thankful heart and honest pride, gazed reverently upon the statue of the statesman and educator who, taking all that he conceived to be best in those systems, adapted it to the requirements of this young country, filled it with the best Canadian thought of the day, and devoted every energy of his being to the development of an educational system which, ere he left it, compelled the attention and the admiration of the world. Canada will ever enroll upon her list of pioneer heroes the name of Egerton Ryerson.

It is not my intention, I say, to attempt any description of the ways and means by which this great system has reached its present status. That has already been done by those better qualified than I. I shall simply ask you very briefly to enquire what are the advantages and what the dangers of such organization.

We shall find that here as elsewhere union has brought strength. Co-operation in education economizes time and money, admits of specialization, affords and insists upon a properly developed sequence of work, holds all in proper relation, presents opportunity to test methods and investigate underlying principles without costly experi-

ment, gives a correct report of progress, opens up a hundred avenues for mutual sympathy and helpfulness, and in countless other ways aids in imparting a charm and force which could not possibly have been gained under conditions of isolation and unrelation. The advances made in education in Ontario through this unifying principle cannot be too highly prized, and the education of to-day will be found to be, when taken in its entirety, almost as much in advance of that of the pioneer days as the later condition of the community, in the example I quoted of the production of capital, is superior to that of their original condition. While we appreciate these benefits, and have no desire to see the clock turned back, little good can be accomplished by forming ourselves into a mutual admiration society. Every phase of development, however beautiful and proper in its place, must vanish and perish whenever a higher phase is to appear, and we shall always do well to consider the dangers which threaten our present organism, and the ways and means of averting them and of rising to higher things.

It must be admitted, speaking generally, that any highly organized system, no matter how intelligently articulated, must, on account of its unification, lose something of its character of independency, individualness and contingency. This is not always an evil, for there are individual tendencies which are better submerged, but there is a danger that under our present system the better type of spontaneity and individuality may also be checked.

There is possibly the most danger of this in cities and large towns, where in High and Public School teachers remain in the same position and teach the same limit until they fear that they can teach nothing else, and where possibly they are compelled to teach by cut-and-dried methods superimposed by text-book or supervisor, their only duty being conceived to be to crowd pupils through the examination mill. Under such conditions, there is always danger that teachers will be seized with a pedagogical cramp, and that pupils will proceed from form to form with manacled feet and lock-step until they become part and parcel of the lifeless machine—wooden men and women.

Such a condition of affairs always arises from the abuse of system in the hands of those who fall down and worship the machine. I am not sure that such conditions obtain to any great extent in our system, but the danger always exists, and we do well to investigate preventative measures and remedies. Let me suggest a few:

1st. The parent must, I think, be recognized as a most important element in the organization. The best cure that has been found for truancy and the countless other ills that the genus small boy is heir to, is to place said small boy "on a string," metaphorically speaking, with the teacher at one end and the parent at the other, and to make the string so short that there is not room for even the truant officer.

There is something radically wrong with a schoolroom where the parent is not at all times a welcome guest, and to say the very least

of it, the parent who has never been in the schoolroom where his child is educated and has never met the teacher to whom he has entrusted his child's welfare, is taking risks which he would not take with any other animal that he valued highly.

It will be only when parents become interested in school by practical, immediate observation, that the evils of our present system will be done away with.

2nd. More attention will then be paid to the character of the schoolroom work, and the prevalent error that "anyone can teach" must entirely disappear. All have not yet realized for themselves that education is a science, that its laws are not conventions to be thoughtlessly fixed by men and women who happen to be in power, but that there is a touchstone for every method, always reliable, always at hand, but revealing itself only to those who patiently, earnestly, diligently, and reverently seek for it. It is this: Is this method the best adapted to the processes of the mind of this child, to the law of his unfolding, to the inner and outer law of Divine unity?

Ever and anon we hear the cry, "training and certificates count for nothing." The only answer to such a cry is for parents to investigate thoroughly for themselves; for in spite of all the apologies for quacks, the fact remains that, other things being equal, an enlightened public sentiment is always on the side of the man or woman who has taken a long, careful, and thorough training.

I see no more reason, nor half as much reason, for admitting untrained or half-trained teachers to mould the mind, and body, and soul of the people of this country, than untrained lawyers, or physicians, or clergymen.

It is the glory of our system that no one can teach in our schools without a fair *quantum* of both professional and non-professional training. This glory will be enhanced by every advance in the efficiency of the training demanded.

The teaching will then become more rational, more passive and following, less prescriptive, categorical, and interfering, as Froebel would say.

The child's self-activity will be aroused, and all his powers trained, and classes will be made sufficiently small to allow of study of the individuality of pupils. Examinations will not be discarded, there will be a perpetual examination, a constant observation of growth; but the methods of examining will, I think, be materially modified, and pupils will be promoted from grade to grade when they are ready to go on, and will not be compelled to wait until the whole class are ready. All the boy will be sent to school, and we shall not find mere children entering our universities without any knowledge of practical life or preformed concepts to enable them to grasp the full benefits of a university course.

3rd. The importance of leadership will be more fully recognized, and the very best men will be selected regardless of party or creed, or any other consideration.

I know of a city, not in Canada, where the first and sometimes the only question asked, when a school superintendent is to be appointed is, What are his politics?

Now, I know of nothing else so suicidal to an educational system as that.

The Spartans had an old adage that 'a thousand stags with a lion for a leader were better than a thousand lions with a stag for a leader."

This sentiment is a sound one in regard to supervision. In the series of letters which Dr. Rice has written to the *Forum* during the past year, and which have attracted so much attention, this principle is thoroughly demonstrated, that supervision is absolutely necessary, and that it must be of the best kind, for it must never be forgotten that poor supervision may be worse than no supervision at all.

A prominent educational journal very pertinently says, "Dr. Rice has pointed out the necessity of supervision, but the question naturally arises, Who is to supervise the supervisors?" Perhaps this question can in a measure be answered by appointing only those who are competent to supervise themselves, and who have shown by past record that they do this. At the outset the question will be asked, Has this man broad, liberal scholarship and culture, thorough training, and especial natural aptitude? Has he had a sufficiently wide experience to give him an all-sided view of education, and to prevent him from getting his department so close to his eyes as to obscure all others? Is he a man of honor, and of conscience? Does he possess magnetism and sympathy? Is he able and willing to criticise and advise, and can he do so in a kind and helpful spirit?

Ontario has always been specially favored with a large number of such men in her highest educational positions. She has them to-day, and their places will be more difficult to fill than many think. Such men are worth their weight in gold many times over, and they should be given power commensurate with their responsibility. It may not be out of place to remark also that they should not be allowed to starve to death.

And now I shall close by a brief reference to what to my mind is the greatest advantage to be derived from all this organization. I cannot do better than quote the words of Dr. Fitch, who says: "There is a sphere in our life in which it is desirable to cultivate independence and freedom, and there is another in which it is essential that we should learn to part with that independence for the sake of attaining some end which is desirable for others as well as for ourselves. In the development of individual character and intelligence, the more room we can leave for spontaneous action the better, but when we are members of a community, the healthy corporate life of that community requires of us an abnegation of self. There are times in life for asserting our individuality, and times for defacing it, and a good school should provide means whereby it may be seen when and how we may do both."

Nothing can take the place of this spirit of sympathy and self-sacrifice. In the class-room where the pupils have learned the great fact that the highest object of all education is to gain power to help others, and where the teacher lives so near the pupils that she can hear their hearts beat, insubordination and other evils find no resting place. How quickly you can detect such a sympathetic spirit in the very atmosphere of the room when you enter it. Many of us love to linger upon the memory of such schoolrooms, where, as Curtis says in "Prue and I," "The teacher was to us a deep well, and we looked in some days and saw the stars." Fortunately, such teachers are not confined to early childhood days. There are those here to-night who cannot stand in our university halls, without hearing the music of the voices which they have "loved long since and lost awhile," without catching once again an inspiration from a McColl, a Nelles, a Wilson or a George Paxton Young.

Neither should such a spirit be confined to the classroom; it should pervade the entire system. It is of vast consequence that all educational workers should feel that their work is one, and should be knit together as the heart of one man by bonds of sympathy, of mutual appreciation of each other's work, and of a spirit of hearty co operation for the same great end. Such an alliance imparts zest and pride to all, and strength and beauty to the whole educational system of a country. It dissipates any spirit of cannibalism which might creep in unbidden as the result of high organization, and makes the Teachers' Convention, the school journal and the countless other possibilities opened up by co-operation inspiring and uplifting forces. It leads us to examine the existing conditions until a knowledge of things related becomes a knowledge of the relations of things. It furnishes boiler power for the machinery of our organization and imparts vitality to all. Through such an influence and only through it shall we realize the becoming of the perfect ideal of a great, complete and harmonious educational system.

THE KINDERGARTEN A NATURAL METHOD OF EDUCATION.

MRS. ADA MAREAN HUGHES.

By a natural method of education is meant a method which supplies the best conditions for a natural, healthy development of the complete being during the period to which it is adapted.

To establish the claim of the Kindergarten to be a natural method, we must define the period for which it is intended; the needs of the child during that period; the natural or instructive means by which impulse makes him endeavor to supply those needs; and lastly, the law which governs such natural activities when they end in definite results.

Then having pictured the child and his natural activities, show how the special methods of the Kindergarten meet the needs of the being by natural means; or in other words, show how the particular activities of the Kindergarten method assist the instinctive desires to find a legitimate and productive fulfilment.

The period for which the Kindergarten is intended is that of early childhood, beginning about the third year and covering three or four years. It has been figuratively termed the bridge from the nursery to the school, having close relation to both, but unlike either, supplying the hitherto missing link in a logical education.

Every mother, however self-sacrificing in her devotion to her children, finds that she cannot make her companionship sufficient for the complete satisfaction of her little ones after the first two or three years of babyhood.

While she rejoices to see the little limbs growing strong and the mind developing in independent power, she knows that even the loving sight of her smile cannot wholly satisfy the longing of the heart of the living being for recognition and companionship. His beautiful strength is the sign that he no longer depends upon her love and strength alone. He slips from her knee out into the world of activity, only coming back for rest and shelter when hurt or weary. These are precious harvest hours for the mother.

Full of growing life himself, he is drawn by the attraction of the varied life of nature and social contact, a life which he instinctively longs to know, and through which by participation he can realize the potential life within himself. If shut away from such companionship he chafes and frets away the sweetness of his nature, when he should be growing stronger and more consciously joyful.

Mature life and the attention of grown-up people gives him too much in response to his demand for recognition, and not of right quality. He develops into a moral dyspeptic, surfeited with unnatural

recognition, and overfed with service when he should be giving instead of receiving.

What his nature wants, what he was created to do, is to struggle with life on his own plane, win victories, not have them given to him.

He can only justly measure and estimate his strength by what he can win for himself. There is a natural law within him which demands natural conditions if there is to be natural growth.

Ceaseless activity is the instructive condition of his being. What a working force one child represents! We realize what it is by contrast when the feet, hands and voices of the little ones have grown quiet in sleep. How dull seems the quiet of the childless home.

"Forever in mischief," says the despairing mother who loves order, and often wearies in the perpetual effort to maintain it with the little army of disorganizers at work all about her. But she repents of her reproofs when she looks at the sturdy boys and happy girls who claim her sympathy in their play. There is no malice in the motive which prompts their action. It is an army of living forces working for self-organization and discipline. There is little or no conscious, defined purpose, only the pushing, urging of new life, springing into being, manifesting itself in the instinctive desire to investigate the material world, which is full of unknown forces whose mysteries ever beckon onward. It is the manifest destiny of every child born into the world to conquer all that lies in his pathway, and to grow through the struggle. It is the price he must pay for his freedom.

The strength for the greater struggle which always lies just before, must have been developed by the struggle for victory in overcoming the difficulty just past. If helped over the present difficulty, or brought prematurely face to face with problems beyond his power to perceive naturally, the inevitable result is undeveloped power and weakened forces for the coming struggle. It is sowing seed for a future harvest of incompetency, consequent discontent and hopeless failure and degeneration. The world is full of such harvests; we find them in every rank of society. Who is responsible for these failures? Not the Creator; not the individual wholly, but parents and teachers who have failed to recognize the law of growth in the human being, and have either bound upon these living, throbbing hearts burdens too heavy to be borne with their declaration of the law and its penalties, or, on the other hand, being more tender than wise, more selfish than truly self-sacrificing, have lifted them over hard places, filled them with their own wisdom, formulated their problems before they discovered them. And yet they wonder why these children, so many of them at least, are nauseated with learning long before the school period is past.

Definite result is the lawful complement of activity, and whether the struggle be long or short, any effort undertaken should never cease or purpose be abandoned until victory is secured. It is the law of complete growth and cannot be disregarded without loss of

power. An effort abandoned through weakness means loss to the character of the strength expended, and of the strength a victory would have given. We do well to consider this when we are inclined to urge on the already too active mind. The mistake often leads to fatal results.

Can you see clearly the child universal of my picture, living, growing, restless, reaching out to other life that he may learn what the power of life is within himself; born to struggle, to fight, to climb through his victories to the height of individual freedom, destined to conquer nature through bringing its blind forces under the control of his reason; to stand with his equals, to uplift his weaker fellowman through the strength he has acquired, and finally to see God through the development of the divine strength within himself through his own living. Do you realize that every restless moment bears a vital relation to the whole life and character? Does it not make your heart beat warm towards each little one, as you think what great things are beginning now in each soul and character in this spring-time of life? It is the seed-time; there will be a future time of harvest and gathering in, but no more time for preparation of soil or sowing of seed. Truly these are the precious years. Look long enough at the picture of the child universal, and you will love it.

Look long and steadily enough and you will discover that it is the picture of each individual child you know. However distorted, misshapen and dimmed it may be by unnatural conditions, out of your love for the sweet ideal will grow a warmer, truer feeling for the individual child whom it is sometimes hard to love. In the eastern horizon of each child life, however degraded, there shines a star which, if you follow reverently and faithfully, will lead you to the birthplace of the Divine in his nature, in even the most degraded surroundings. The universal child nature is God's image.

It is still sometimes claimed that the Kindergarten is a mistake; that the child gets most complete satisfaction and grows most naturally when left in undisturbed contact with nature; that any attempt to organize his activities in this early period by any educational methods is injurious, because it fetters his spontaneity. There is a justice in this claim that we do well to consider. The spontaneity of a child's action is its most sacred, vital element, and we admit the one most often disregarded and sinned against by even conscientious teachers and Kindergartens. We are so warped and blinded by arbitrary ideals of education, both in the home and school, which have held us so long and which are now only slowly passing away—ideals which made facts and truths in the abstract the object of our worship, and which estimated the value of the mind of the child by its cubical contents as a receptacle for the precious truth.

The ideal education was the one that could stretch the mind to make it contain the greatest quantity of information like a rubber balloon. If it burst and collapsed it was a matter of wonder that

Providence saw fit to let such a force go out of the world. Growth was a secondary matter little sought after.

If life was as simple now as in primitive times, the child would be safe at least with nature as his only teacher, but each generation would make little progress beyond the previous one. A natural system of education helps the individual to run over the battle-fields already won by others' insight, without fatigue of original personal effort and struggle, and time is saved for new discoveries and inventions.

But we are not in primitive times. Our children are confronted at the outset with complex relations of life. The crowding of humanity together in cities has driven nature far from most of us. Conventionality has superseded naturalness. Moral action depends more upon public sentiment than upon the compelling force of ideals, clearly speaking through the conscience of the individual. Natural instincts have hardly a chance to develop without bias from foreign influence. The excess of human companionship crowds pure nature out, and gives it no opportunity to whisper its secrets into the ear of childhood.

Society is a hot-bed in which nervous force is developed to the utter disregard of physical and moral force. Its fruits are premature development with corresponding weakness and shortened tender life. In the face of this complexity and unnaturalness, shall we not diligently look for and joyfully receive a remedy for this evil in a natural system of education?

Some, through lack of insight, see in the play of childhood nothing suggestive of law or helpful in growth, and, therefore, condemn the Kindergarten as a useless extravagance, an expensive appendage to the Educational System, a fad imposed upon the much enduring public by sentimental men and women. Such display of thoughtless ignorance serves only to reveal the character of the slave to unreasoning prejudice, who exalts his own bondage by his empty criticism of others' insight and freedom. Such retard, but cannot stop the progress of true thought.

Watch the spontaneous play of the little ones for yourself, and see if you cannot discover in its universal characteristics some law which governs it more or less intelligently.

There is always the social instinct apparent. Everything else is forgotten in the joy of companionship.

Then see the effort to organize the physical action into the form of thought through the dramatic element. Many a game, though crude in form, which embodies the thought of organized unity and process, is found in widely separated localities, and has been handed down from one generation to another, keeping always the central thought, though differing a little in detail according to surroundings.

Variety of action develops individuality. Self-consciousness is forgotten, because the parts to be played are simple and clearly under-

stood, within easy accomplishment because only crude representation is attempted. What energy is displayed with any conscious effort! What concentration of the whole force of being we see in the really playing child!

From the mother's knee to the school period the child's natural occupation is play. Play is legitimate. Nay, more! play is imperative during this period. The child who does not play does not grow harmoniously.

During these three or four years the instinctive action without purpose gradually crystallizes into conscious effect to accomplish a defined result. It follows logically that a natural method must shape itself to this natural process, instead of shaping the life of the child to an arbitrarily planned method. It is only by accepting this condition without fear or prejudice that we can truly interpret Froebel's thought and practise his method.

It is possible to be eminently philosophical from a literary point of view, and yet fail utterly to be practically a sympathetic Kindergartner, or to guide others into being such. One may grasp the logical movement of mind development, and never see the specially sacred importance or the peculiar conditions of this most impressionable period of early childhood.

Many misconceptions of the Kindergarten idea, and most of the misapplication of the method may be attributed to the failure to understand the nature and value of play at this special period. The old system of teaching facts to the child, rather than developing his inborn strength, and trusting to the open sense and the quickened soul to take the divinely offered food, as the soul hungers for it, clings, and clings, and clings to us like the grave clothes of long-buried freedom, the freedom of a human soul.

Play is the means nature provides for strengthening the body, enlightening the mind and awakening the sympathy of the soul through feeling.

Two, three, four years to get strong in. Is it too much for a lifetime of struggle, of climbing? How dare we steal from these precious years their freedom of movement, of feeling, by unnatural restraints and meaningless discipline. Strength underlies everything. Disciplined and controlled, it is ability, power, willingness, desire. Where there is strength to know facts, and the awakened sense to create desire, they will be known; where there is real hunger, there will be assimilation of food; where the appetite is lacking the giving of food only nauseates or produces nightmare, helplessness and distress.

All activity may not be developing. This is especially true of those children who, by heredity and lack of contact with nature, have over-developed nerve force, or undeveloped feeling. Such children are many. They need help to steady their activity, to bring it under their control and to develop conscious will power. The healthy normal child delights to play logically. The Kindergarten is based in the nature of such a model.

The child is a social being by nature and is ceaselessly active. The Kindergarten is an ideal society in which equality and ample scope for individual effort is the main-spring of its being.

All beings naturally, children in their play, as well as adults in social and political life, group themselves around someone as a leader. The best organizer is the acknowledged leader.

The Kindergartner is an organizer, and therefore the willingly accepted leader or guide. The motto of the Kindergarten is, "Come, let us with our children live." Its great general principle is to preserve the spontaneity, the free action of each individual, that the fountain of life in each soul may flow in its natural course unchecked, save by the resistance which all material offers to investigation, that is enough to produce the flow upward.

The material and tools used are such as children naturally occupy themselves with, only suited to their untrained ability. The experiments or activities are such as all children naturally try, viz., to build, to weave, to cut, to unite, to mould, to represent. The material by its form and divisions invite him to the path of logical movement through organization and suggestiveness. At his touch it falls into line, instead of into chaos, by the guidance of a sympathy which is wise and simple; with the wisdom and simplicity of true greatness, simple results follow the process of experiment, and become apparent to the child through the sympathetic recognition of the Kindergartner. The creative being sees his own dim thought in the creation before him. It is himself reflected back to his own consciousness. How he grows as he looks! How he feels his hitherto unconscious strength! What is a book written in unknown characters, signs of unknown thought, in comparison to this revelation in known character of his own power! You have but to recall some successful effort of your own childhood, or some independent discovery, to realize how full of life the world is to him when he sees his own creation. You have, too, but to recall how the failure of some grown-up person, teacher or friend, to enter into your joy with word or look of appreciation and sympathy, checked your gladness and clouded your skies with a doubt of your own power, to realize what a mighty influence a true woman is to a child in the Kindergarten. All the occupation work of the Kindergarten is on the side of productive effort. The creative nature is stimulated not by tasks set for accomplishment, but by the results which follow free effort. The Kindergartner supplies suitable material and steadies the simple movements of the child, appreciates the results however small, and nature does the rest. There is nothing demanded of the intellect apart from the feeling and through the active body. The variety of movements and the simplicity keeps the brain in healthy action of control, as many small sets of muscles are exercised and none are taxed. It is as natural for a child to learn color, form, relation, harmony and all the fundamental qualities of material as it is to learn to know its mother, and in the same way by sense percep-

tion through actual contact. Of the natural relation of the Kindergarten to the school, there is and will be for another generation much misunderstanding.

When it is claimed, and justly, too, that by the establishment of Kindergartens, at least two years of the usual school period can be saved, the inference often is that by doing things in such a pleasant way (and the pleasant way is supposed to be the natural part of the Kindergarten), the child gets more facts into his mind in a given period than by the school method. The misconception is great of the real purpose and results of true insight into the work. The foundation of the Kindergarten thought is always the sacredness of the natural child, and the purpose of the method is to free the child from the restraint of hereditary tendencies and the fetters of environment, that there may be unrestricted opportunity for the divine image to manifest itself freely through the human being. It aims to discourage the inherent evil by encouraging the inherent good. We must study the child to see what is natural for him to do, to be, and to know, if we respect his individuality. We do not sufficiently recognize the right the child has to free action at this period. Education has been almost wholly devoted to the cultivation of the intellect as a separate part of the mind, leaving the emotional nature to take its chances with unassisted nature, as though unrelated to either the physical or intellectual. A change of thought has already made itself felt in the recognition of the threefold nature of the child as a unity, being the foundation of all later methods of development. But we have been so long accustomed to look upon the intellect as the divine crown set upon man, that even yet all our methods are strongly colored by inherited traditions of the paramount importance of intellectual culture.

The recognition of the interdependence and absolute unity of the child's thought, emotion and action is always given with thought at the head of the list. Froebel's method is not modelled on the principle of homœopathic treatment of bodily disease, that is, to treat the subject with small doses of intellectual wisdom, sugar-coated for the purpose of restoring to the individual the moral health remotely lost in Adam's fall, but is rather based in the firm conviction that if the natural health of mind, as of body, is maintained by natural habits, action, condition and food, the being, by growth in the right direction, will free itself from the hereditary taint of evil. At the outset of life, both good and evil are undeveloped and exist only as potentialities of being. If the good be encouraged and cultivated, and the whole life force of the child drawn toward the action of the good, the evil germs must starve for lack of support before they can take root and grow. Any part of the being left without stimulant toward right action is as likely to develop evil as good. The action or inaction of the body has a direct effect upon the feeling, and the feeling opens the way for and colors the thought. The thought reacts upon bodily expression, and so the circuit of action is com-

pleted only to begin another round of movement in a higher—because more conscious—plane.

While the thought action is vague and incomplete, as it is in early childhood, the instructive action of the feeling is of paramount importance because of the power it has to turn life currents into right channels. What a child hates, whether good or evil in its nature, he turns all his conscious life against; what he loves, he does with his whole strength, and shapes and defines his character accordingly. Feeling is excited by material attractiveness, the simplest forms of which are color, form, movement, harmony, in all its variety of manifestations. Therefore, these are prominent elements in playthings for little ones. The baby's ball is gay with color. The base or foot-ball does not need this element, for it has now become only the means to an end, and the end or game is the attraction. It corresponds to the developed power of the older person, which has learned to live in process rather than in single moments of enjoyment.

If playthings, by their organization, lead the child's bodily action into representative grace, corresponding to the beauty embodied in the material, the thought gets the support of both action and feeling, which means the concentrated force of the whole being. The purpose of the Kindergarten is to come into this period of capricious action, not to check or to reduce spontaneous action to the form of law, but following joyous nature in its gush of feeling, define it by sympathetic participation in that feeling.

This is no easy thing to do, and in weak hands with only partial insight, the effort often degenerates into licensed confusion unproductive of good results; or, on the other hand, to avoid the one extreme the other is maintained to be the ideal, and the central purpose, freedom of child nature, is lost sight of. Under these conditions the work is sure to either die for lack of intelligent support, or gradually lose itself in school methods and purposes. We need women of power, women having insight into child nature, but most of all women of large sympathy and childlike nature, to exemplify Froebel's thought in its true sweetness and full power. It will take at least another generation to arouse patrons and those in authority to recognize such ability, and demand and support it.

The games are the true expression of capricious nature of the butterfly existence, of which they are intended to be the embodiment —a sip of honey here and there, a light, a shade, an artistic balancing of movement and stillness, an alternation of wild, joyous action in which all join, with sweet concentration of attention upon the gentle movements which represent a bit of ideal nature in which only one or two are active. The Kindergartner who plays by rule has everything yet to learn of Froebel's purpose, or of the real meaning of sweet child life.

Froebel says in his Mother Play (which he also says embodies his thought most perfectly), "Foster every true feeling of the child, and help him to translate feeling into thought through expression."

Watch for signs of feeling which may be stirring the unconscious soul with vague impressions, and then deepen the impression and make clear the truth which signals to be recognized by helping the child through imitation, to live the life which appeals to him.

The boy is fascinated by the flight of the bird in the pure air, and by the movement of the fish in the clear water. These are typical illustrations. Let Froebel interpret this fascination for us. The life in the child is stimulated by the attraction of the life in nature; it is the unrevealed self finding and recognizing itself in another form. The boy if left to himself catches the fish and cages the bird, and the free life he was attracted by is destroyed by his act. The higher expression of his own being is lost.

The law of his being demands, that to know anything he must be it. The freedom of movement which reflected his own nature, can be his through the effort which gives him control of his own muscles. Imitation is natural, and delights him. He imitates the activity of the bird, and so comes to the spiritual understanding of the freedom the bird symbolizes to him.

By the help of Kindergarten plays he gets the highest interpretation of the feelings that thrill his soul and stir him to activity.

Again the child is attracted by the signs of hidden force seen in nature in the varied movement caused by the wind. Froebel reads in such attraction the unconscious soul's first search for knowledge of God as power. What is the truth which struggles for revelation through the child's being, into which God's Spirit has been breathed as life? Even this God is a spirit.

Through a conscious feeling of power within himself, which moves his arms in imitation of windmill, the branches of the trees, the weathervane, he gets the first glimpse of God as spirit power. To how many of us was our first impression of God's power that of fear of an invisible awfulness?

A bright, happy-faced little girl, running out of doors one spring morning, looked up at the blue sky with its fleecy white clouds, down at the earth with its springing life of grass and tiny flowers, listened for a moment to the glad sounds of bird-song and running water, and then lifting her face to the bright sky, said in a fearless, happy way, "Good morning, God."

Contrast the responsive feeling of this child with the sad depression of another real child. A nervous, fretful, almost hunted look was habitually upon her face. Going out for a walk one morning, she saw her little dog following her, and longing to be alone, she turned sharply with a gesture of command and said, "Go back, Fido! It's bad enough to have God tagging around all the time without you."

In the first instance all beauty was recognized as God. It is one of His attributes, a part of Himself, and she rejoiced openly in His presence. Feeling found expression, and the thought of the nearness of God was one of joyful, friendly communion.

To the other child, God was an ever-present avenging spirit, watching for bad deeds to punish them, never thought of as rejoicing in the good. This spirit is all the more to be feared because it could not be seen or understood through any visible or known form.

These first thoughts of God color and shape our religious lives to the end. No conception is ever final or complete. Every ideal is a growth. If we fail to supply natural conditions for culture in this first germinal stage, no after care can give completeness unmarred by early neglect. Surely the completeness of ideals of eternal truth in the human soul is infinitely more precious than the growth of the material seed. For the seed we choose conditions according to its nature and degree of development. How much more tender and wise should be our fostering care of a human soul.

How much of our own deplored apathy and dulness, and consequent poverty of feeling is the result of neglect of fostering influences at this stage of first impulses.

The songs and games which illustrate mechanical industries, are always pleasing because they help the child to know in some measure the life they represent, and make him feel that he is a part of that life which attracts him.

These plays have many educational aspects. Individuality is the birthright of each one, and it is in the province of education to help each one to realize and value that birthright and develop more and more perfect ideals of individuality. The process of growth is a logical one.

The first step is to see oneself as a separate being, or to recognize one's own power. Self-recognition, self-honor or pride is necessary as a step by which to climb toward the never complete ideal. To value one's own power for the self-gratification it brings is not enough. One must become conscious of his relations to others and responsive to the corresponding duties; willingly, gladly consecrating his power to the service and good of his fellows if he would reach the highest ideal. If all higher education, as well as the Kindergarten, recognized that, what a reformation would be made in the world.

Think of the purifying influence such an ideal has. Think of statesmen, professional men, teachers, business men, women in the homes, and in professional life striving for power and recognition, not for personal pride or advantage, but that they may have the more to give for others' good. Yes, it seems to savor of the millennium, too good to be true yet, but haven't we a right to strive toward such an ideal? Especially as educators, should we not recognize all good as possible?

Certainly Froebel held that ideal as possible for humanity to reach toward, and he recognized the germ of that true individuality in the child's love of being in the midst of everything, and the means for growth in his being allowed to help. He rises to higher insight through willing response to duties which condition his relation to the

life in which he delights to feel himself a necessary part. Sympathy and participation are the vital elements which make an atmosphere in which this germ of divine nature thrives best.

These are only glimpses of the natural means by which Froebel would have us foster the first feeble expression of virtue, and through which we may hope to develop a willingness to do even the disagreeable duty with gladness, because of the joy of closer relation which the fulfilment brings. For the joy that is set before, the task of the present moment is eagerly done. An ideal consciously held becomes a compelling force as guide in conduct when choice becomes conscious, which no change of place or condition can affect, hence the great importance of the growth of right ideals from earliest childhood.

There is no influence more stimulating to the early feeling than that of contact with nature; but any formal teaching of "nature lessons" acts with deadening power upon the mind at this stage of unconscious and unrelated seeing.

Only those things which touch the child through some sense are of real interest to him. Times, seasons, external conditions influence the feeling, and because there is no developed mental force to occupy the mind with creations of the imagination. Only material things stimulate consciously. Let me illustrate. A warm rain through the night has drawn the earth worms to the surface of the ground. There is scarcely a foot of the path without its crawling occupant. Here is a problem, a matter inviting investigation, which has thrust itself in the way of the children. Where did they come from? What made them come now? How? Some have disgusted little faces as they look at them. They are not pretty. Here is the germ of a false ideal springing into life. Oh mother, teacher, be watchful and quick to see your opportunity. Others are afraid, shrinking from that which has no power to harm. Weakness is gaining ground. Others still display the savage nature which is the inheritance from remote, savage ancestors—natural depravity, if you choose to call it.

A variety of feeling is apparent, aversion, timidity, cruelty and general curiosity. All this feeling may be demoralizing to strength and character if neglected, but all show aroused consciousness. The door is open, and the sweet woman Kindergartner may enter in without fear of the charge of violence. Always ready she should be to give the habits of the common life around, and now she recognizes her opportunity. Without defining any of the different manifestations of feeling by naming it, which would only make the child more conscious of that which she wishes him to forget, she tells a few simple facts about the worms, makes the life prominent, tells such things as their next opportunity of seeing gives them a chance to verify. There is no attempt to give a complete history now. A great deal of ground is left to be explored by independent adventurers, only telling what has been seen in its relation to the greatest of attractions, viz., life. The timid child is interested. The cruel one

forgets to torment, for here is something to gain by sparing life. The feeling of aversion becomes one of attraction. A hidden beauty has been revealed which illuminates all the ugliness and transforms it, and a truer ideal of beauty is the result.

Another illustration—Spring life is awakening. The child, like the animate and inanimate nature, is full of responsive feeling. He throws off a good deal more than overcoat and fur cap when the leaf-buds shed their winter covering. He cannot undo the wrappings of the leaf-buds alone; may only wonder in a vague way about the transformation, but it touches him, and though he may not even formulate a question about the bits of cast-off coverings he finds under the trees, yet the likeness of the action to his own putting off, makes him one with living nature. It is a reflection of his own life. How many things we go through life unconscious of, that might add immeasurably to our joyful living, if our eyes were opened and our ears unstopped.

The habit of seeing clearly so formed and early, makes the most enduring foundation for after scientific research, and develops a general tendency for investigation.

There are countless opportunities for encouraging hardihood, tenderness of feeling, courage, patience, expectation—opportunities which, alas, are too often unseen and unfelt by those to whom has been granted that most sacred office, the care and guidance of young children. In the varied touches which nature gives in the changing seasons, what beauty is revealed. In the snowflake, the waterdrop, the seed, the flower! Poorly-paid in coin they may be, but what riches of blessing will be theirs if they have the love of little children. Theirs is the uncounted wealth of giving.

The child who up to his seventh year has made his own problems, found out what he knows by his own desire, without formal teaching, and most important of all, has had intelligent sympathy in his discoveries and inventions, however simple they have been; has clear fundamental concepts; faith in himself; some degree of healthy imagination; sees things not as separate, but as related and in simple process. He is ready to begin school life with zest and intelligence. He compares and classifies naturally, because he has clear ideas of normal types gathered through use of the same in free (not unguided) play. The Kindergarten has provided the means and guided the action to the accomplishment of this end, not by formulating definition and description, or making law a conscious thing in the child's life, but by living the law and taking careful note of the "nexts." Truth that is revealed by natural process comes to stay, and only then.

Looking down into the depths of a pool, we see reflected in shadow the skies above us—each tint and form the reflection of the real substance above. So Froebel looking down into the sweet, innocent faces of little children, saw reflected there in shadows of feeling, the heaven toward which our souls are all blindly striving.

The pool, through the process of its own silent action, in response to the drawing of the sun, rises to be like the cloud it reflects. So, too, the human soul, if it responds to the divine influence which ever calls it up into purer atmosphere and clearer light, will find its heaven realized through its own being. We who come in contact with children, reflect the love which is the drawing power and help the soul's response by our fostering care.

The enchantment of the frost giants holds many a waterdrop back from its activity of obedience during the long winter months, but the warmth of the spring sunshine breaks the enchantment when its shining is direct. Loving sympathy and recognition is the sunshine of God's spirit, and we make the atmosphere which reflects or dims it, and love, a wise, active, direct shining force, alone will break the enchantment of evil tendencies, which hold the sleeping beauty of the child universal in many a human soul.

HEREDITY IN RELATION TO EDUCATION.

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I take the first opportunity to thank the Ontario Teachers' Association for the compliment paid me in affording me an opportunity to address them. Though it has fallen to me to reside during the greater part of the last twenty years in the neighboring Province of Quebec, I can say as regards Ontario's institutions, "I am to the manner born," for I was born, received my Elementary, High School and College (University College) education in this Province. Further, I have had the privilege of teaching in an Elementary School, a High School and a Collegiate Institute under Ontario regulations; and I look back to a portion of this period as affording some of the happiest days of my life.

Among many improvements that I notice as having taken place within the last twenty years, is one that was obvious to me on visiting the High School Section this morning. Most of those present were of mature years. Some had evidently grown gray in the service. This means that, so far, at least, as this department of educational work is concerned, a conditional of permanency has been reached, which is in itself a guarantee of considerable progress; in fact, that teaching has become a profession amongst you. I have had the pleasure of meeting here those to whom I sustained pleasing official relations, some former associates in teaching, and several old college friends as well as more recent acquaintances. But amid all this, I to-night experience a feeling of sadness.

I miss from among the educators of this Province a man of much worth and many accomplishments; one probably best known to you as an esteemed High School Inspector—John Milne Buchan. I miss him as you could not, for he, as my teacher, more than any other individual, guided and moulded my youthful life. Of him I must ever think with reverence and gratitude; and I would not be doing justice to my feelings did I not this evening, on making brief temporary contact with that system of education of which he once formed so important a part, pay this tribute to his memory.

I do not know that I can better return the compliment you have paid me than by speaking my views without reserve. I have chosen a subject that may be new and interesting, and one to which I have devoted a good deal of attention: "Heredity in Relation to Education."

It is of course necessary that the education of a country shall be systemized, harmonized and consolidated.

This involves so much machinery, including examinations, inspections, reports, etc., that those concerned are under constant tempta-

tion to take the form for the substance and to mistake the immediate issue for the great end. It will not be denied that this state of things exists or has existed in connection with every attempt to produce what has been termed a system of education. Manifestly system is essential to success. Without system, concerted plans and co-operation, you would not be here to-night.

One of the great problems of the day is the extent to which system should prevail. The answer to this question, which is filled with practical issues, may be inferred in part, at least, from my treatment of education this evening.

The teacher has to do, in reality, primarily with methods, examinations, results, etc., only in so far as these are means to an end—that end being the development of human nature.

The teacher is, or should be, first, last and always, a developer. If he sees no further than methods as set before him by others; if he assumes that the one method will suit all his pupils equally well; if he believes that there is any one invariably best method, he will become after all but a sort of machine.

The educator is concerned with human nature, and must endeavor to study it in as broad a way as possible. To him the knowledge of the development of man from more primitive conditions is the study of all studies. His great aim should be to carry on in some measure this progress, this evolution or unfolding, for we know as yet but indifferently the possibilities for mankind.

Whether man was derived from some form of life lower in the scale or not, it is perfectly clear that he has passed through stages not very distantly removed from the condition of the brutes, or at all events, immeasurably remote from that of the civilized man of to-day.

And the history of the race is in some measure the history of the individual.

The teacher who does not realize this can scarcely understand the peculiar behavior of boys in particular at times. Especially when left to themselves, they seem to act like savages; for the moment they appear to revert to a savage state. But knowing the tendency of human nature to right itself under favorable conditions, the teacher is considerate, hopeful and wise in the guidance of his pupils.

But equally important is the study of the individual, and it is the neglect of this that constitutes, perhaps, the greatest danger of modern education.

We adopt our methods to human nature as we conceive of it, but is the individual as much considered as he was? The tendency of the age is to aggregation of men, to concerted action, to adaptation of methods to the masses, to the average man or boy or girl, while John Smith and Eliza Brown are apt to be regarded as simply units and nothing more.

If I were asked to state what I considered the greatest evil

threatening education or actually existing in education, if not in our entire civilization to-day, I should reply that in my opinion it was just what I have referred to—not recognizing the individual as such in the masses.

Allow me to point out that the available energy of the world is increased in proportion as we develop individuals, *i.e.*, human beings, differing from their fellows. We see this in the passage of a community from a savage to a civilized condition. There is division of labor with differentiation of function. It is better for the community that there should be carpenters, blacksmiths, masons, etc., than that there should be an attempt to make each individual a Jack-of-all-trades.

So in education we should aim to develop those differences that nature has established. So-called education has done much harm by running counter to nature. Evidently then, the great business of the teacher is to study nature with a solicitous anxiety to learn her meaning as to man.

Froebel, after ages of educational blundering by the world, set out on the right path because he, like the one who would enter the Kingdom of Heaven, became as a little child and so understood children and adapted methods to human nature as it is—methods in which their individuality is recognized at the very outset.

Would that we had followed this great genius closer. Would that we were to-day applying his methods in their best aspects to our education more fully. I mean in the sense that we adapted our methods to human nature, as it is, and not chiefly with any so-called end in view, such as fitting the boy or girl merely to sit at a desk in a warehouse or stand behind a counter in a shop.

But our schools, like other institutions, are a reflection of our general state of human progress; and while we have much to be thankful for, I must, with President Eliot, of Harvard University, consider that our school education is still in no small degree a failure; partly because we have failed to grasp the purpose of education, and partly because we do not recognize that men are more than methods after all—that John Smith is more than simply a human unit—that what suits him would not equally well suit John Jones.

Allow me to put the problem of education in a sort of combined biological and psychological form.

It is impossible to conceive of any organism as existing apart from relations to other things that immediately or remotely affect it, in other words, its environment, which term will be used to designate the sum total of all those influences of whatsoever kind that are in any way related to or can affect such organism.

Very often the most important factors in the environment are other organisms of the same kind, and this applies especially in the case of man.

In the discussion of educational problems, it seems to me to be of

vital importance to realize that we must consider man as a whole. Great mistakes have been made and are being made from regarding mind and body apart.

As a matter of fact we never know them apart. We have to do with that complex whole we call man. We only know the mind through the body, and, speaking generally, so far as we can see for every psychological manifestation, there is a correlated or corresponding physical process.

It is of importance not only to concede this in a theoretical way, but to be fully convinced of it, otherwise our education will labor under those misconceptions, irregularities and inadequacies which have beset it in the past.

We get at the mind through the body. To one devoid of all sensation the world is as good as non-existent, and such an individual would be a mere vegetative organism incapable of any appreciable development.

Apart from the senses there are probably no avenues to the mind for us.

The dependence of the mind on the body in this broad way is then clear. It is not, however, very fully recognized yet, that what hinders the development of the body, or stands in the way of physical vigor or growth, must be in a corresponding degree an impediment to the growth and development of the mind.

Modern psychologists are more and more regarding the mind as a growth and development; and undoubtedly when this great fact and the complete inter-dependence of mind and body are recognized, we will be free from misconceptions that have fettered educators of all kinds in the past.

The teacher who realizes this inevitable relation of mind and body cannot be indifferent to the hygienic conditions and physical state of his pupils. The condition of the atmosphere of the schoolroom, the temperature, the quality and the direction of rays of light will be as much considered as the three "Rs," for in fact they are of vastly more importance in the development of the organism, as a whole, with which he is concerned.

Up to this point I have been endeavoring to show that the educator, in proportion as he has correct and comprehensive views of human nature, is supposed to devise methods that accord with them. Even with such views he may not become a very successful teacher, because teaching is an art, and it is one thing to understand in the abstract, and another thing to apply. But given the natural aptitude for the art it is surely plain that the application will be more in harmony with our nature if that be understood. And in the application great skill will be required, so that the individual will not be lost sight of. In fact, it is just here that the art of so many falls short. They lack the insight to recognize just what constitutes the individuality in each case, and to adapt to this.

I will, therefore, endeavor to assist in some measure in the solution of this problem, by calling attention to a guide to the individual nature through the subject of heredity.

From the earliest times heredity or the resemblance of offspring to parents has been admitted, in some vague way at least; and if this were now as clearly recognized for man as it is by breeders of our domestic animals, I would anticipate greater human progress than is likely till sound views on this subject are more widespread and more deeply impressed.

How few have ever seriously sat down and pondered upon such questions as these: Why is my nature such as it is? To what degree am I, and in what measure are ancestors concerned in my being what I am? What am I likely to become?

I presume one might safely affirm that most persons here never directly faced such considerations at all. Probably many would regard it as impossible to account in any approximately satisfactory way for their physical and mental make-up, and would be very apt to refer the latter in no small degree to what is commonly known as education.

But if we were to visit the establishment of some successful breeder of domestic animals, we would find no such hazy mental condition. The breeder does know why his stock is such as it is. You point to some admirable specimen and compare it with another of plainly inferior merit, and ask him the reason. He does not attempt to explain the difference by the pasture, but he tells you that the less valuable animal is a common cross-breed without extended pedigree, while the other is derived from ancestors that he can trace for generations, and the parents of which are now on his farm, the purchase price having been a large one.

The breeder would have been greatly puzzled if such ancestors had produced offspring entirely unworthy of themselves. The same applies to the vegetable world. "Do men gather grapes of thorns, or figs of thistles?" But apparently we often expect this rule to be reversed in regard to human beings. The fact is, man was so much regarded as a creature apart by himself, with laws of his own, laws that were, every now and then at least, interfered with in some inexplicable way, that the public mind got demoralized; for nothing can be so disastrous as to believe that the laws of nature are subject to change.

We may require to modify our views as to what the laws of nature really are, but so far as the world has yet learned, these laws are invariable.

I must confess myself to have had at one time almost unbounded faith in the changes that the environment could work, and especially that part of it that we call education, in the narrower sense. But a close study of heredity, by observation and experiment, in breeding some of our domestic animals for a term of years, has very strongly impressed upon my mind the strength of heredity.

Galton, Ribot, and others have given us the most convincing proofs that heredity is stronger than its antagonist, variation, or than its modifier, environment.

In accounting for variations, for no two beings are quite alike, we must admit great ignorance; however it is impossible to ignore or disbelieve in the effect of the environment.

We know that unless there be some favorable features in the environment the best nature can never develop.

The very same breeder we before referred to might possibly be able to show us an animal that through accident, inadequate feeding, or other unfavorable condition in the environment, had never proved worthy of its parentage; and the observer will meet many cases like this among human beings. They are instructive inasmuch as they illustrate the relative part played by heredity and environment in the total result.

Galton, after most exhaustive and careful examination of large classes of men, as statesmen, judges, commanders, divines, authors, artists and others, shows that of all those that attained great distinction, a fair proportion left posterity worthy of them. He concludes also that if a man be possessed of really high-class native ability, he will rise in spite of the environment, or as Shakespeare has it, "Some men are born great."

But what of the mediocre? Do the same laws as to heredity and environment apply? The best way in my opinion to become convinced on this point is to make an honest and careful study of one's self. It sometimes takes years to realize the extent to which we represent—often in an occult manner—our ancestors; and we must remember that law which Darwin has emphasized, that traits of ancestors tend to appear at the same period of life in the offspring as in the parents. It is further to be remembered that by a study of parents alone we cannot get nearly so good an idea of the heredities of any individual as if more distant ancestors and collateral lines (uncles, cousins) be taken into account.

Indeed the believer in man's evolution from lower forms of life takes a much wider view of the whole subject.

It must be plain that each individual in some measure is the resultant of all those forces represented in ancestors—forces which have been modified in innumerable ways by ancestors, a consideration which greatly complicates the study of heredity. But if any one principle has been established, it is that heredity is stronger than environment. However, we must point out that the weaker the heredity the stronger the environment. Education in the proper sense can do more relatively for a mediocre or weak nature than for a very strong one. A real genius or a criminal will be such regardless of education. So that the practical issue for educators narrows down very much to the question of heredity and environment for the mediocre or sub-mediocre. It is with the latter classes that the

teachers of the land have chiefly to do, though we must not overlook the possible best and wisest that may be entrusted to our care. Our systems are not well adapted to discovering them, especially those of high talent or genius, affairs so tend to averages and mediocrities in all directions these days.

It will now be my aim to indicate how the educator may, by a study of heredity in a practical individual way, as well as heredity as a general fact in nature, increase his usefulness by directing his energies to better advantage from more exact knowledge of the individuals with whom he has to deal.

However skilful the teacher may be in reading the individual from his conduct, the diagnosis (to borrow a medical term) will be much safer if we know the family history and the ancestral tendencies. It is as regards disease, *i.e.*, tendencies of the physical organization, and it is equally so with the mind though not yet so generally recognized.

The teacher who knows nothing of the parents of a child is but poorly prepared to do the best possible in developing that child.

With all the disadvantages associated with the career of a country school teacher who "boarded round," or who was expected to make periodic visits, it cannot be denied that he had opportunities for understanding that all-important home environment of his pupils, and of studying the parents and other relatives, and gathering hints from scraps of family history that greatly helped him who was not a believer that all children are to be treated educationally just alike, all minds to be compressed into the same mould.

With all its imperfections, I am bound to say the individuality of the pupils in the old log schoolhouse was often more developed than in the city public school of to-day, where for a boy to be himself frequently brings with it the ridicule of his fellows, a condition of things that has its effect afterwards on the lad at college.

I find this fear of being considered odd—out of harmony with what others may think one of the greatest drawbacks to the development of independent investigating students at college.

The case is still worse for the girls. When women begin to be really independent in thought, feeling and action, I shall be much more hopeful of the progress of mankind; and happily the dawn of this better day has already begun.

It is scarcely necessary to point out that in the nature of the case the parents are in the best position to learn the hereditary tendencies of their children; but inasmuch as in the large proportion of cases the subject has never been given any serious attention by them, it remains with the teacher to work it out by such means as he can. As with the physician, practice makes perfect in observation, interrogation and diagnosis.

Often a little conversation with the children when at their ease at home will give more information as to their real tendencies than

weeks of observation at school. Parents frequently judge of the natural fitness of their own children for the various callings in life very badly; and the assistance of the skilled teacher in deciding such matters would be of inestimable value.

By the skilled teacher I now mean the one who is an expert diagnostician of powers, and especially of natural leanings in which heredity plays so very prominent a part. How often is the college teacher, who regards the mistake in the choice of a profession or career as fatal, pained when dealing with certain of his students who plainly should be somewhere else.

Yet it is hard for him to tell a young man that he is out of place. This should all have been settled long ago.

In the course of some lectures on education, given at the Johns Hopkins University several years ago, Dr. Stanley Hall, the eminent psychologist, drew attention to what he called a "life-book."

In this a record as impartial as possible of such sayings and doings of each child of a family from infancy to adolescence is recommended to be kept as may be a guide to real tendencies.

Teachers may widen their sphere of influence by making this recommendation according to discretion to at least some of the parents with whom they come in contact. Dr. Hall lays stress on recording the exact words of the child, and on stating everything with extreme accuracy and impartiality, as the fond parents are very apt to put a flattering interpretation on sayings and doings and fail to record the indications of weakness or evil.

It is interesting to paste in also the first letter, first story, first rode sketch, etc., indeed anything that will give a clue to the real nature of the child.

But, as before indicated, the teacher may discover in a visit to the home what may have escaped even the parents.

I know myself of a born artist having been discovered in the very depth of poverty by a physician who was making a professional call. That child has since developed into a distinguished man. Whether innate genius was sufficiently strong to have forced him through and above his environment apart from such early discovery and encouragement, I cannot say. At all events it would in all probability have been a case of devious ways, diverted energy and lost time, if not final, partial or complete failure but for this early recognition.

No doubt the difficulties in the way of meeting all the parents, in the case of a large class in the city school, are considerable, and it may not be feasible to visit all, though much is gained in more ways than one by ascertaining the home environment as well as the heredities of the pupils.

When once the teacher has made a somewhat complete and reliable estimate of the tendencies, good and bad, of any pupil and their relative strength, a large part of the problem of development is already solved.

Every human being may be regarded as an organism with a combination of qualities of varying strength, some of which, indeed most of which are good in themselves, but either weak or strong relatively to a common standard or with reference to each other, so that the question of balance is one of the most vital.

The most dangerous of all members of society are those that are ill-balanced and lack self-control. The real criminal organization is of this nature. But so also is the faddist or extremist of any type dangerous, because being ill-balanced he himself tends to lead mediocre minds astray; and much energy that might be better employed must be used to counteract his dangerous doctrines and vigorous efforts.

The question with the teacher then is, How can I develop each nature committed to my charge so as to strengthen its weak parts, physical, intellectual and moral, so that no faculty shall be unduly developed, and that the balance of the whole shall be good, while I do not overlook these faculties that are strong, and on which the success of the individual so much depends? It can, with the utmost confidence, be assumed that in all human beings some powers are by inheritance of different strength from others. Some children are so weak in mathematical perception that they must receive careful and special attention to nurture this up to an approach to the average; while at the same time it must not be made almost the sole standard of intellectual strength or excellence, as I fear has been too much the case in schools within the past twenty years, at all events. An intellect thus weak may have a good deal more than the average capacity for artistic or moral feeling, and men are not mere calculating machines, but rather organisms endowed with feelings that, like the steam-boiler, supply the source of power, the moving forces.

How sadly have we neglected the culture of right feeling in our educational institutions! It was a natural consequence of the misleading, because partial, doctrine that the great purpose of the public school was to teach "the three Rs."

It cannot be too much insisted on, that the great purpose of all education is to furnish a favorable environment (using that term in the widest sense) for the development of the highest type of human beings consistent with the innate inherited tendencies. We cannot make silk purses out of sows' lugs, but we must take care that we do not convert silk purses into lugs by our bungling and lack of insight, all the more likely if we place undue confidence in our educational systems which we call great, because, according to the tendencies of the day, they affect vast numbers.

A study of heredity tends to prevent and mitigate discouragement, and it also shows us how great is the power of the organism to vary with changes of environment. In other words, education, in the true sense, can do much to modify. The world has passed from stages of almost bestial degradation to the present state of civilization through this tendency to vary under environment by processes some of which

we can appreciate, and possibly by others that we do not fully understand. We have every reason to hope for the future; but this should be a rational hope founded on the adaptation of means to an end, and in this the organisms must first of all be considered.

Regarding mankind in this light, it becomes clear to me that, after the parents themselves, the teacher may become the most potent factor in the development of the human being.

He cannot radically alter hereditary tendencies, but it is his great privilege to guide and modify them. In some cases he may require to steer, so as to avoid Scylla and not fall into Charybdis; in others to develop energy in weak natures that only tend to drift along in life. But one thing is certain, that to attain these truly great results, the teacher must be himself very much of a man; and the public would do well if it could but stop long enough in the race for wealth, power or distinction, to consider whether it is taking the right means to find and retain such people. Mankind must study and observe the laws of the heredities of the race to make the greatest possible progress; and next to that, the race must seek out and cherish in every way those that, after the parents themselves, have the greatest influence in moulding and developing—the teachers of youth.

All other questions are subordinate. My colleagues in this noble work, let us in our day and generation realize our great opportunity and seize it.

THE HIGH SCHOOL ENTRANCE AND THE PUBLIC SCHOOL LEAVING EXAMINATIONS.

BY HENRY REAZIN, PUBLIC SCHOOL INSPECTOR.

The chief object of this paper is to show that the High School Entrance Examinations were established in the interests of the High Schools, and not in the interests of the Public Schools; that they have been mainly instrumental in raising up the High Schools to their present very exalted rank; that this has been done largely at the expense of the Public Schools; that the Entrance Examinations have outlived their usefulness, and in the interests of both High and Public Schools, and more especially of the latter, they should now be abolished, and the Public School Leaving Examination substituted in their stead.

The High School Entrance Examinations were first taken charge of by the Department, and established as a part of the School System of the Province in the year 1877—just sixteen years ago. They were established in the interests of the High Schools, and not in the interests of the Public Schools. Their object was to fill the High Schools with pupils; to rescue the Junior High Schools from their then perilous condition; to save them from dying a natural death. Had any Public School interest been considered at the time of their establishment, they would have been placed at the end of the Public School course, and not in the middle of that course. This was an unpardonable mistake. They were nominally placed at the end of Fourth Class work, but really in the middle of the Fourth Class work, because 50 per cent. passes; in other words, about in the middle of the Public School course. That is, as soon as a pupil half knows Fourth Class work in the Public School, he is both qualified and permitted to enter the High Schools. All will admit the desirability of having the line distinctly drawn between Public School work and High School work. Here was a serious step taken in exactly the opposite direction. It led to the anomalous condition in our educational system of having High School Masters doing Public School work, and Public School Masters doing High School work.

In furtherance of the objects for which the High School Entrance Examinations were established, they have been a very decided success. They rescued the Junior High Schools, they filled all High Schools to overflowing with pupils, but for the greater part with ill-prepared pupils—pupils whose Public School education had not been completed; nine-tenths of whom would have been better to have remained two years longer in the Public School; nine-tenths of whom

were still sadly deficient in the ordinary rules of grammar, geography and composition.

To such an extent were the High Schools filled with these legitimate Public School pupils, that no High School could be any longer taught by one master, as the majority of them were once taught and many of them well taught; and so the High School Entrance Examination must receive the credit of abolishing the one-master schools and placing a complete staff of masters in every High School in the Province, as well as the credit of raising the Senior High Schools to the rank of Collegiate Institutes.

Then the old buildings were found to be too small and in many cases too shabby, and have nearly all been replaced by the present magnificent structures of which we are all justly proud, and more especially so when there is no Public School building in the vicinity to distract our attention. Then came in turn increased demand for High School Masters, increased salaries, costly libraries, gymnasiums, expensive apparatus, resulting in making High School teaching not only a very pleasant employment, but enabling it to rank as a permanent profession. Thus in the short space of sixteen years the Entrance Examinations have completely revolutionized the whole High School business, raising the schools up from their low estate to rank as to outward aspect amongst the best on the continent, if not in the world.

But still there are drawbacks, and the greatest one is that the majority of their pupils come to them ill-prepared, and many of them immature as to age and mental development. Their Public School education is incomplete—many of them even bad spellers. The result is that the High School Masters must engage in Public School work with all their recruits, or else let the work go undone, which is more often the case. The parent of the recruit must pay High School fees for Public School work whether the work is done or not, and which if done could have been better done in the Public School; and just here we have an example of Public School education in a free school system, which is not only not free, but for which we have to pay a very high figure.

This large class of ill-qualified recruits entering the High Schools handicaps the High School Masters, and is largely the cause of so much unsuccessful teaching being done in our High Schools; and I affirm that there is a large amount of very unsuccessful teaching done in them. Does anyone ask for the proof? I have it at hand. The Primary Examination is the first test of the High School Master's work. It is a test that no High School Master can gainsay, because High School Masters do the teaching; High School Masters decide what candidates are sufficiently well-prepared to venture their $5 and try their luck at the Primary (I use the word "luck" advisedly); High School Masters set the papers; High School Masters read the pupils' answers. The result is astounding. About two-thirds of the

Primary candidates throughout the Province fail. Everybody is astonished at the result; everybody wonders how it all came about. The High School Masters themselves are disappointed and chagrined, and no one is more chagrined than the unfortunate candidates who have lost the $5 Examination fee and their two years' labor, and their $200 for two years' board and their $24 High School fees. The parents of the plucked candidates are asking what it all means. Everybody is asking. The people of the Province want to know. Does it indicate a poor class of teachers? No. Does it indicate bad teaching? I think not. Does it imply unsuccessful teaching? Most certainly it does. Then how account for it? Here is the answer: It is the raw material; it is the low standard of admission; it is the Entrance Examination; it is the High School Masters attempting unsuccessfully to do Public School work; it is the High School men reaching down into the Public School curriculum; it is this robbing of the Public Schools of a class and a half for the benefit of the High Schools. In support of these assertions I have this proof to offer: A few pupils have had the good sense (or their parents for them, as the case may be) to remain in the Public Schools for a year or two after passing the Entrance, and then go to the High School for a term; and it is a remarkable fact that scarcely one of these candidates is ever plucked at the Primary, And here is another proof: In our county some half a dozen Public School teachers still persist in preparing candidates for the Primary Examination, and with what result? Why, that they always succeed in passing a higher percentage of candidates than the neighboring High School and Collegiate Institutes succeed in passing. And besides, those Public School men are not allowed to set any of the papers nor to read any of the answers. And how is all this accounted for? Very simply. These two classes of candidates have been allowed to complete their Public School education, which seems to be the only true foundation for any kind of successful study afterwards. Let us now enquire what has been the result of the High School Entrance Examinations upon the Public Schools of the Province. I hold that it has been altogether baneful. By placing the standard for passing the Entrance at the middle of the Fourth Class work, and by making the examinations a little harder from year to year, in the course of time they became virtually the Leaving Examination of the Public Schools, and thus the Entrance Examinations have many sins to answer for. They have driven the Fifth Class out of the Public Schools; they have driven our large boys and girls out of the Public Schools. These would not remain to be in the same class with pupils of from ten to twelve years of age, and go over again what they had already learned. At one time Algebra and Euclid were taught in almost every Public School—subjects that always had an attraction for the larger pupils—but these subjects were no longer taught. Public School teachers, although required to pass rigid examinations in these subjects before

receiving the lowest grade of teacher's certificate, were nevertheless adjudged by the all-powerful High School interest incompetent to teach Algebra and Euclid. These subjects were monopolized by the High School men. They went out with the Fifth Class. The large boys and girls used to be taught by efficient male teachers in whom they had confidence, but trustees of rural schools had come to believe that anybody could teach a school with only a Fourth Class in it; and so it came about that inexperienced female teachers were employed in many schools that in the past had always been presided over by experienced male teachers. The male teachers disappeared along with the Fifth Class, and their places were occupied by young girls in whom the larger pupils had no great confidence. There was little in the Public School to attract them, and as only four per cent. of Public School pupils ever attend High Schools, the ninety-six per cent. simply staid at home. They had been compelled to step down and out, and thus the Public School life of our children has been shortened by means of the Entrance Examination, by about two years, a loss to the education of the great bulk of the children of this Province that is beyond any man's calculation. In every case when a change has been made from male to female teachers, there has been a downward tendency of salaries, whilst the tendency of High School Masters' salaries has been constantly upward.

Again, the Entrance Examinations have been the primary cause of filling our Model Schools and Normal Schools with lady students to the almost entire exclusion of male teachers, as anyone may see by visiting these institutions.

By lowering the standard of the Public School programme; by lopping off the principal branch; by lopping off the upper class and one-half of the next class in the interests of the High Schools, the standard of the Public Schools was lowered. Second-class teachers were no longer required; male teachers were no longer required. The demand for experienced teachers became less; the demand for female teachers increased; the demand for cheaper teachers increased. The male teacher's position became insecure. He dare not ask for an increase of salary; he was never sure even of his present salary and his present situation. At the close of every year he was liable to be underbidden for his position by some Model School fledgling holding a Provincial certificate, authorizing her to teach any school in the Province, making it legal for her to apply for any Master's position in the Province, no matter what his success may have been, no matter what his class of certificate, and always at a reduced salary; and thus many a heart-broken male teacher has been driven from the profession and into the exodus. The instability of Public School teaching as a profession, thus brought about largely by the Entrance Examination especially as applied to country schools, has become so very marked that it is almost a misnomer to call it a profession at all. Out of some 7,000 odd Public School teachers in Ontario, nearly 1,400 retire annually.

Nearly 1,400 Modelites are annually required to be trained and put into the profession to supply their places, with the result that the majority of our rural schools are presided over by very young as well as by inexperienced teachers—by teachers, many of whom are still in their teens, still in their apprenticeship—by teachers whose minds are still immature like the minds of their pupils. Experience goes for nothing. Not one in ten now enters public teaching as a profession; young ladies for obvious reasons do not. Public School teaching has become a mere calling into which many enter for a very short time. Our Public Schools have become Americanized, which is a retrogression, a backward tendency.

Again, the cost of educating our children, I mean the four per cent. of them who take the High School course, has been greatly increased. If I am obliged to send my child to the High School as soon as he can pass the Entrance—before his Public School education has been completed, two years before—does it not follow that he will require to remain one or two years longer in the High School, which means, at least calculation, one hundred or two hundred dollars extra out of my pocket?

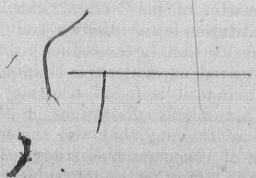
Again, the Entrance Examination must answer for a good deal of pernicious teaching, found in the Fourth Class of most of our Public Schools, a sort of hot-bed work, cramming for the examination, which is the opposite of all good teaching, but for which the teacher can hardly be held responsible. The impression has gone abroad, it has been industriously circulated amongst parents and Public School trustees, that the Public School teacher does not amount to very much who does not annually deplete his Fourth Class to the extent of passing a few candidates for the Entrance Examination. If he does not do so his position becomes insecure. The ground beneath his feet is in danger of turning into quicksand. He is, in fact, compelled against his own judgment to rush his Entrance Class, to do a certain amount of cramming, and even to persuade ill-prepared candidates to try the examination, with the barest possible chance that some of them may pass.

The Public School Leaving Examination was proposed as a remedy for the many evils above alluded to, with the hope that it might bring back the Fifth Class, with the hope that it might retain the male teachers, that it might bring back the winter pupils, that it might retain the large boys and girls a year or two longer, that it might raise the Public Schools to their old status of five classes, that Algebra and Euclid might again be taught, that we might send better prepared candidates to the High Schools, that it might raise the salaries of Public School teachers, that it might check the exodus of male teachers from the profession.

But unfortunately the Public School Leaving Examination does not seem to have met with the approbation of our dominant class of teachers. The High School men seem afaid of it; they would rather

work away on poor material than run any risk of becoming short of material. They would, it would seem, prefer to go on preparing candidates for the Primary out of poor material, two-thirds of whom are destined to be plucked, rather than surrender the Public School bone or any part of it, of which they are in illegal possession; and so in some way that we cannot account for, the new Public School Leaving Examination was ushered in with such a very severe set of examination papers, and was surrounded with such very restrictive regulations, that many people were led to believe that an attempt was being made to render it unpopular with teachers and trustees, unpopular with the public; in fact, to strangle it at its birth.

But the public are tiring of this dominant influence. The public demand the Leaving Examination. The vital interests of the Public Schools demand it. The true interests of the High Schools demand that the admission to the High Schools be raised, that it be raised to the Public School Leaving; that Algebra and Euclid be placed upon it, that the Public School Leaving be made a reasonable examination, suitable to the capacity and highest mental development of the Fifth Class in Public Schools. The interests of our High Schools demand that this everlasting plucking of Primary Candidates shall cease. The great need of our Public Schools in the matter of teachers is for better educated teachers rather than for better trained teachers. Their training is much less at fault than their literary education. Every individual who intends to become a Public School teacher should be compelled to finish the Public School course before entering the High School. If they were compelled to take the Leaving before entering the High Schools, we would soon hear the last about uneducated Public School teachers, and the great stigma against the High Schools that they are unable to prepare Primary candidates without having two-thirds of them plucked. The High Schools are for the few, the Public Schools for the many, and the time is just at hand when the public will no longer tolerate any interference with their efficiency, no matter in what other interest it may be.



THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS.

BY W. H. BALLARD, M.A.

The professional training of teachers in Ontario was begun some forty years ago, when Toronto Normal School was established, and for nearly twenty five years this school furnished the only means available for giving professional training to our teachers.

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 Certificates.

There are some fifty or more of these training schools attended by an average of twenty-five students each, and affording such opportunities for professional training that no teacher may enter upon his work without possessing a fair elementary knowledge of educational principles, and of the proper methods of applying them to their legitimate purposes in the schoolroom.

The principle of having educational forces controlled by vigorous, efficient, centralized power, while making possible such important movements as the simultaneous institution of training schools spread broadcast over the land, may also, on the other hand, have a discouraging effect on movements possibly quite as important, which reach their culminating point by the slow development of steady growth.

Thus, while the Model School system became, as it were, crystallized into being by a single act of volition, little or no growth has taken place now for a period of fifteen years. The necessity for important changes is conceded by nearly all who are interested in these schools; but everyone seems to wait for the master-stroke which will enable us to wake up some morning and find a new system in perfect working order ready to hand.

When this change shall be effected, and the need is urgent, I trust it may take some such shape as I shall cutline in the rest of this paper.

In 1869, the head master of the Normal School reported as follows: "Though this institution is essentially a training school rather than a mere school of instruction, in the ordinary sense of the term, the majority of those received as students-in-training are so deficient in scholastic attainments that it is found necessary to include in its course of instruction, not merely discussions on the principles of education and methods of teaching, but also the actual teaching of most or all the branches of common school study. It is conceded by all who have devoted any attention to the subject, that "to teach well, one must be possessed of adequate knowledge; in a word, must

be well-informed," and as more than nine-tenths of those who apply for admission to the Normal School do not possess anything like that amount of information and general knowledge, which the advancing spirit of the age very properly demands on the part of those who become educators of youth, the Normal School masters are compelled to supplement, by lectures on the different branches of study embraced in an ordinary English education, the early training or want of training of those who enter its walls."

Some approach to a possession of this adequate knowledge on the part of candidates for professional training seems to have been finally reached, for some ten or twelve years later we find the staff of the Normal School restricted to the work of professional training. Or, possibly this change was made rather in the confident hope that the improving condition of the High Schools would ensure an adequate supply of efficiently trained candidates for the Normal School course.

Vain hope it would seem, for only three or four years ago we find the Director of the Normal Schools reporting as follows:—

"The success of the new and important departure in the Normal School training depends on certain conditions, one of which is that students on entering the Normal School should have good scholarship and the power which comes from its acquisition by rational methods. This condition has not been fulfilled.

"Speaking generally the scholarship is meagre, and the power of connected thinking correspondingly undeveloped. Perhaps not twenty-five per cent. of the teachers on entering the Normal School can give a rational explanation of the processes in the 'fundamental rules' of arithmetic, and not ten per cent. such an explanation of the 'rule of signs' in algebra. Of slovenly thinking as shown in want of precision in expression, take the following examples from answers given at a Sessional Examination."

Then follow some fifty of those selections, which if fairly representative, fully bear out the statements made in the report.

And probably the experience of most of the Normal School Examiners warrants the statement that the knowledge of too many of the Normal School students does not possess that accurate well-grounded character which alone will enable a teacher to do effective work in imparting instruction to others.

In connection with the Model School the same condition of affairs obtains *a fortiori*, and we have Inspectors and Model School Masters reporting that the knowledge necessary to pass the Third Class non-professional, or as it is now called the Primary, examination is not a sufficiently solid foundation on which to base the professional training of teachers; the student knows something of a large number of subjects, but not much of any of them. He lacks the conscious strength derived from knowing one thing well. He has never learned to think connectedly or continuously.

No matter how exquisitely you may veneer this scrappy knowl-

edge 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 oblique parallelograms, and the glass is fractured, and the doors plow 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 athwart the plaster, showing clearly even to an indifferent observer that general decrepitude is creeping through and over the structure. 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 pumicious foundation of insufficient literary culture.

We have found it necessary in Hamilton to debar any candidates holding lower than Second Class non-professional certificates from attendance during the second term of the Model School, with a view to receiving an appointment on the city staff of teachers, and candidates are so persistently urged 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.

That this state of affairs should exist where so much attention is being devoted to High School work, is peculiarly unfortunate. It cannot be attributed to any lack of earnestness on the part of the High School teachers nor to any absence of departmental solicitude, for the due performance and equable distribution of the High School Masters' duties.

To find a solution to this part of the Normal School problem, we must look principally to two sources :

1. The nature of the High School examinations :

2. The complete separation which exists between the academic and the professional work in training teachers.

As to the first of these, I am satisfied that it has been the experience of nearly all who have had to do with these examinations, that a large majority of the candidates not only show want of knowledge of the subject or even the power to grasp it, but that what little knowledge they have is fragmentary, inexact and unorganized.

Whatever may be the cause, the candidates fail to reach a satisfactory standard. The main reason, in my opinion, is that the percentage required to pass is altogether too low. Thirty-three per

cent. may be obtained on a paper by giving very imperfect answers to nearly all the questions, or by answering one-third of the questions fully. But a candidate who can answer fully, one-third of the questions on an examination paper, is almost certain to be able to give more or less perfect answers to many of the remaining questions. We may, therefore, I think, fairly infer that even of the successful candidates a large percentage obtain marks enough to pass by giving only imperfect answers to the questions submitted to them. The candidate makes a dash at all or nearly all the questions; the examiner follows him through the paper, mercifully giving him a mark here and there, and in the end the coveted thirty-three per cent. is reached, and the candidate is safe so far as this subject is concerned.

The examiner who sets the paper, either bearing in mind his own leniency under similar circumstances, or else having resolved that the candidate shall have a good knowledge of his subject, even though he may get through on the minimum standard, increases the difficulty of his paper to secure this result, and forthwith up goes the annual war-whoop, and a new examiner's scalp dangling at the girdle attests the successful onslaught of the champions of immaturity and ignorance.

A much higher percentage should be exacted. It should be regarded as no hardship to require a student, who is striving to enter the profession of teaching, to answer fifty per cent of each paper submitted to him. This might necessitate easier examination papers, and possibly shorter limits in many of the subjects prescribed; also a narrower range of subjects, with perhaps a longer time spent in preparation on the part of the candidates.

The standard exacted on each paper, the nature of the paper, the limit in each of the prescribed subjects, the number of these subjects, and the time which it is reasonable to expect a student to spend in preparing for his examinations are all variable factors, and so admit of very ready adjustment in any endeavor that may be made to adapt them to more satisfactory results.

In the second place, the work of the student while attending the High School should be pursued with a definite aim on his own part to become a teacher, and a definite and practical recognition of this aim on the part of his instructors.

To this end not only must the instructor carry on his teaching in accordance with approved scientific methods, but the attention of the student must be directed to the manner of presentation of the different subjects, in order that he may be guided towards proper methods of study and investigation for himself.

Students who in the earlier years of their course have reaped the advantages accruing from attending a well-equipped school 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, will, with more matured intelligence, have been led

to love study and to acquire a taste for independent research. They will have gained a power of working with a continuity of effort and an intelligent application of the best means of accomplishing desired ends that will enable them to pass through life, not only fully charged like a storage battery with vast potentialities, but ready on occasion to change this potential energy into the energy of effective motion.

Then later in the High School course, if account is taken of the manner in which the different topics are presented, students will become enabled to detect the proper logical sequence of a lesson, will recognize the devices employed to arouse and retain attention, and will be led intelligently to appreciate 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 their minds a graphic outline of the subject under consideration.

Students who have been under instruction in such schools where intelligent scientific methods have been pursued throughout their primary and advanced courses of study, have already received the better part of the training which is to fit them to carry on the work of the teacher in the most successful and effective manner.

The ordinary course of training for teachers 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 and correct the instruction given in 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 one training school the work done in the other is to assume that the work of the latter has been imperfectly performed. 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 to them, and if, by some years of practice in the schoolroom these faults have become more or less deep-seated and lasting, how much can Normal School instruction and practice hope to accomplish in a short term of five months towards the eradication of these evils ?

Again, if the history and the science of education have any place in 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 professional training of the teacher is to be separated from his academic 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 history and science of education, and methods of instruction, and especially (by observing i s 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 the 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.

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 help 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 pupils' power 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 Model or Normal 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.

Nor is the power to present a few lessons ever so perfectly the whole or even the larger part of what may be termed school-keeping, and yet it is nearly all that the ordinary training school, in the short time allotted to it, can undertake to accomplish. The power to handle a class 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 schoolroom should furnish the means whereby the student may assume the full responsibility of carrying on a class or a section of a class for a period sufficiently extended to test fully his ability in this direction.

The plan successfully adopted by the Hamilton Board of Education for carrying on the work during the second half year of their extended Model School term will furnish at least one method by which a thorough test may be had of the ability of a teacher in training to put in practice the theory he has learned.

This plan requires the student in training to take charge of a class each half day for, say, a month, and 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 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 complications in discipline or general class management laid before the Principal, and instruction given as to the usual (in simple cases),

or best probable means (if the case presents any unusual feature) of overcoming 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.

Every precaution is taken to predetermine, as far as possible, his fitness for the actual work of the schoolroom, 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 examinations, 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 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 acted 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 a 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 fifty or more 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 unfalteringly as each new page in the development of a lesson is spread out to their mental view, has a strong attraction, almost fascination, for the true teacher, and nearly in direct proportion to the pleasure derived from the first presentation of a lesson, comes the distaste for 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 result 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.

Briefly stated, then, my contention is, that in order to obtain teachers whose training shall fit them fully for the important work to be done in our schools, these four conditions must be met:

1. Such changes must be made in the requirements for the High School examinations as will enable students to enter the Normal School with organized, definite, well-grounded, accurate knowledge, that will enable the superstructure of professional training to be laid on a solid foundation.

2. The hard and fast line that separates the academic from the professional work of teachers in training must be obliterated. The Kindergarten merges into the primary grade; the Public School course overlaps that of the High School; the Universities continue the course of instruction begun before matriculation. So should the Normal School—which stands for the University to the great majority of teachers—carry on with higher aims and on broader lines the work of preparation which should be commenced in the High Schools and Collegiate Institutes.

3. Attendance at the Normal School, on the part of all teachers, should be insisted upon as a necessary first step in their more specialized professional work. Here the great underlying truths—the educational foundations—should become firmly fixed as results of patient research conducted as nearly as possible along the lines of true scientific investigation.

4. The County Model Schools should be used as practice schools in which the teachers' introduction to actual schoolroom work shall take place, and where he shall be placed under conditions as nearly as possible identical with those under which he shall afterwards assume the full responsibility of conducting a school of his own.

With these conditions fulfilled, 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.

THE EFFECTS OF THE PRESENT SYSTEM OF PROFESSIONAL TRAINING IN OUR HIGH SCHOOLS.

BY R. A. THOMPSON, PRINCIPAL HAMILTON COLLEGIATE INSTITUTE.

It will be well before discussing the effects of the present system of professional training on our High Schools, to review the many changes it has undergone from its inception until the present time.

Eight years ago the Minister of Education, feeling that it was not wise to allow inexperienced graduates to enter the teaching profession without a preparatory training, established Training Institutes.

The students in training who attended these, were expected to master certain text books treating on the theory and principles of teaching, and to apply this knowledge in preparing and teaching the lessons assigned to them by the different teachers on the staff. Each student was compelled to attend for a term of three months, to teach three lessons a week, to observe during the rest of the time, and at the close of the term to pass a written examination based on the text books above mentioned, and also a practical examination in teaching.

The year 1890 saw the School of Pedagogy established in conjunction with the Training Institutes. The work of the school was largely theoretical and was completed before the students were sent to the Training Institutes, where they endeavored to apply the pedagogical rules laid down at the school for them to follow. The routine work at the Institutes was much the same as before, except that each student was expected to teach five lessons a week, no doubt to make up for lost time.

After one year of trial, this scheme not proving satisfactory, the rights of the old Training Institutes were cancelled and the whole system was centred in Toronto, with the three Collegiates annexed to the School as Training Institutes. The theoretical work and the practical work were carried on simultaneously, which was a great improvement over the old method. The old regulation respecting the number of lessons required from each student was ignored, and where formerly forty were demanded during the term and three on the final, from three to six were now considered sufficient, without in many cases any practical test on the final. During this year of the School's existence students were first tested in teaching, by handling classes composed of their fellow-students. Last year, the evolution not being complete, we find the annex Training Institutes abolished and the School of Pedagogy equipped with a complete staff of lecturers, and the term lengthened to nearly a year.

The student in training during the first half of the year receives

instruction at the School in the science and art of teaching, and is occasionally called upon to test these principles by teaching his fellow-students. An appropriate written examination closes this era of the student's development, and to the successful candidate is awarded a limited certificate, which qualifies the holder for six months. At the expiration of this time there is a further test demanded in practical teaching, which, if passed successfully, finally qualifies him. The process of evolution has carried our professional training thus far, and let us hope that it is not quite completed.

Having given you a brief synopsis of the system from its foundation to the present, I will now attempt to show its merits and defects at each stage. The student in training had, under the first system, a thorough drill in practical work. The discussions which followed the teaching of each lesson were most valuable when to the point, but I fear that sometimes the criticisms assumed the nature of mere quibbles over some trifling inaccuracies, while the more important question of the proper method of development based on sound principles, was lost sight of. He was also trained to teach and handle classes as they really exist, he was placed in a position similar to the one he must occupy when duly qualified. In addition also to his being required to teach a correct lesson, he had to maintain order, and observe certain points of school etiquette, which are indispensable in a good teacher.

The weakness of this system lay in the injury done to the classes upon which he was experimenting, and also in the fact that by far too many lessons were required from each student in training. Before he had finished one lesson, and thoroughly digested the criticisms thereon, and seen clearly the points in which he had violated psychological principles, his mind was on the rack over another task. I myself felt this a serious drawback, first as a student in training, and afterwards as a teacher in a Training Institute. The regulations, however, were so exacting and inelastic that there was no help for it.

I had not much faith in the second stage of its development, and as far as the Training Institutes were concerned, the defects of the first system were intensified, owing to the greater number of lessons required from each student.

The third stage, which lasted but one year, was, in some respects, the nearest approach to perfection with which we have yet been favored; and if there could be a blending of it with the present system, I think the vexed question would be satisfactorily solved. The weakness consisted in the limited number of lessons required from each student in training. I do not wish to say anything in disparagement of a thorough course on the theory of teaching, but if either the theory or the practice must suffer, let it be the former.

As the system now stands, the training comes under two distinct heads: (1) Knowledge of Pedagogical Principles, (2) Practical Experience. The student in training is not developed along these two lines simultaneously, as he should be; but the former is obtained at

the School of Pegagogy, and the latter during the next six months, in some one of our High Schools.

It is true that (in a sense) certain valuable traits can be determined at the School, such as (1) scholarship, (2) the ability to develop a lesson logically, (3) judgment in selecting the salient points of a lesson, (4) facility in the use of suitable language to illustrate the subject in hand; and it is equally true that other and just as valuable traits cannot be determined, such as (1) power to govern a class, (2) judgment and tact, (3) logical development of a lesson before a class whose minds are not matured, (4) school room etiquette, and numerous other points which will readily occur to each of you. What enthusiasm can one of these young teachers throw into his lesson when he feels the lack of that sympathy which inspires every true teacher when he stands before a class of bright pupils thirsting for the light? I believe the points previously enumerated can be as well detected without going through the comedy of teaching. Scholarship can be determined by the non-professional standing, and the other points by requiring the students to prepare full schemes, as no side issues can arise in handling a class of fellow-students like those issues which constantly occur in *nature*.

Before leaving this part of my subject, I wish to briefly discuss the qualifications of the staff. That they are most capable men all will admit, many of them having been very successful high school teachers, and, with these qualifications, we, on first thought, will say that the staff cannot be improved. Here I must call a halt. I wish to say nothing against any of the teachers who are either devoting their whole time to the work of the School or to kindred work, and, if they are not efficient, it remains for those in authority to dismiss them. Those lecturers, however, who hold dual positions, such as a professorship in a University, and a lectureship in the School, cannot do justice to both. Their hearts and energies are devoted, no doubt, to their professorial work, and, as a consequence, the less dignified work of teaching cannot get the attention it demands. I do not wish this last criticism to be misinterpreted. I have not stated that the quality of their work in the School was not good, and I know that, in the majority of cases, it has been very favorably received by those in attendance. I repeat, however, that if those lecturers had no professional work to attend to, their usefulness in the School would be greatly increased.

I have thus far endeavored to lead you over the whole ground of the professional training up to the time the interim certificate was first granted, and, as we have not had time to practically test what effect this brand of a certificate, if continued, is going to have on our high schools, what I have to say on this is largely a matter of conjecture.

The examination papers which have been prepared from year to year reflect great credit on the Examiners. The papers on methods

have been very practical and almost devoid of indefiniteness; still, I think those on Moderns and Classics have been too severe for candidates who are not specialists in those branches. When I was undergoing the trying ordeal, I found that it required a better vocabulary in Latin and Greek than I possessed to do justice to the paper. I saw Latin and Greek idioms "galore" in the selected passages, but to translate them into the corresponding English idioms was out of the question. I would suggest that a very full glossary be printed with each paper, or the use of a dictionary be allowed.

We have felt the good results of this professional training in many ways. I will enumerate the most important of them; others will readily occur to you. (1) The door, practically, has been closed upon all impecunious embryo doctors, lawyers, and ministers, who in the past used the teaching profession as a stepping-stone to enable them to enter their chosen profession. (2) The staffs in the different schools throughout the Province are more permanent than formerly, and the majority of those who now take the trouble to train professionally for teachers, follow this vocation through life. You all must admit that this is a great advantage; and could the Minister of Education, by some wise legislation, compel school Boards to pay salaries commensurate with those paid in other professions, that of teaching would attract and keep in its fold the best and ablest of our scholars. (3) Inexperienced graduates have had an opportunity, before taking charge of work in a school, to try the effects of second-hand editions of the able lectures they absorbed in their undergraduate days. These experiments usually resulted so disastrously that this method of training the "young idea" was after a time dropped, never to be resurrected, and a more natural, though less erudite, method substituted. (4) Recent legislation has placed the minimum age limit at twenty-one years, which effectually debars young candidates with Senior Leaving qualifications, but of very immature age and just as immature minds, from entering the profession. (5) Owing to the rigid nature of the examination tests, there has been a greater demand for teachers, and, as a consequence, salaries have advanced a notch or two above starvation point; but I fear the well-known principle in mathematics, that every maximum value is followed by a minimum, is about to be experienced by us, through the use or rather the abuse of the interim certificate.

Would that I could see nothing but good in the whole system, but alas, duty compels me to speak out plainly, and, though I believe the good results far outnumber the bad ones, yet I see in this honest effort of those in power certain points which require improvement. The School of Pedagogy has a very distinguished principal, but what about a permanent staff, or about a suitable building in which to educate those desiring such education? Were this School under the control of a corporate body, such as a Board of Education, who had to furnish the funds for its equipment, I have such confidence in our High School

Inspectors doing their duty that before autumn everything would be most satisfactorily arranged. Toronto would have another fine architectural pile to add to her already too long a list of public educational buildings. Legally qualified lecturers would hold the different chairs in connection therewith *securely in their places.*

Last Christmas we find forty-eight candidates, with those limited qualifications, looking around for some school in which to serve until such time as they be granted complete emancipation, either by being fully qualified, or relegated to the ranks of those found wanting. The ultimate effect must be to lower the salaries paid to teachers, and the best teachers will be compelled to enter other and more lucrative professions, and to leave the field to less competent men. I know of one school in the Province where a student offered her services free for the privilege of being allowed to teach on probation for six months. Fortunately the bargain fell through, on account of the fair philanthropist's inability to pass the Christmas test. Some of you may know of similar cases where the unfair contract is being carried out, and in some instances you may have serving under you some of these poor unfortunates. Gentlemen, let us keep away from the good old system of the days of our forefathers, when this country was a wilderness, and when the teacher gave his services for a moiety and boarded around at the different houses in the section. Again, these fledglings will obtain positions, in the majority of cases, in our poorest schools, and, as a result their methods will not be of the highest class. Their work will mainly consist of the tail end of all the subjects taught in a High School, many of which will be very improperly handled by them. It is expected the principal of the school will take the struggling aspirant in hand, and direct his course along the right lines; but when will the principal in a small school get any time from his own classes to devote to this philanthropic work? The young teacher will be left to himself to work out his own salvation; his logical methods, obtained at the School of Pedagogy, will be found wanting when he meets a class as it occurs in reality. His methods of discipline will be of the crudest sort, and not until he has made some glaring mistake will he awake to the fact that he is not "monarch of all he surveys."

Again, some of you may be objecting to the present system of professional training on the grounds that it tends to make machines of our young teachers; that they go forth loaded with the fads of their instructors, prepared to foist those fads on their classes at every opportunity. I do not believe this to be a fact except when the student in training is devoid of common sense, and who, nevertheless, has enough cunning in his nature to deceive the Examiners on the final test. Though there may be an occasional anomaly like this thrust on the teaching profession, without the constant lubrication necessary, he will soon be detected and denounced as a fraud by our worthy High School Inspectors.

At present, two sessions of the School of Pedagogy are held dur-

ing the year. There does not appear to be any necessity for the second session, as it seems to be a sort of a supplementary concern at best. Very few new students are in attendance, and why should extra expense be incurred to train those who have once failed? It would be better to leave them alone, so that they might have a chance to improve themselves, and be in a better condition to attend the next regular session. The only reason for it that I can see is to keep the staff together and to give them something to do during the second half of the year.

Before concluding, I wish to propose three schemes for your consideration. The first I consider the most feasible, and if in the main it were adopted, I think the riddle would be completely solved.

First Scheme.

1. Select one of our largest Collegiate Institutes, and convert it into a Training Institute.
2. Erect a suitable School of Pedagogy in connection therewith.
3. Have one session extending from September to May, and have no more interim certificates.
4. Have a principal and one assistant (the principal of the Collegiate) to take charge of the theoretical work of the School.
5. Appoint the Department masters of the Collegiate to take charge of the practical work and the lectures on methods, the Principals of School and Collegiate assisting.

In support of this scheme I would point out that the cost of maintenance would not be much greater than at present.

The work of the Collegiate Institute would not be materially interfered with if the students in training were not required to teach too frequently; for example, the student in training could at one time handle full classes, at another, small sections of classes, four or five of which might be under the control of one master, and yet again he might teach classes composed of his fellow-students.

One hundred students in training could teach twelve lessons apiece before full classes, twelve lessons before sections of classes, and as many as was thought necessary before classes composed of fellow-students, without affecting the work of each class more than three whole days of the term in a school the size of the Hamilton Collegiate Institute.

Second Scheme.

My second scheme is a modification of the first, and differs in this point, that the Government will erect and maintain the Training Institute.

The weak point in this scheme consists in the possibility that there might not be a sufficient number of students wishing to attend the Institute, so as to reduce the injury done the classes to a minimum. Some of you may be already selecting Upper Canada College for this

purpose. I do not think it would work at all, as the class of students who at present attend that Institute would be averse to the scheme.

Third Scheme.

My third scheme is a modification of the one in force :

1. Conduct the School of Pedagogy along the present lines.

2. Have one session extending from September to May, and discontinue the interim certificate qualification.

3. Appoint the Principal of the School, the High School Inspectors and the Director of Teachers' Institutes to take charge of the work of the School, the Inspection and the Teachers' Institutes.

4. Distribute the successful candidates after the Christmas examination among our Collegiate Institutes.

5. Have those schools frequently inspected while the students are attending them.

6. After three months' experience in teaching, the student in training to return to the School of Pedagogy for a couple of months, and continue more advanced work on the theory of teaching.

7. Give a final examination at the close of the term, bearing directly on methods in teaching, discipline, tact, etc.

In support of this scheme, I contend that of all possible selections these four gentlemen should be, and no doubt are, the most capable to train young teachers.

The work of the school should be so apportioned, that while two were at the school the other two could be attending to the duties of inspection and Teachers' Institutes. After the former had completed their part of the school work, a change could be made, and the other gentlemen would take charge. Should it be deemed desirable to alternate the works more frequently, I see nothing in this scheme to prevent it.

This does not appear to me a visionary idea, and I think if it were adopted good results would surely follow. There would be more time for inspection, and as a consequence it would be possible for those inspecting to teach Model lessons more frequently than at present.

This would go a long way towards keeping all of us from falling into ruts in teaching. Should it be found necessary to obtain more assistance in the work, the $2,000 which is paid to the present assistants would induce most any of us to lend a helping hand.

MATHEMATICAL CONDITION OF OUR HIGH SCHOOLS.

W. J. ROBERTSON, B.A.

As this paper is to be followed by what I hope will be a full expression of opinion, I do not think it advisable to elaborate the points discussed. I shall therefore content myself with a general outline of the present and past policy relating to mathematical studies, and with a few suggestions which may or may not meet with the approval of the meeting.

I purpose giving, in as brief a space as possible, some thoughts on the present and past condition of mathematical studies in our schools and Collegiate Institutes. What I shall say will be largely the result of my own experience and observation, an experience and observation extending over some twenty-five years.

Twenty-five years ago, as some of you will recollect, the mathematical condition of our schools and colleges was characterized by an immaturity and a crudeness now scarcely realizable. Rules and formulæ guided the ambitious student through the greater portion of his career. There was a minimum of theory, and a maximum of practice of a certain kind. Muscle, as well as brain, played an important part in the solution of problems—very often muscle more than brain.

In Arithmetic we struggled desperately with Proportion, Alligation and Position. In Algebra our highest ambition was to solve knotty equations. Factoring, except that of the most elementary kind, was an unknown quantity; while of the theory of divisors, we were in happy ignorance. I have yet a vivid recollection of the difficulties we struggled through during the first year at the University, when called upon to master permutations, combinations, probabilities, and to traverse the profound labyrinth of algebraic and trigonometric series. That first year, with its desperate struggles and flounderings, and its unsatisfactory attainments, is burned into my memory. In much the same way, through the honor work of four years at the University we passed. What winning a medal in Mathematics twenty years ago meant, with the clumsy mathematical tools at our disposal, is something the modern honor graduate could scarcely comprehend.

When I began my work as a teacher, I had to acquire what a few years later became the ordinary stock-in-trade of the candidate for a first or second class certificate. Looking back to that period of ignorance of mathematical methods, and comparing it with the condition of things ten years later, the change seems little short of a revolution. In an educational sense, we exchanged the reaping-hook for the self-binder; the stage coach for the lightning express; the windmill for the dynamo and motor. In one respect, perhaps, there was a very

partial compensation. We had to work earnestly, if we hoped to make any progress. The axe was dull, and so we had to apply the more strength. Progress was slow, but there was a considerable development of mental muscle. We learned to rely upon ourselves, to fight our way through obstacles, unaided and alone. Nevertheless, we would not return to this primitive condition of mathematical science, although signs are not wanting that some of the evils of that time are beginning to re-appear.

From this condition of primitive methods, we were gradually rescued, first, through the efforts of the late Dr. George Paxton Young, and secondly, through the enthusiasm of his successor in the inspectorate, Dr. J. A. McLellan. Of the first, I may be permitted to say that his presence in the school, as subsequently in the lecture room, was an inspiration to the students to do their best. The teacher found something more than a critic in the Inspector; he was his guide, philosopher and friend. Of his successor, a due regard for his modesty permits me to say but little. Nor is it necessary to dwell at any length upon the almost magical transformation that took place in the manner and method of teaching and studying Mathematics. The wave of zeal and enthusiasm that spread over the Province has not yet lost all its force. The memory and impetus of that time still exert a great influence, an influence, however, that is gradually waning.

It has been said that our schools were, for a time, mathematically mad; that the more liberal and humanizing studies of Classics, English and History were grossly neglected, while Science had scarcely an existence. With this charge I do not propose to deal fully. I may point out, however, that of the three inspectors at that time, the tastes of one were in the direction of English and History, while another was deeply interested in Classics; so there was an equilibrium of educational forces. If my experience counts for anything, it is that History, while not better taught, was more thoroughly studied than it is to-day. Classics, too, I have reason to believe, received as much or more attention than they do now. It would have been a difficult matter then to find an honor graduate who could not scan a line of Homer. As to Science, in spite of our present elaborate apparatus, and pretence of experimental and inductive study, a more thorough knowledge of Physics was obtained than is now secured. Not so many subjects were studied, it is true, but those that were studied, viz., Dynamics, Hydrostatics and Heat, were studied thoroughly.

But granting that less time and attention were given to Science, English, and Moderns than are given to-day, this important fact must be noted: the earnestness and thoroughness with which Mathematics were studied, gave, in that one department at least, the most satisfactory and brilliant results. Ontario became famous for the attainments of her sons and daughters in mathematical studies. Abroad, as well as at home, our young men won renown in that branch of a liberal and sound education. The honor graduate of our

University was almost on a par with the post-graduate of the best American Universities. And this result was largely due to the thoroughness of the drill obtained in our High Schools and Collegiate Institutes. Nor was this all. Our Public Schools were provided with a class of teachers who understood Arithmetic thoroughly, who were well-grounded in Algebra and Euclid; and, what is more important still, with men able to think clearly and reason logically. For I hold it as almost axiomatic that the study of Mathematics is the most effective of all studies in leading to right thinking. I may go further and say, that as clear thinking is the first essential to clear speaking and writing, the study of Mathematics is a powerful aid in the production of a good literature. Right thinking and right action are also closely connected, and so do not deem it paradoxical if I say that mathematical studies encourage and develop the moral qualities of truth, straightforwardness, and simplicity of purpose. The heresies, social and economic, that have such a rank growth in this and other lands, the abounding quack remedies for social ills, would many of them perish, were a better knowledge of the fact that $3+2$ does not equal 6 abroad.

I regret that my time will not permit me to dwell further on the golden age of mathematical studies in Ontario. As we all know, there came a change. A "king arose who knew not Joseph." The parallel may be carried a step further. The time came when the mathematical masters were asked to "make bricks without straw." Joseph erected his mathematical pyramid; Pharaoh gazed at it in mingled admiration and displeasure, and was moved to erect one of English and Science, on which he could blazon his name for all time. To drop these mixed figures of speech, a reaction came. It began with a new administration in which mathematical representatives found no place. It was no fault of the new inspectors that they did not appreciate the value of mathematical studies Nature, inclination, and training alike disqualified them for the appreciation of the stern joy a mathematician feels in meeting and mastering a knotty problem. What they did see and feel was that English and Science were not on a lofty pedestal. The niceties of English Grammar were not duly prized, while the study of Science by the inductive method had little or no place in our school laboratories.

Here allow me to say that in the mild criticism that is to follow, I fully recognize the zeal and devotion to education shown by our High School Inspectors. Errors they have made, I believe, but they are errors most natural to educators with such a pronounced bias in favor of certain studies. They have been unwearied in their efforts to promote what they deem the best for our schools, and this means that their efforts have been thoroughly unselfish.

But, in my humble opinion, under the new administration and the new regulations, there has been a gradual deterioration in the mathematical work done in our schools, and, as a mathematical master, I feel it my duty to call attention to that fact.

I do not take the ground that an improvement in the results obtained in English and Science might not balance the decline of Mathematics; although it surely is a sorry system of education which "robs Peter to pay Paul." What I do hold is that, while mathematical studies are losing ground, the improvement in English and Science shows no marked increase. I have reached this conclusion with some hesitation, and were not the fact vouched for by competent English and Science masters, I would not venture to make the statement.

To a certain extent, my own observation has enabled me to judge of the character of the work done in English and Science. As an examiner in History, at both the Departmental Examinations and at the University, an excellent opportunity has been given me to estimate the value of the attainments in English of our candidates. As a teacher of part of the course in Physics, the educational effects of the existing methods have come under my notice. But I do not wish to draw conclusions from my own observations alone. So when my experience taught me that mathematical studies were losing ground among my own pupils, I was not sure but the cause might be purely local. I soon found that my experience was a very general one, and that from different parts of the Province came the same complaint. I also was informed that the evil had been recognized in our Normal Schools and Training Institutes.

Anxious to reach just conclusions, I took the trouble to make inquiries from some of the professors in our colleges, and the teachers in our Normal Schools and Collegiate Institutes. The replies I have received indicate an almost unanimous opinion that a mathematical decline is going on, without any counterbalancing gain in other departments of study. One of the most pronounced supporters of this view is the principal of the Ottawa Normal School, an educator whose tastes and acquirements are in the direction of English, not Mathematics. One gentleman, it is true, whose experience as a teacher or lecturer has been but brief, thinks Mathematics have held their ground, and bases his conclusion on the fact that the examination papers are as difficult as ever. The experience, however, of last summer shows very clearly that it is one thing to set difficult examination papers, and another to have them answered. In fact, the desolation caused by the rather unusual papers of last year indicates very plainly that the mathematical status of our schools has greatly fallen. The question then arises, What causes have been at work to produce this decline?

Before proceeding to examine into these causes, allow me to say that it is not due to the inefficiency of the mathematical teachers of the Province. More than once the statement has been made by our inspectors, that Mathematics were better taught than any other branch of study. This is from the mouth of our adversaries. The cause or causes must be sought elsewhere, and they can easily be found, for they lie on the surface.

1. In the first place, I would call attention to the imperfect and improper division of work among the different forms of our schools. From the time of entrance until the Primary Examination is passed, there is an interval, on the average, of at least three years. In that time, let me see what mathematical attainments are expected from the pupils. In Algebra they are expected to go to the end of Simple Equations of one Unknown; in Euclid to the end of the twenty-sixth proposition of the First Book, and in Arithmetic to—well, I hardly know where, unless the whole subject is included.

Passing on to the Junior Leaving studies, we find that one year is presumed to be devoted to them. Now mark the sudden increase in the quantity of Mathematics demanded. Three or four years were required to master Algebra to the end of Simple Equations, now only one year is allowed in which to thoroughly comprehend Indices, Surds, Quadratics, Simple Equations of two and three Unknowns, Square Root, Cube Root and the Theory of Divisors. In Euclid three years for twenty-six propositions of the First Book; one year now for the remaining twenty-two propositions of the First Book, the Second and Third Books, with deductions thrown in as a bonus. The Arithmetic of the Primary is to be continued and concluded. This means that a class of problems in Commercial Arithmetic and Mensuration are to be mastered, for which the mathematical attainments and mental powers of the pupils are wholly inadequate.

When the pupil leaves the Junior Leaving behind, he abandons with it all further study of Arithmetic. But to console him, he is required in another year to grapple with the difficult and extended work involved in Algebra between the Quadratics of the Junior Leaving, and Annuities of the Senior Leaving. He also begins Trigonometry, and is expected to complete the course required for Honor Matriculation. Euclid is extended two books farther, with the addition of more difficult deductions.

Now, what strikes the observer most forcibly is the wretchedly small amount of Mathematics required for the first three or four years, and the inordinately large amount for the next two. One must suppose that the educational authorities expect the passing of the Primary Examination to have a magical effect in suddenly enlarging the capacity of the pupil, and in strengthening his power of abstract reasoning. Up to this examination his mathematical training has been purposely limited. Is it not somewhat unreasonable then, to demand from him, in one year, twice as much as he has been accustomed to accomplish in three years? Is it at all surprising that failures in Algebra and Arithmetic occur so frequently at the Junior Leaving?

2. Again, not only is there a most injudicious division of work, but the order and manner of the work done must be condemned. The introduction of difficult problems in Commercial Arithmetic and in Mensuration, for the Primary and Junior Leaving, is simply irrational.

A grave mistake was made when Arithmetic was left off the course of study for the Senior Leaving. The most difficult problems in Commercial Arithmetic and in Mensuration should be left to the last stage of the High School pupil's training. Mental immaturity and lack of algebraic and trigonometrical knowledge alike condemn the introduction of such problems at an earlier stage.

Nor must the manner in which Arithmetic is studied be exempt from blame. From our Normal Schools, Training Schools and Colleges come the complaint that the students who go into the teaching profession and into the Universities, do not understand the principles that underlie arithmetical operations. They are beginning to go back to the old vice of leaning on rules and formulæ. Mental Arithmetic, a most valuable training for the mind, is utterly neglected; while the gross educational blunder of encouraging students to solve arithmetical problems by means of Algebra is robbing the study of Arithmetic of its chief educational value. One would not be at all surprised to hear that the educational authorities, in their zeal for practical results, should advise the introduction into our schools of a ready-reckoner.

3. To the improper division of work among the different forms, and the wrong methods encouraged in the study of Arithmetic, must be added another cause for mathematical degeneracy. Looking over the values attached to the various subjects on which candidates are examined, one cannot fail to be struck with the evident determination of the Education Department to discourage the study of Mathematics in our schools. English and Science are thrust forward, almost offensively, Mathematics is pushed into the background. A few illustrations will make this clear to the uninitiated.

For the Primary Examinations, five hundred marks are given to English, while four hundred are given to Mathematics. This injustice is aggravated by grouping Algebra and Euclid together, the practical effect of which is that the mathematically indolent can manage to scrape through, chiefly by the aid of the twenty-six propositions in Euclid. The same discrimination against Mathematics is found in the marks for the Junior and Senior Leaving Examinations. Excellent examples are furnished by a comparison between Algebra and poetical Literature. For the Junior Leaving one hundred and fifty marks are given to the former, while the latter is honored with two hundred. This, too, is regardless of the fact that to master the prescribed course in Algebra requires fully twice as much mental effort as that for poetical Literature. In the Senior Leaving the same system of marking is adopted. Nothing can justify such a glaring injustice. Every mathematical teacher knows that by far the most difficult and extensive part of the course for the Senior Leaving Examination is Algebra, nevertheless it is ranked with Euclid, Trigonometry, History and Geography; and far below French, German, Greek, Latin, poetical Literature and English Grammar. Here, again, the consequence is that a candidate can easily pass, provided he can secure the necessary

one-third of the marks in Algebra. Why, then, should we marvel that the Normal School teachers find their pupils grossly defective in mathematical knowledge? The result of this policy of undervaluing Mathematics and overvaluing English, Moderns and Science is analogous to that which follows from the effort to place silver on an equality with gold—the baser metal drives the good out of circulation.

4. A fourth cause must now be considered, and this, to my mind, is the most potent of all. It is one which is permeating our whole school system, and it is bearing its fruit in our Public as well as in our High Schools. I refer to the overcrowding of the programme of studies for both Public and High Schools. In our Public Schools it is seen in prescribing such subjects as Temperance and Hygiene; and the same tendency crops out in the movement to provide teaching in Agriculture for the sons and daughters of our farmers. When this, the latest scheme for making farm-life attractive through the instrumentality of the accomplished third class teacher of urban origin and training, has been successfully carried out, the day is not far distant when we can warm ourselves with the "sunshine extracted from cucumbers." This, however, is a subject for our friends of the Public School Section to discuss.

To return to our subject—the overcrowding of our High School programme. This is most manifest in the lower forms where the "fads" have complete sway. Here Calisthenics, Drill, Drawing, Book-keeping, Stenography flourish at the expense of more important subjects. The time consumed in these studies is, so far as the mental training of the pupil is concerned, largely wasted. His energies are frittered away, so that he has but little vigor left for grappling with difficulties such as are to be found in solving mathematical problems. The consequence is that his knowledge of Mathematics at the end of four years spent in the lower forms is less than should be attained in two. He begins his Junior Leaving work with a knowledge far too limited, and his course therein is hampered by the superficiality of his knowledge, and by his undeveloped power of independent thinking.

An illustration of the unfitness of the average Junior Leaving candidate to cope with his work is found in the way he struggles with the mathematical problems in Physics. His study of Physics has, hitherto, been wholly in the line of definitions and a few experiments. This, of course, is inevitable when mathematical knowledge is kept at a minimum. So, when problems in Dynamics and Hydrostatics arise for solution, there is perplexity, despair and failure.

After passing the Primary stage not so many subjects of study are demanded, but the quantity of each is greatly increased, and the time is very much shortened. To state the lengthy list of requirements in Physics, Chemistry and Botany would be a serious encroachment on the time of the Association. Years ago we were content to teach Statics and Hydrostatics to Second Class candidates; now, in

addition, we must hurry them through Heat and Electricity, as well as what was formerly called Dynamics. The unfortunate pupil emerges from this course much in the same condition of mind as a Cooke tourist after being put through the bewildering experience of visiting the sights of Paris and London He has some faint confused ideas of the laws of motion; a general idea that heat makes bodies expand; and a fixed conviction that in some unaccountable way electricity is revolutionizing the world of enterprise. The inductive method of study is certainly a most excellent method; but of what avail, if time is not granted in which to apply it?

And mathematical studies are not the only sufferers from this overcrowding. History is not properly mastered, and a special inducement to its neglect is afforded by placing all the History and Geography questions on one examination paper. He is a very indifferent mental acrobat who cannot fall without serious injury on one or other of the numerous soft places provided by placing English, Canadian and Ancient History, with their accompanying Geography, on one paper. This by the way of digression.

The point to which I would most earnestly direct attention in connection with this subject of overloading the curriculum is, that it leads in many cases to superficiality of attainments and confusion of ideas. No one subject is clearly grasped; no one thing is thoroughly understood, and therefore not appreciated. It is the crying evil of our schools to-day, this lack of thoroughness. It accompanies the student to the Normal School and Training Institute; it haunts him through his University course; it unfits him for the duties of his profession, whether it be teaching, medicine, law or theology; and makes him in his subsequent career the ready victim of political and social adventurers. But I must hasten on to notice another cause for which the Education Department is not responsible.

5. In seeking for causes of the decline in mathematical culture, a suggestion was offered by the Mathematical Professor and Lecturer of Toronto University. The suggestion was that students were not willing now to take time to prepare themselves thoroughly for entering on an under-graduate course. Admission to the University had been made so easy through the numerous front, side and back door entrances that a very slight acquaintance with Mathematics is all that is necessary. Still further, so many new routes to academical honors have been opened up in recent years, by the addition of new graduating departments, that the ambitious student who cares more for the Honor Degree than for the solid attainments which should go along with it, can easily gratify his desire to graduate with honors without undergoing the painful process of hard thinking. Hence the early exodus from the ranks of Mathematics to Moderns and Political Science. The matriculant who has in view the easy road to an Honor Degree, will not worry himself to secure a high mathematical standing, nor in fact a high standing in any other department of study.

Such is one explanation of the evil under discussion. I do not pretend to have exhausted all the causes that are in operation to produce the present untoward tendencies in Mathematics. I might mention the difficulty experienced in teaching matriculants with those preparing for teachers' certificates, a difficulty which is felt most keenly in the Senior Leaving Form. The candidate for a Senior Leaving certificate is anxious to get through in one year, whereas the candidate for honors in Mathematics requires two years after passing through the Junior Leaving Form. The attempt to teach both kinds of pupils together must necessarily give unsatisfactory results. The withdrawal from our Collegiate Institutes of the preparation of candidates for Grade A and B certificates, and the discouragement given to teaching the honor work of the first year of the University, have both acted prejudicially on the high standing of our Collegiate Institutes, without securing any compensating advantages.

It remains now to indicate very briefly some of the remedies proposed for the present evil. From many quarters the cry has come for a mathematical inspector. Doubtless this demand has originated from the fact, that when we had a mathematical inspector, Mathematics flourished. A mathematical inspector, it may be said, would carefully guard mathematical interests, when changes are in contemplation by the Education Department. His presence, too, in the schools would inspire both teachers and pupils to do their utmost. Wrong methods would be exposed and discountenanced, while the latest improvements would be introduced.

No doubt there is much truth in these statements, and were a vacancy to occur in the inspectorial staff, it certainly would be a wise policy to appoint an experienced mathematical teacher. But to appoint a third inspector in order to maintain the equilibrium of High School education is another thing. The duties of the High School Inspector have changed in recent years. He is no longer an inspiration in the school. His functions have become purely administrative. He must have a keen appreciation of the value of the internal arrangements of the school building, of its hygienic qualities, of the equipment of the laboratory and gymnasium. Trustees must be stirred up to observe the provisions of the law at the risk of the loss of the Government grant. Inexperienced teachers must be carefully watched and their defects noted. These and numerous other duties of a like nature do not demand a mathematician; nor do the mathematical teachers of the Province need any special inspiration to induce them to discharge their duties efficiently. Help and encouragement they are glad to have; cold-blooded criticism they can well do without. The detection of the inferior workman and his work is certainly the duty of the Inspector; but we must assume that the best and most approved of modern methods are taught in the Training Institutes and the School of Pedagogy. So it seems to me that two inspectors can well discharge all the duties now understood to belong to the inspectorate.

The remedy must, I think, be found elsewhere. The enumeration of the causes of the present evil tendencies suggests the direction in which action should be taken to restore the study of Mathematics to its proper place. A better division of the work of the mathematical course among the different forms should be arranged. Algebra and Euclid should receive more attention in the junior classes. To accomplish this, fewer subjects should be prescribed. Students aiming at a University career or the higher certificates should not be compelled to waste their time on drawing and the commercial course. The amount of Science required should be reduced in quantity, and its quality increased. The appropriation of marks to mathematical subjects should be placed on a just basis. There should be a general reduction in the quantity of work demanded for the Junior Leaving, failing which, the course should be so arranged that candidates would be compelled to give two years to it instead of one.

A great amount of time is now devoted to the languages and Science with very meagre results. This indicates that we are grasping at too much; that our students cannot assimilate the mental food we are thrusting upon them. An inordinate amount of time is devoted to English, yet incorrect spelling, grammatical blunders, and a painful lack of clearness of expression abound. To me it seems a worse than useless task to endeavor to secure good literary styles from pupils whose brains are confused by a multiplicity of studies, and whose thoughts are in a state of constant chaos. We are developing a sham education by aiming to accomplish too much. We are forgetting that while all branches of knowledge have an educational value when properly taught, and most of them a so-called practical value, it is utterly impossible to teach many of them in our Public and High Schools. Our schools are not fitted to train our pupils in all the arts and sciences, and we must limit our projects to what is feasible. If we can succeed in giving a thorough knowledge of the principles which underlie the acquisition of all knowledge; if we can train and develop the thinking and critical faculties; if we can in a measure instil the love of the beautiful and lofty in literature; of the true and noble in history; and of moral worth in thought and action, whether of the past or present, then we shall have accomplished something worthy of our vocation; for we shall have done our part in providing the State with citizens at once intellectually strong and morally great.

THE ASSOCIATIVE PRINCIPLE IN LANGUAGE.

BY GEO. A. CHASE, B.A.

Though I am opposed to the study of historical grammar as such in our High Schools, I am fully aware that no teacher can deal with our language in its modern form without having frequent occasion to refer to the changes that it has undergone in its earlier stages; for our language is to-day merely the result of processes that have been going on from the very origin of language itself. It is impossible to separate the present from the past. Moreover, language is the result of the endeavors of the human mind to put itself in contact with its fellow; the human mind that is at work upon language now, moulding its forms and combinations to suit new requirements, is the same mind that has always been at work upon it; and however great may have been the apparent changes in methods of expression, the underlying principles have always been the same—the mind has preserved a rigorous logic even where it would seem to have acted most arbitrarily.

We are by no means always conscious of this logic; every teacher of language has again and again been brought into contact with the unconscious logic of the mind, with that "dark chamber" of the mind, as it has been called, in which processes are going on that are removed from our direct consciousness. But, whatever may be the case with the action of the mind itself, the making known of the results of this action was from the first a thoroughly conscious one, that is, each sound or combination of sounds, or, it may be added, each gesture or facial expression, carried its own meaning with it, made a distinct impression on the mind of the one to whom it was directed. The lapse of time, however, has brought about great changes, and we see everywhere in language the evidence of old methods of expression that have long since ceased to be active, and that to us contain no significance. We call these changes "growth of language," but it depends altogether upon their character whether we can call them evidences of the growth of mind as well.

To us, at this late period in the mental development of our race, it seems very absurd to say that the grouping or associating of two conceptions into one could present any difficulty; but a careful study of language shows that, at least the expression of such an association —making another mind to perceive and grasp the same—was a formidable task to the primitive thinker. If the indicating of the union of two conceptions into one seems to us now so simple a thing, still more simple would it seem to form what we term a single word —to body forth, as it were, the mental conception by means of a

sound-group. It seems so natural a process that we look upon it almost as intuitive. If, however, we reflect for a moment how far such a word as "tree" carries us, how much is involved in it, we shall have some idea of the greatness of the mental power needed to take it all in and sum it all up in one word, more especially if, as Max Müller and others hold, this word arises from the conception itself—is germane to it. Let us suppose then that two conceptions had been successfully united in the mind of an individual; how was that mind to be so brought into contact with another mind that the new found double conception might be communicated? This brings us face to face with the associative principle in language.

We usually say that proximity indicates association. A little test of this statement shows it is not true, even though the words so placed are suitable for association. If I use in close succession *man, walk*, there is no evidence that by this fact I intend these to be associated in one thought. If they are associated into one thought in the mind of the speaker, there must be some means of showing it.

It is here that pronouns play such an important part, those words whose fundamental idea is *pointing to*, and that alone; no matter what may be their seeming additions in our modern days, their function without exception, is demonstrative, or the language of gesture. Everywhere throughout our family of languages we find them playing the part of the associative medium, in many instances fossilized, it is true, but in by far the greater number in living, active operation still.

Prof. Sayce speaks of one South American race who cannot converse in the dark, so all-important to them is gesture language, the language of the *demonstrative*. "Ale, Squeery?" enquired the lady, winking and frowning to give him to understand that the question propounded was, "whether Nicholas should have ale, and not whether he (Squeers himself) should take any." Mrs. Squeers, with her winks and frowns, did no more than we do when we nod or raise our hand toward the person we mean by the words *you* or *he*, words, too, that are useless unless movement of some kind, mental or physical, attend them.

We were surprised when we first learned that the personal endings in verbs, where they occur, are these pronouns, tacked on to the word that gives the general conception; so that our additional pronoun or noun is a mere repetition. This is common knowledge now; but what is the philosophy of the phenomenon? Why should not those pronouns be at the beginning rather than at the end of the word? The conception the speaker wishes to make known is the prominent thing in his mind and must come out first; this is followed by the gesture, with the attendant sound, toward the individual that is associated with, or forms a part of, the conception. Thus, "I run" would be "run, I," with a motion of pointing to the speaker's self; "you run" would be "run, you," with a motion of pointing to the listener; "he runs" would be "run, he," with a

motion of pointing to the individual, accompanied with the name-word if gesture alone did not suffice to indicate the individual. But the gesture and the gesture-word seem to have been absolutely necessary, supplemented only by the name-word—in order to secure the association of the conception.

I here assume, for I cannot avoid referring to it, that the primitive conceptions, or let me say, *words*, were predicative, not substantive. And although my own study leads me emphatically to this opinion, yet I would not venture on the assumption unless high authority could be found for it. Max Müller, in his "Science of Thought," holds this opinion, as does also Prof. Sayce, than whom, to my mind, there is no more luminous writer on language. With the latter, indeed with both, the sentence is the foundation of speech, not the mere word as we understand it; the first utterance that communicated a thought was predicative in character; but so accustomed have we become to the union of conceptions to form one of a still wider sweep, that we forget that the individual sound-combinations themselves once indicated conceptions. In other and more familiar terms, these simple sound combinations have lost their predicative power and have become mere words.

Among the many unsatisfactory or even irritating remarks found in Earle's Philology, is the one that "very many conjunctions are introduced by pronouns." As instructors, I do not think we should rest satisfied with such a statement. The language is before us as it is before Prof. Earle, and we may investigate for ourselves into the phenomenon thus lightly referred to, and hence have the satisfaction of knowing that we are not the mere echoes of what we hear from others.

Prof. Earle points to one of those fossils of language which show what the language once was, and which, it may be added, equally show the almost convulsive efforts put forth by the mind in seeking to bring itself in contact with its fellow. Nor does anything more clearly prove the advances made by our race in intellectual power than do these very conjunctions. They afford evidence that the mind, after getting a full grasp of the thought conveyed in a combination of conceptions, has passed on to regarding that combination as itself a unit—a single conception, and has sought and established a connection between this and another unit similarly formed, and established it by the same means as before, the gesture speech. The same, but yet no longer what it was at first, it has been spiritualized, so to speak; for now the association is no longer between a physical object and some mood of that object, but between mental conceptions alone, where no assistance can be gained from physical movement, but where the whole must be mental.

A common illustration of this conjunction is *that*, which is often pointed out in our grammars as really a pronoun, referring to its substantive idea in the statement that follows. Nothing can be

clearer than this. But, through the operation of unconscious logic, as this word and the thought-group following signify the same thing, we deem it superfluous to have both; the part not self-significant being the one that can be dispensed with, is consequently often omitted, but only in one construction, the objective. The moment this thought-unit is made the subject, as we call it, *that* reappears as the first word—expletive, redundant or some other name our grammarians call it. Call it custom, habit, what we will, we have not yet thrown off that mark of association. I may even venture to say that we feel its necessity, for even in the objective construction we feel that something has dropped out. Undoubtedly, the time will come when this expletive initial *that*, as well as the object *that*, will be dropped. But as yet, though we may readily say, "I see you are unaware of the occurrence"—omitting the associative *that*, yet we cannot say, "You are unaware of the occurrence is plain." We must place *that* at the beginning. If we are asked what is the office or function of *that* in this place, we should be at loss to tell. Only through this principle that I have indicated can its character be seen and seen clearly.

Let us look now at one of our very newest conjunctions, *because*. Apparently, there is nothing of the demonstrative character here; but passing over the "*be*," which, however, Skeat's dictionary says is pronominal, we find in Chaucer and elsewhere, that the older expression was "*be* (*by*) *the cause that*." If Skeat's statement about *be* is correct, then there are here *three* pronominal words, three index-hands indicating the association, and it may well be said that this would almost show a convulsive effort on the part of the mind in establishing the association. *The*, a form of *that*, is itself demonstrative, and as such is valueless, unless it points to some definite object, mental or physical. It is not *cause* that it points to primarily, but to something that is itself the cause—the character of "cause" being the function of what *the* points to. "*By* THE *cause*." "What cause?" we may ask. We don't know it yet. Again the mental finger is raised in "*that*," as it points to the thought-group that follows, and we have the chasm bridged by these two mental timbers.

There is still another phenomenon here. Both *the* and *that* have disappeared from the combination, though the latter is seen at times yet. It would seem that this young conjunction, with no history to fall back upon, has had to be content with merely a formal introduction into the language, its two sponsors immediately retiring. In other words, this omission of the associative words points, as in the case of "*that*" formerly referred to, to the fact that we are beginning to feel less need of these physical or gesture helps to association, and to rely upon the character of the associated words, as well for thought-groups as for functions of individual words. May we not explain by this principle, Mr. Earle's statement that the modern tendency is to make less use of conjunctions than heretofore, and to rely more upon

the thought expressed in consecutive sentences to indicate a connection between them?

Many other conjunctions have a history like that of *because*, such as *while*, the older form being *the while that*, where *while* is purely substantive, the *the* and *that* pointing forward to a fact stated immediately after. "In order that" will soon drop *that*, and *in* will probably combine with *order* as *be* has with *cause*. All prepositions that have passed into conjunctions, as we term it, originally show the same association with *that*; indeed, this association often reappears in some out-of-the-way turns of a sentence in our English of to-day; *after that*, *before that*, *for that*, are seen very frequently. Thus, from the parsing point of view, *that* is the object of the preposition, the clause following being in apposition to it, and when *that* drops out, the clause itself is the object of the preposition.

Though *that*, with its various case-forms and combinations, such as *thus*, *the*, *though*, *then*, *lest*, is by far the most frequently used of these associative pronouns, yet others, such as *as*, *so*, are very common. But it is needless to dwell upon them here. I shall examine only one more of them. Let us take the sentence, "When you spoke I stood up." We call *when* an adverbial conjunction; now, this *when* is the accusative (objective) case of the pronoun *who*, a pronoun that in earlier stages of the language, always pointed to some vague, indefinite, or unnamed object, a function it still retains, except in one instance. How this particular case of *who* came to be associated with the idea of time, we need not inquire now. The sentence given, then, will mean, "You spoke at some point of time not named; I stood up." It will be seen that there is no associative element here—nothing to connect the one fact with the other; *when* points only to some unknown hour in which the speaking took place; a connective is certainly needed, and we find it in the word *then*, which has dropped out on the principle before referred to, but which is still often present in such sentences, and may be readily inserted here. "*When* you spoke, *then* I stood up." "You spoke at some time or hour which I am ignorant of; whatever hour that was, I stood up at it." The *then* points backward to what makes it significant.

I need scarcely say that our old English shows the same principle in its associatives even more fully than does the modern. I quote one or two little sentences from Sweet's Primer: "On *thæm* lande eardodon Engle ær *thæm the* hie hider on land cōmon," "Nese, *thy* læs ge thone hwæte āwyrtwalien," "Dryten astag nither to *thæm thæt* he gesawe thā burg." In these we plainly see the *that*, but doubled; again as if the association could be formed only with difficulty.

I have not time to speak of other pronominal conjunctions; but this I must say, that until in the higher forms of our schools these words are looked at in their true character as pronouns, this principle of association, this connective element, will not be grasped. But in studying it we must simply lay aside preconceived notions, previous

teaching and all else that will hamper our free search, and look not only AT but INTO the language itself. That must be ever our book to study from—is the book that is open alike to teacher and to taught.

I hold that these demonstrative words, with their accompanying gestures, are the most natural and therefore the earliest associative element. It has not yet been shown what is the origin of case inflection. Prof. Sayce and others think it will probably be seen to be purely pronominal in its character; certain it is that it is associative, the fundamental part of the word bringing up an object to the mind, and the added sound indicating an association with something else. The whole is therefore a little sentence in its way. One is tempted to regard adjective inflection in the same light—pronominal, pointing to the association of the ideas contained in the words themselves.

But I merely mention these, not dwell on them, and pass on to another, and what I must consider a much later because a much more intellectual principle of association, namely, that in which the idea expressed by one word suggests something further, such as is found in what we term *prepositions* and *transitive* verbs, for the same idea is in both. Here, if I may so speak, the mind supplies its own associative element. The word *to* suggests an *end*, an object in *view*; *strike* or *cut* suggests some object affected, and it is merely needful to utter a name when in both cases the association will be established at once. It will readily be perceived in this connection that where a verb does not by itself suggest anything further, that a preposition following immediately would do so; and hence our likelihood to look upon the two as forming one idea, which is certainly often the case as is evidenced by our free use of what we call "the object of a preposition becoming the subject of a verb in the passive voice."

And now in conclusion I may say that I have merely touched my subject; but it will repay the closest investigation to anyone who will bring a patient mind to bear on it—patient and unprejudiced. And I know of no more exquisite pleasure than in tracking the methods of work of our human mind, methods that leave their traces everywhere in the language. In this pursuit the history of language is essential, but only as a means to an end, not the end itself.

I have confined myself wholly, or nearly so, to our own language, for I feel sure that very much good work can be done in this logical view of language, without reference to any other tongue, though undoubtedly much assistance by way of illustration may be obtained by bringing before the student the fact that the same principles or methods prevail in other languages than our own.

FRENCH AND GERMAN TEXT READING FROM A LITERARY STANDPOINT.

J. N DALES, B.A., KINGSTON.

I do not propose in this paper to enter into the subject of literary æsthetics in connection with French and German, but only so much of the literary in contradistinction with the purely grammatical as concerns the education of High School pupils. Language is both a means and an end. In its varied forms it serves as a medium for the expression of the whole range of man's nature. Without it there could be no Grammar and no Literature. The former has no existence apart from language. It must grow out of, rest on, and continually refer back to the matter of words and sentences. Neither could Literature, which is the complex in language, exist without, or prior to, the simple element. Grammar is not an end but a means. True, we could not dispense with it as a practical auxiliary and stepping-stone by which we can more readily understand a foreign language, nor should the accuracy which it contributes to a pupil's judgment be overlooked, but the learning of the whole body of any Grammar with all the examples and exceptions tagged on, will not necessarily make a pupil correct or appreciative in his estimate of language or of Literature.

Grammar, while it disciplines the mind, does not train, feed or nourish it, and hence does not give it any power over language.

To determine in some degree the nature of the educational benefit afforded by the study of modern languages from a literary standpoint, and to indicate in a general way how it can be acquired by the pupil with the teacher's assistance, is the object of this paper. In doing so, we shall try to keep in view the requirements, not only of the intending matriculant, but also of the large majority of our pupils who never enter a college, and who look to High School teachers to provide them with a literary outfit for the intellectual necessities of everyday life.

At the outset let us more clearly define our position. Our best educationalists affirm that these languages are taught in order that pupils may be able to think, to speak, to read and to write in them.

The order is significant. It is not proposed to burden the memory of pupils with numerous rules and more numerous exceptions, but it is intended that pupils should be trained to use French and German as instruments of thought and communication.

It will be necessary then that the teacher be able to converse on ordinary topics in both languages, and that his familiarity also with the spoken language should enable him to appreciate colloquialisms in

all their fulness. In short, unless he can take the place of the characters in the story, and feel, speak and act with them, the united labors of both teacher and pupil will result only in a bald, mechanical parody of the original. Especially is such knowledge of everyday speech indispensable in the work prescribed for the present school year. Utterances like those of Scipio and Bolz are grasped only when the pupil realizes what these characters would say if they were talking English.

A word now about the assigning of lessons. An unfortunate practice obtains of giving a page more or less as the lesson. This is contrary to the idea of unity which the pupil *should be* taught to consider an essential element of all literary work. Should a part of the story not readily admit of subdivision for teaching purposes, it is better first to draw out the main characters and incidents, leaving the rest of the work for a subsequent exercise.

With a definite aim, a teacher able to make pupils appreciate the lesson, and the latter properly assigned, much has been done in the right direction, but with these favorable conditions there is yet room to err by the way. Many teachers are in the habit of asking pupils to read in a foreign language before ascertaining whether they have even looked at the lesson. But how can pupils read what they do not in the least understand.

They may be able to pronounce the words, but that is not reading. In English we do not expect pupils to read what they do not understand. If this is important with respect to their own language, about the meaning of which we may fairly suppose they know something, how much more should it be necessary in foreign language of whose breadth and depth they know next to nothing, but which presents just as much claim to our appreciative reading?

Neither should a future lesson be translated for a class. It is difficult to see how teachers who pursue this plan can consistently object to their pupils using a crib. In each case the pupils learn to depend on outside help, and if they continue their studies in college will regret that they were not taught how to study and appreciate things for themselves, instead of having their translations doled out to them. Besides, all interest in the next lesson is gone. None but the most earnest will look at it again before the recitation, when copious marginal and interlinear notes secured from the teacher's translation will enable them to pass muster. Amidst the bustle of life, as well as on the fateful examination day, all that is of any use to us is what we know at sight. There is little time for laborious synthetical processes such as most of us have experienced in our first attempts at conversation in a foreign language. The schoolroom, therefore, should not be merely a recitation hall, but a training ground where pupils are instructed in accordance with natural laws to interpret and speak for themselves.

Nor should the reading of a text be interspersed with grammatical

drill. Doubtless, we are all willing to admit that if an English master should turn aside every few minutes from poetic considerations in order to take up gender terminations and the parts of verbs, we should consider the lesson badly taught. Hence it is better not to distract attention in this way, but to afford opportunities for such exercises at stated times unless it be a matter of a semi-literary nature which will throw more light on the author's meaning.

Furthermore, as our teaching is determined to a certain extent by the departmental examiner, we venture the opinion that he might aid us materially. Where two papers are set, would it not be well to confine the literary part of the subject to one paper, and the purely grammatical part to the other? We are willing to concede the importance of the latter kind of questions in certain connections, but think that surely the most important object of reading an author is to understand his or her spirit and meaning. Works are not selected by those who frame our curriculums because they furnish grammatical grinds, but rather on account of the position they take as specimens of literature. That this position is not only tenable, but fair and reasonable, we think none will deny, and it is moreover the only just way of estimating the work done by both teacher and pupil.

If then we are to attain the ends contemplated at the outset, we should, first, by reading the extract aloud, convey as much as possible of its spirit to the class. Next proceed to draw out the characters mentioned, in order that the pupils may invest these men and women with the thoughts and actions ascribed to them by the author. Then the teacher, by taking as a basis what vocabulary they have already acquired, can impress meanings of new words by comparisons and distinctions, and finally lay before the pupils a life-size view of the whole scene. Translation and reading should only be allowed after pupils fully understand the author's meaning. Space will not permit further details, but we think enough has been said already to make our meaning clear. Our main contention is that to the study of French and German should be applied so far as is expedient those principles and methods which have during the last few years produced in the study of our own tongue results so momentous, and which have raised it from a dull, lifeless drill in analysis and parsing to one of the most interesting and valuable subjects of the High School course.

AMONG THE FRENCH AND GERMAN REVIEWS.*

I. FRENCH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE.

BY JOHN HOME CAMERON, B.A.

At the head of the philological and literary reviews in France devoted to Romance languages, stands *Romania*, edited by Gaston Paris and Paul Meyer. It was founded in 1872 by the same men, who have contributed, during its twenty-one years of existence, more than a quarter of what has appeared in its pages. It occupies the highest place among all the European reviews in all that concerns old French literature and philology. There are four numbers a year, each containing from 150 to 200 pages.

The *Revue de philologie française et provençale* is a quarterly of modest appearance, conducted by Léon Clédat, a professor in Lyons. The editor is one of the leaders in the reform of French orthography, and he has adopted three reforms in the printing of his review: the substitution of *s* for *x* in most cases; the adoption of final *t* in the 3rd pers. sing. of all verbs, and the rejection of all mute letters before *s* in the 1st and 2nd persons; and the dropping of one *l* or *t* where two occur together in verbs in *eler* and *eter*. Clédat strongly approves of the changes proposed last January in the French Academy by the *Commission du dictionnaire*, but would prefer to see them introduced gradually.

In the meantime, he and other spelling-reformers—among whom there are the most eminent men of letters and philologists in France, on the classical side as well as the modern—are endeavoring to get a regulation passed which, in all the government examinations, shall forbid the counting as errors in spelling, the consistent departures from present usage that the Academy Commission has recommended. Among these reforms are the following, which are of peculiar interest to foreigners, as indicating the direction in which the changes must sooner or later be made: the dropping of hyphens in all compounds, except those forming four categories specified; the abolition of the circumflex accent, and the consistent application of the grave and the acute; the removal of inconsistencies in the gender or spelling of words from the same etymological primitives; the abolition of the differences according to position of *demi*, *tout*, *même*; the simplification of the double and triple consonants silent in pronunciation; substitution of *ant* for *ent* in *président*, *affluent*, *expédient*, and the like; change of *x* to *s* in plurals and in certain verbs.

*French periodicals may be conveniently obtained through H. Welter, Libraire-éditeur, 59 rue Bonaparte, Paris; German periodicals, through F. A. Brockhaus, Verlags-Buchhändler, Querstrasse, Leipzig, or Bern. Liebisch, Kurprinzstrasse, 6, Leipzig.

Among the reviews of more general character in which the modern languages are treated, is the *Journal des Savants*, which is, properly speaking, the organ of the *Institut de France* and its five Academies. The articles are usually of a very learned character.

The great *Revue des deux Mondes*, now in its sixty-third year, is rather general than philological, and is too well known to need further mention.

In Germany there are a greater number of reviews interesting to the student of English, French and German. They are all printed in Roman type.

Romanische Forschungen (edited by Karl Volmöller) is interesting only to the specialist.

The *Zeitschrift f. franz. Sprache und Litteratur* (edited by Behrens, Kœrting and Koschwitz) is much more attractive, dealing largely in practical questions. Last year, for instance, one paper consisted of the observations made by the writer in the two first theatres of Paris during the representation of sixteen plays. He noted *liaison*, pronunciation of final consonants, rhetorical accents, and the unaccented *e* in final syllables.

The *Zeitschrift f. romanische Philologie* (edited by Gröber) is a voluminous periodical, covering the whole field of Romance philology, as well as literature and bibliography.

There are several periodicals of especial interest and utility to Canadian teachers. One of the best is *Phonetische Studien* (edited by Vietor), a review "for scientific and practical phonetics, with special reference to the reform of the teaching of languages." There were three numbers in 1892, with about 400 pages, closely printed. R. J. Lloyd continued his papers, in English, on *Speech Sounds, their nature and causation*, one of the most thorough expositions of the subject that have been made. Vietor gathered up the results of his extensive referendum to the teachers of modern languages in the German secondary schools. This consisted of a series of seventeen questions, somewhat the same as those to be submitted shortly to the teachers of Ontario, but dealing rather with the new methods adopted in teaching, and the character of the results obtained. Questions were asked regarding the use of phonetic characters and sound-charts in teaching pronunciation, the extent to which translation into the foreign language is practised, conversation in the foreign language, the inductive teaching of its grammar, and so on. The consensus was very emphatically in favor of the recent changes which have made the study of the living languages something different to the study of the classical.

It should be noted that although *Phonetische Studien* is still published, it is to appear in future as a *Beiblatt* to a new periodical, which has been founded to supply the practical wants created by the reforms just referred to. It is to be known as *Die neuern Sprachen*, and will be edited by Vietor, assisted by two practical teachers, Dörr

and Kühn. It appears in monthly parts (except in March and September) of four sheets 8vo (price 12 marks a year). The prospectus gives promise of an eminently practical magazine for teachers.

Another periodical thoroughly useful to the teacher in the secondary schools (*Gymnasien, Realschulen and Realgymnasien*) is a little monthly, the *Neuphilologisches Centralblatt*, which is the organ of the *Vereine f. neuere Sprachen* throughout Germany. Each number contains thirty-two pages of the most interesting material (price 8 marks a year). Among other things, it publishes one of the most complete lists of books to be found in any periodical appearing in Western Europe, in the department of general literature as well as professional, and an exhaustive list of the articles appearing in the reviews. The *Centralblatt* contained, last year, most significant indications of a profound modification in the aims and purposes of teaching modern languages. The most striking of these were the propositions, reported in full, which were adopted by the fifth congress of the teachers of modern languages in Germany, held in Berlin, in June, last year. These *Thesen* were proposed by Waetzold, of Berlin, and Rambeau, of Hamburg, and dealt with the aims of modern languages teaching, and the training of the teacher for his work. The first of these is defined as being, above all, the practical acquaintance with the languages, spoken as well as written; and, indirectly, the opening up of the whole culture, life and customs of the nations whose languages are studied. The second requires, in consequence, much greater emphasis upon the practical side of training, a residence abroad, facilitated by travelling scholarships and bursaries (*Reisestipendien*). This foreign residence should be made obligatory for all who aspire to teach the living languages, while for teachers who are not able to leave Germany schools should be provided, to make up the loss as far as possible. In the universities, there are needed three professors for each of the foreign languages and their allied tongues; and, in addition, a professor of phonetics alone, who shall treat thoroughly and comparatively the phonetics of German, English and French; and, lastly, a professor of the comparative history of literature.

These propositions were adopted, though not without dissent, by a very large majority of those present, with the express purpose of transmitting them to the Government, so as to get them put into effect. The reasonableness of most of what is asked for follows as a natural consequence from the fact that the State has modified the curriculum of the secondary schools in such a way as to call for these changes in the training of its teachers.

Such facts as these in Germany, the recent organization, in France, of the *Enseignement secondaire moderne*, and the advances made in England by the reconstruction of the Mediæval and Modern Languages Tripos at Cambridge, which is to take effect next year, are notable indications of the rapidity with which the modern languages

are coming to their proper place in the new education. For us in Ontario there is in these things an encouragement and a stimulus to persevere in making our work as thorough and as practical as possible; the rest will take care of itself. But, at any cost, we must know the languages we teach, or how else shall we draw inspiration for ourselves and for those we instruct?

II. GERMAN REVIEWS.

BY G. H. NEEDLER, B.A., PH.D.

In our world of to-day, with its numerous channels for the diffusion of knowledge, a prominent place is held by reviews and magazines of many kinds. It may be, indeed, that the learned world at present suffers from occasional nightmare from partaking too freely of the contents of these. Just as in contemporary verse we are frequently made acquainted with private microscopic sentiments which can be of interest only to the writer, so also in the contemporary magazines of an academic character much is published that is in its very nature of little interest or value to any outside the writer himself. Yet no one can keep pace with the progress of the most active thought of our day, especially in the study of modern languages and literature, without having constant recourse to the reviews in which advances are first chronicled and questions of the day discussed by the foremost authorities. Germany leads the way, both in the number and worth of its magazines devoted to academic work, and the object of this paper is to take a glance at the most important of those dealing with German language and literature.

As confining itself to linguistic researches may be mentioned first the *Zeitschrift für vergleichende Sprachforschung*, familiarly known as Kuhn's *Zeitschrift*. This magazine was founded thirty-two years ago by Adalbert Kuhn, and is now edited by E. Kuhn (Munich) and J. Schmidt (Berlin). In it first appeared the account of the law of grammatic change discovered by Verner. The field of the comparative philology of the Indo-Germanic languages is that to which it is confined. It appears irregularly, practically as a quarterly.

There is a long list of German reviews devoted jointly to language and literature (*i.e.*, the study of literary history, etc.). First in alphabetical order is *Alemannia*, dealing principally with the dialect language and literature of Alemannic territory. It is now in the twentieth year of its existence, is edited by F. Pfaff, and published at Bonn. One of the oldest reviews of this class is the *Archiv für d. Studium d. neueren Sprachen u. Litteraturen*, founded by Ludwig Herrig, now edited by Stephen Waetzoldt and Julius Zupitza, of Berlin. The leading articles are divided about evenly between literature and language, English in the past year coming in for perhaps

the largest share. A considerable portion of each number is taken up with reviews of recent novels, etc., those in English generally being dealt with by Prof. Zupitza, and showing an extraordinary amount of reading in current English literature by the Professor of English at the University of Berlin. Herrig's *Archiv* appears irregularly, two volumes a year, each in four parts. It is now in its eighty-ninth volume. Next comes the *Beiträge zur Geschichte d. deutschen Sprache u. Litteratur*, founded by Hermann Paul and Wilhelm Braune, now edited with their co-operation by Ed. Sievers. Linguistic problems are discussed more than literary ones. This review represents the most modern progressive school of Germanistic study. *Germania* is a quarterly, founded 1856 by Franz Pfeiffer, continued by Karl Bartsch, and since 1888 edited by Otto Behaghel. It is devoted chiefly to linguistic research, text criticism, etc., and contains yearly a very valuable bibliography of the works in Germanistic study, with references to the reviews in which they have been criticised. A very laborious compilation, and a most valuable yearly summary of works in Germanic philology (in the wide sense) is the *Jahresbericht über die Erscheinungen auf d. Gebiete d. german. Philologie*, published since 1879 by the Society for German Philology in Berlin. This is much fuller than the bibliography of *Germania* just mentioned, the volume for 1891 containing nearly 500 pages. There is a concise sketch given of the contents of the works of importance or originality, and also references to the criticism of the works in other reviews, with short indications of the tenor of these. The *Literarisches Centralblatt* is a weekly, founded by Fr. Zarncke at Leipzig, since his death edited by his son, Prof. E. Zarncke, of Leipzig. It is devoted to reviews of new works in all departments of learning. It also contains general information about university life. The English *Athenæum* and *Academy* are of a somewhat similar stamp. Closely resembling the foregoing is the *Literaturblatt für german. u. roman. Philologie*, edited by Otto Behaghel and Fr. Neumann. It appears monthly at Leipzig. The *Zeitschrift für deutsches Alterthum u. deutsche Litteratur* is another voluminous review of a thoroughly academic character. It is edited by E. Schröder, of Marburg and Gustav Röthe, of Göttingen, and its contents fairly evenly divided between linguistic and literary subjects. A large portion of each number is devoted to reviews of recent works, and these are generally written in a refreshingly vigorous style. It is almost unnecessary to say that German university men, like all other large bodies, have their hostile camps; and the reviews are the field in which they not unfrequently meet with fire in their eye. Familiarly known as Zacher's *Zeitschrift*, from its founder, is the *Zeitschrift für deutsche Philologie*, now edited by H. Gering, of Kiel, and Oscar Erdmann, of Halle. Philology in the title has the modern sense; indeed, during 1892 the articles have dealt with literary problems much more than with linguistic ones. Almost all the space is devoted to original contributions, the reviews and notices of new

books, etc., being very few and short. It is also practically a quarterly. Interesting from the purely pedagogical standpoint is the *Zeitschrift für d. deutschen Unterricht*, edited by O. Lyon, of Dresden, with the co-operation of Prof. Hildebrand, of Leipzig. It deals largely with questions concerning practical teaching, and contains also articles on general subjects in German literature, short reviews of recent books, and summaries of the contents of the leading magazines.

In the sphere of literature only may be mentioned three. The *Jahresberichte für neuere deutsche Litteraturgeschichte* are, as the title indicates, a summary. Though only appearing in the first number in 1892, this compiled volume promises to be a veritable mine of information regarding modern German literature. The names of many of the foremost scholars of Germany are among those who have charge of its various departments. They not only enumerate the important works appearing during the year, but give well-arranged abridgments of them with critical comments. *Das Magazin für Litteratur*, a weekly published at Berlin, presents a most interesting phenomenon in contemporary German literature. It is representative of the most modern and radical thought amongst literary men of the present, and is devoted to literature purely. The eminent novelist, Fr. Spielhagen, is a regular contributor, paying special attention to the modern drama. Hermann Sudermann's latest drama, "Heimat," first appeared serially here, while many other well-known authors of a kindred spirit make original contributions regularly. This is the review in which is to be seen most fully the activity of those who are following in the footsteps of "Young Germany." One of the younger quarterlies, dating only from 1888, is the *Vierteljahrschrift für Litteraturgeschichte*, edited by Bernard Seuffert, with the co-operation of Erich Schmidt and Bernard Suphan. It is devoted exclusively to original contributions touching upon literary history, studies in various authors and upon individual works. Almost all its articles have reference to the modern classic period of German literature, and are confined to German.

The most important modern German review of the type of the English *Contemporary* and *Nineteenth Century*, and not of a purely academic nature, is without doubt the *Deutsche Rundschau*, founded at Berlin, in 1874, by Julius Rodenberg, who has up to the present conducted it with great success. It is a regular monthly, but differs from the English reviews named in possessing several permanent features, namely, regular summaries of events in the political world, as well as reviews of recent literary productions. These latter are written exclusively by men high up in the German literary and scholastic world. The names of Herman Grimm and Erich Schmidt, to mention no others, are of frequent occurrence. The *Rundschau* contains on the whole more purely literary contributions than the English reviews of this class, but also speaks out boldly on political questions; and that courage is a virtue not too common in the German

magazines or newspapers. It is impossible here to refer to the variety and excellence of its contents. One of the most important articles of the past year was that by Hermann von Helmholtz on "Goethe's Anticipation of Scientific Ideas," being an address delivered by the renowned physicist before the Goethe Society at Weimar on June 11th, 1892. Ernst von Wildenbruch contributed a story during the past year. Well-known authorities write on political, literary and musical subjects of the day. Paul Heyse is at present contributing a series of *Novellen*, in which he excels, under the general title *In der Geisterstunde*. The *Deutsche Rundschau* is the meeting-place of the most enlightened contemporary thought of Germany.

In conclusion the *Hochschul-Nachrichten* may be mentioned, a monthly review of events and doings in the universities and schools of Germany, with reports from all over the world. It is published at Munich. About half of each number is devoted to academic questions of the day. This is the paper in which is to be found most conveniently an account of passing events in the Germany university world.

The list here given includes only the more important of the reviews, but is sufficient to show how great is the activity amongst those who are the teachers of the German nation. No matter what may be its weaknesses or its drawbacks from our New World point of view, Germany is in the realm of higher education the ideal land of thoroughness and untiring zeal. Though being content with less of political freedom than we are accustomed to look upon as a necessity, the German reserves to himself a field where he knows no trammels and his view is unbounded—the field of mental activity. At the university his studies are optional in the freest possible way. He may attend what and how many different universities he will in preparing for his final degree. Examinations during his course are a thing unknown, all work is voluntary, and the time of the final examination, which apart from the written dissertation is altogether oral, he may fix at his pleasure. In this field of study, where so much freedom exists and where zeal never flags, the contents of the reviews cited above represent the natural products.

For those who would welcome any means of keeping up a knowledge of passing events in the sphere of German study, great assistance is to be found amongst these reviews. The *Deutsche Rundschau* (*a*) affords the best general reading, the *Magazin für Litteratur* (*b*) furnishes literature of most modern type, the *Hochschul-Nachrichten* (*c*) information regarding doings at the universities, the *Zeitschrift für den deutschen Unterricht* (*d*) is interesting to the teacher in his practice. Individual articles in all the reviews are of great value, but the subjects they deal with are of course sooner or later presented more conveniently for general purposes in book form. Of these four mentioned, the prices, delivered in Canada by post, are as follows:—

(*a*) 28 Marks 80 Pf. per year. Address: Die Expedition der

"Deutschen Rundschau" (Gebrüder Paetel) Berlin W., Lützowstrasse 7.

(*b*) 16 M. per year. Otto Neumann-Hofer, Berlin W., Lützow-Ufer 13.

(*c*) 4 M. 60 Pf. Dr. Paul von Salvisberg, Red. d. Hochschul-Nachrichten, Munich, Maximilianstr, 20 b.

(*d*) 10 M. 20 Pf. (exclusive of postage). Dr. Otto Lyon, Dresden, Gutzowstr 24II.

NOTE.—Any of these reviews may be obtained also through either of the Leipzig booksellers named in the note to Mr. Cameron's article preceding.

SHAKESPEARE AND MALHERBE—A CONTRAST.

BY J. SQUAIR, B.A.

The literature of the age of Elizabeth is the peculiar glory of Englishmen, and that of the age of Louis XIV., the peculiar glory of Frenchmen. They very nearly correspond in time, and they both drew their inspiration from the revival of learning, and yet they are as different from each other as can be well imagined. The ideal of Elizabethan literature is rich, poetical imagery; that of French classicism, sonorous eloquence. The former might be compared to a primæval forest of America, where no art has interfered with the rich prodigality of nature; the latter to one such as the beautiful forest of Saint-Germain-en-Laye, where art has restrained the exuberance of nature and replaced her chaotic splendor by the more sober attractions of order. Elizabethan literature is rich in lyric qualities, in humor, pathos and deep feeling; French classicism, in keen satire, dignified eloquence, sonorous phrasing and pithy epigram. Elizabethan literature shows a freedom in all matters of form which is unknown to French classicism, ever willing, nay, anxious, to impose upon itself all the restrictions it can discover in the rules and maxims of preceding ages.

The question naturally presents itself, What were the causes which produced these remarkable differences? Without attempting to exhaust the subject, let me call your attention to two sets of factors which are of prime importance, viz., the condition of affairs in France and England, and the two men, Malherbe and Shakespeare, whose genius, fitting into this condition of affairs in each country, made them the greatest in their own generation, and the models to succeeding generations.

Two capital points in the history of France and England during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries are the settlement of the religious disputes growing out of the Reformation, and of the disputes regarding the real seat of authority in the government of the nation—the legacy of the period of destruction of the social and political order of the Middle Ages.

In England the new views prevailed. Protestantism became the religion of the State, and the Parliament, ever sturdy and resolute, continued to offer resistance to the king, until the disputes culminated in revolution and regicide. The influence upon the national life was towards the evoking of individual enterprise, and independence of thought and action, rather than of dignity and admiration for orderly and becoming deeds. The calmness and self-complacency with which

Frenchmen viewed themselves and their achievements were replaced in England by anxious solicitude regarding the serious problems of national defence and eternal salvation. To them the most important thing about a play or a poem was that it should appeal strongly to their deeper feelings; there might be imperfect passages, but if it stirred the heart and imagination, the imperfections were condoned.

In France, both points of dispute were settled in the way which conduced to immediate national peace and unity, that is, by refusing to adopt the new—ever difficult to incorporate. The turning-point in France was the accession of Henri IV to the throne. He, by allaying the disputes between Catholics and Protestants, took the first step in the unification of the French people. During the reign of his successor, Louis XIII, the central authority was further consolidated by the strong hand of Richelieu, and the foundations were laid for that solidity and unity of national life which characterized the reign of Louis XIV. The great length of this monarch's reign also contributed its share to the feeling of national security, superiority and dignity, which we know to have inspired the hearts of the men of his kingdom. Hence *taste* became the criterion regarding the merit of works. Whoever would have violated the canons, elaborated with infinite minuteness by the critics of the times, would have been condemned, no matter how strong he might have been in his capacity to rouse the deeper sentiments of the heart or fancy. If he lacked in calmness, dignity and evenness, he was declared lacking in the essential qualities of a literary artist. Soberness and common sense became the watchwords of the critics, and no one was allowed to enter the sacred precincts of the temple of poesy, if he were not able to produce good proofs of his complete immunity from all forms of exaltation or poetic fury.

Hence they looked on the writers of their own Renaissance period as unworthy of respect, although some of these showed that in very important features they were real poets. Boileau, the lawgiver of Parnassus in the seventeenth century, said of Ronsard (1524-1585), the chief of the group of Renaissance poets called the *Pléiade:*

> "Ronsard qui le suivit, par une autre méthode,
> Réglant tout, brouilla tout, fit un art à sa mode:
> Et toutefois longtemps eut un heureux destin.
> Mais sa Muse, en français parlant grec et latin,
> Vit dans l'âge suivant, par un retour grotesque,
> Tomber de ses grands mots le faste pédantesque."[1]

And Balzac, also, reproaches him with his bold license, his careless style, and his affectation of introducing the idioms of other languages into French. But Boileau and Balzac agree in speaking of Malherbe

[1] *L'art poétique*, Chant I, 123-128.

(1555-1628), some thirty years younger than Ronsard, as the first of real poets in France. Boileau says:

"Enfin Malherbe vint; et le premier en France,
Fit sentir dans les vers une juste cadence:
D'un mot mis en sa place enseigna le pouvoir,
Et réduisit la Muse aux règles du devoir.
Par ce sage écrivain, la langue réparée
N'offrit plus rien de rude à l'oreille épurée.
Les stances avec grâce apprirent à tomber;
Et le vers sur le vers n'osa plus enjamber.
Tout reconnut ses lois, et ce guide fidèle
Aux auteurs de ce temps sert encor de modèle.
Marchez donc sur ses pas, aimez sa pureté,
Et de son tour heureux imitez la clarté.
Si le sens de vos vers tarde à se faire entendre,
Mon esprit aussitôt commence à se détendre;
Et de vos vains discours prompt à se détacher,
Ne suit point un auteur qu'il faut toujours chercher."[1]

Let us enquire a little more particularly who this man Malherbe was, to whom such a high position is accorded by Boileau. He was born in 1555, nine years before Shakespeare, and died in 1628, twelve years after Shakespeare. He belonged to a *famille de robe* of the town of Caen, in Normandy, and reflected both his Norman extraction and the occupation of his family in his contentious nature. After having studied in Caen, Paris, Heidelberg and Bâle, he refused to enter the legal profession, and thus offended his father, who from this time favored strongly an elder brother. This led to a quarrel with his brother, which ended in a lawsuit and a complete rupture, on account of which the earlier part of Malherbe's career was much embittered.

At an early age, however, he had acquired a reputation for his smooth verses, and at seventeen he was received under the patronage of the Grand Prieur de France, Henri d'Angoulême, who held court at Aix in Provence. At the age of twenty-one he entered the army, and took part in the wars of the League. In 1586 his protector died, and for a number of years he lived in straitened circumstances. At last, in 1605, after having composed an ode of welcome to Marie de Médicis on her arrival in France in 1600, and after having been recommended to the king by influential persons, as being the most accomplished poet of his age, he was installed as court poet. He remained the favorite of Henri IV. during the lifetime of that monarch, receiving an income from various sinecures, and having his *appartements* in the Louvre and at Fontainebleau, and continued, after the assassination of the king, to receive similar bounties under the succeeding *régime* until his death, in 1628.

[1] *Ibid.*, 131-146. Every line of this passage is of the greatest interest, not only as showing us what Malherbe was, but also what Boileau and the men of his times considered the essentials of poetry. It is a veritable *credo* for classicists.

Fortunately for posterity, Racan, a disciple and admirer of Malherbe, has recorded a number of interesting anecdotes concerning his master, which help us to form a good idea of his nature. For the purposes of this paper I make the following selections from Racan:

"M. de Meziriac accompagné de deux ou trois de ses amis, lui apportant un livre d'arithmétique d'un auteur grec, nommé Diophante, qu'il avait commenté, et ses amis louant extraordinairement ce livre, comme fort utile au public, Malherbe leur demanda s'il ferait amender le pain."

"Il fit presque une même réponse à un gentilhomme de la religion, qui l'importunait de controverses, lui demandant pour toute réplique, si l'on boirait de meilleur vin, et si on vivrait de meilleur blé à la Rochelle qu'à Paris."

"Il n'estimait aucun des anciens poètes français, qu'un peu Bertaut: encore, disait-il, que pour mettre une pointe à la fin, il faisait les trois derniers vers insupportables."

"Il avait été ami de Regnier le satirique, et l'estimait en son genre à l'égal des Latins; mais il survint entre eux un divorce, dont voici la cause. Etant allés dîner ensemble chez l'Abbé Desportes, oncle de Regnier, ils trouvèrent qu'on avait déjà servi les potages; Desportes se levant de table avec grande civilité, et offrant de lui donner un exemplaire de ses Psaumes, qu'il avait nouvellement faits, comme il se mit en devoir de monter en son cabinet, pour l'aller querir, Malherbe lui dit, qu'il les avait déja vus, que cela ne méritait pas qu'il prît cette peine, et que son potage valait mieux que ses Psaumes."

"Il n'estimait point du tout les Grecs, et particulièrement il s'était déclaré ennemi du galimatias de Pindare. Pour les Latins, celui qu'il amait le plus était Stace, et après lui Sénèque le tragique, Horace, Juvenal, Ovide et Martial. Il faisait peu de cas des poètes italiens, et disait que tous les sonnets de Petrarque étaient à la grecque, aussi bien que les épigrammes de Mademoiselle de Gournay."[1]

"Il avait aversion des fictions poétiques, et en lisant une élégie de Regnier à Henri le Grand, où il feint que la France s'enleva en l'air pour parler à Jupiter, et se plaindre du misérable état où elle était pendant la Ligue, il demandait à Regnier en quel temps cela était arrivé et disait qu'il avait toujours demeuré en France depuis cinquante ans, et qu'il ne s'était point aperçu qu'elle se fût enlevée hors de sa place."

"Quand on lui parlait des affaires d'état, il avait toujours ce mot en la bouche: qu'il ne fallait point se mêler de la conduite d'un vaisseau où l'on n'était que simple passager."

"Il ne s'épargnait pas lui-même en l'art où il excellait, il disait souvent à Racan: Voyez-vous, monsieur, si nos vers vivent par après nous, toute la gloire que nous en pouvons espérer, est qu'on dira que nous avons été deux excellents arrangeurs de syllabes."

"Il parlait fort ingénument de toutes choses, et avait un grand mépris pour les sciences, particulièrement pour celles qui ne servent qu'aux plaisirs

[1] This may appear strange to many. We are apt to imagine that classicism had its sole origin in the imitation of the writers of antiquity. We see from this, however, that the father of classicism in France set small store by the Greek poets. The probability is that there would have been a classical period in France, even although Greek had never existed.

des yeux, et des oreilles, comme la peinture, la musique et même la poésie ; sur quoi Bordier se plaignant à lui, qu'il n'y avait des récompenses, que pour ceux qui servaient le roi dans les armées, et dans les affaires, et qu'on abandonnait ceux qui excellaient dans les belles-lettres ; il répondit que c'était en user fort sagement, et qu'il y avait de la sottise de faire un metier de la poésie, et qu'on n'en devait point espérer d'autre récompense que son plaisir, et qu'un bon poète n'était pas plus utile à l'état, qu'un bon joueur de quilles."

Malherbe, then, was a man of a dry and caustic wit, of few words, of strong common sense, prosy, distrustful of poetic figures, and little inclined to go into raptures regarding the importance of the poetic calling; and coming, as he did, into the position of court poet, if we may thus speak, after having attained the comparatively ripe age of fifty years, he was past the point at which he would be subject to ebullitions of youthful sentiment or fancy. Ready to take a practical, humdrum view of all matters, he was not one likely to become an innovator; rather, he would be ready to bow to what the majority of steady-going people demanded, and, fortunately for him, they demanded what he was best fitted to give. From one like him we should expect short, matter-of-fact, sententious and highly-polished poems, and such work fitted the taste of the time. People had had Rabelais and the *Pléiade*, with their free handling of topics and forms, but the day for that was past. The time had come when a cleverly turned epigram was more highly valued than an outburst of passion, and eloquent periods than the most deeply suggestive musings. What a genius of the type of Shakespeare might have done at this moment, had he appeared, it is idle to conjecture. The probability is, that he would have fitted so badly into the conditions that his work would have had small influence. At all events, no such one appeared; no one came to hamper the growing strength of classicism.

Malherbe came at a time when, after long, confused struggles, during which the nation had suffered degradation, there was arising a new vigor under the shelter of unity and order. The national bent was towards the holding in check of individual views and ideals —the cause of much disorder previously—and the subordination of them to those wider aspirations in which all Frenchmen participated. Malherbe, a true son of his times, shared this spirit, and, practical withal, made his poetry conform to it. Hence his poetry is for the most part on topics of general interest, many of them being what were considered of high national importance: the arrival of the Queen in France; the departure of the King on various expeditions; the good government of the Queen during the Regency; the sagacity of Richelieu; the siege of La Rochelle by the King (Louis XIII), and the like. Some of his poems, indeed, are occasioned by events in connection with less distinguished persons, as for instance, his *Consolation à M. du Perrier*, on the death of the daughter of that gentleman, in which occur such well-known lines as:

"Et Rose elle a vécu ce que vivent les roses."

Or,

"Le pauvre en sa cabane, où le chaume le couvre,
Est sujet à ses lois ;
Et la garde qui veille aux barrières du Louvre
N'en défend point nos rois."

But it will be noticed that even here the subject 'death' is treated as a matter of interest to men generally, rather than as a source of sorrow to the friend to whom he addresses the *Consolation*.

This predominence of general interests over particular is a very important point in considering the literature of the period we are discussing. The subordination of the individual mind to the general exercised the most profound influence on both the form and the matter of literature. As to matter, we have just seen how it led Malherbe to choose subjects of national interest, but this was not all. Even in the discussion of national subjects, the poet was discouraged from expressing his own views on those subjects, and was content to confine himself to the general opinion regarding them. Literature became impersonal and formal. Since the poet could not express his own thoughts, he could not feel strongly, and consequently, passion was eliminated from literature. Deep feeling was replaced by high polish.

In matters of form the influences were also deep. In the first place simplicity was required. Since the poet's function was not primarily, as many of our century affirm, to express his own thoughts and feelings, merely for his own gratification, it was necessary that they should be in forms that all could understand and enjoy. Simple, well-established forms, simple rhythms, orderly grammatical constructions, and a vocabulary easily understood were the things sought after. The death-blow was dealt to the tendencies aroused by the Renaissance towards new inventions in form of poem, grammatical structure or vocabulary.

Secondly, dignity was encouraged. 'National' to Malherbe did not mean what it means to-day; it was a synonym of 'aristocratic' rather than of 'democratic.' As the tastes of the people were but slightly consulted in politics, so no one took much heed of them in poetry. The rhythms and all else were intended for courtiers' ears, and whatever smacked of *license* was frowned upon. The story is, indeed, told of Malherbe that he would consult the *crocheteurs du Port-au-foin* regarding verses, but if he ever really did so, it must have been on one point only, that is, as to whether the verses were capable of easy comprehension even by the most illiterate. Their opinions where *taste* was involved he would have valued but lightly.

This matter of dignity had far-reaching bearings. Let us note two things in which its narrowing influence was felt: the choice of words and the choice of metaphors. Dignified language is mostly

that which has long been consecrated by usage, so the classical poets eschewed neologisms. To preserve dignity they avoided also dialectal speech, and so excluded themselves from much that is touching and picturesque. The simple words of homely life were often discarded to be replaced by what they considered elegant periphrases. In the matter of metaphors, only a limited number could be used. The bold, daring metaphors which give life to the pages of Shakespeare could not be tolerated. A metaphor is, at all times, an awkward thing to manage; you are so apt to suggest some incongruous picture, particularly to people afflicted with too much refinement, that what you hope is bold is only perhaps ridiculous. So the use of metaphors involving the poetry and mythology of the ancients became common, and the abuse of these, and the almost utter lack of the use of other kinds, led to the development of a dry, barren formality.

But what contributed to the impoverishment of poetry was really no hindrance to the development of prose; rather, it helped it greatly. The restraints imposed by the tastes of the times tended to the perfecting of that clear, sententious, orderly style which is one of the glories of French literature. The loss in fancy was counterbalanced by the great gain in eloquence. What was lost in picturesqueness was made up for in pithiness. The same forces, which made the poetry of Malherbe, Boileau, and even of La Fontaine weak in lyric qualities, produced the dignified grandeur of Bossuet and the polished conciseness of Pascal. But lack of space forbids enlarging on this theme.

We might now show how Shakespeare fitted into the condition of the times in which he lived in England, but we have not space, nor is it, indeed, necessary, seeing that it is a subject so familiar to all. Suffice it to say that the free, bold energy of Shakespeare responded to what was demanded of him by the enterprising spirit of his contemporaries, and the result was the production of that rich, suggestive poetry which has been the admiration, in varying degrees of strength, it is true, of all generations of Englishmen since his day.

Thus do Malherbe and Shakespeare occupy important positions in the history of their respective nations, and in that of humanity at large. Malherbe, although inferior to Shakespeare in genius, has had almost as much influence on men as Shakespeare, simply because he was able to fill well the place made for him by the concurrence of events. For more than two centuries the ideals consecrated by his works were carefully followed by his countrymen, not without bad results, it is true, yet with some results which might satisfy the ambition of any master of men. Nor were the influences confined to France. Even England felt their strength, and for a time it seemed as if the worship of classicism would destroy the affection of the nation for the freer ideals of Elizabethanism. But, I suppose, there were hidden away, here and there, the seven thousand who never bowed to Baal. The influence of Shakespeare reasserted itself

amongst a people who could not be got to learn the lesson of centralized absolutism. A reaction came, the old forces of lyricism showed themselves again, and gave birth to Cowper and Burns, and the more brilliant host who lighted up the beginning of the present century.

In the end, too, came the reaction in France against what was felt to be the cramping restrictions of classicism. Why was it so much slower in coming than in England? It would seem natural to suppose that a literary revolution would be more easily accomplished than a political one. And yet why did it not come sooner than thirty or forty years after the political revolution? A part of the explanation will be found in the fact that Malherbe with his prosy qualities fitted so exactly into the orderly conditions, social and political, of the period in which he lived. He did his work so well that it perpetuated itself long after the circumstances of which it was the natural accompaniment.

On the other hand England's inability to adopt thoroughly the classical ideals, and her easy emancipation from them, are, in a large measure, due to the fact that the fertile genius of Shakespeare was placed in the set of turbulent circumstances which filled England at the moment of his appearance.

HISTORY OF ENGLISH LITERATURE IN HIGH SCHOOLS.

BY W. J. SYKES, B.A.

Some years ago the course in English Literature for the upper forms of our High Schools, consisted largely in mastering the contents of a text-book on the History of English Literature. Such a state of affairs has fortunately become a thing of the past, and for some time almost no attention has been paid to this side of the subject. Certainly the History of Literature should never be allowed to take the place of Literature itself in our course of study, and yet it may not be wise totally to disregard this subject, which would form a valuable supplement to the work done both in History and in Literature.

What knowledge of English Literature—as a connected whole—is possessed by the graduate of our High Schools? At present the Junior Leaving Classes gain no knowledge of English Literature outside of the works of the author prescribed for examination. In the history read by this form, scarcely any reference to English Literature is made. Mr. Green held that, in the History of England, since 1660, Pitt's finance and cotton-spinning played a more important part than literature. In the history read by Senior Leaving pupils are found excellent and sufficiently lengthy sketches of the works of Chaucer, Spencer, Shakespeare and Milton. Candidates for specialists' certificates, unless they choose the Department of English and History, add nothing to their knowledge of English Literature. Thus we may have teachers of all grades in our Public Schools, High School assistants, principals of Model Schools and Public School inspectors, who know almost nothing of the literature of England since 1660. Dryden and Pope, Gray and Cowper, Burns and Wordsworth, Byron and Shelley, Keats, Tennyson and Browning may be to them nothing but names.

Of what value is a study of the History of English Literature? First, it discloses and maps out for the student a field rich with treasures. It is more important that this be done in the case of Literature than with any other subject, as this study is more likely to be pursued after leaving school. It is the duty of every teacher of English to direct the attention of the student to the great masterpieces and masterwriters that are so much more worthy of our study than the ephemeral literature of the day. Secondly, such a study acts as an incentive to read good literature, and if properly pursued will secure a wider reading of the classics of our language. Thirdly, such a study will give a unity and system to the knowledge of literature the student may acquire. English Literature will not then

be to him "a thing of shreds and patches," but a continuous, harmonious whole. Fourthly, the history of the nation is incomplete without some outline of its literature. It surely is as important that the student know something of Wordsworth, Bryon and Shelley as that he be familiar with the incidents of the Peninsular Campaign.

On the Senior Leaving paper in History and Geography last July was found the following question: "Give an account of the literary activity that characterized the later years of the sixteenth century and the early years of the seventeenth, briefly describing the writers and writings (omitting, however, Shakespeare and his writings), that contributed towards making this period one of the most brilliant in English literary history." Why should such questions not be asked concerning literature since 1660? Surely literature in itself is of sufficient importance to merit some attention to its history, even if it did not play so great a part in the life of the English people as cotton-spinning and Pitt's finance.

It would not be unreasonable to ask that each pupil who graduates from a High School should be familiar with the outlines of the History of English Literature since the time of Chaucer; and it would be well if a small text-book—say Stopford Brooks' Primer—were in the hands of each candidate for Junior or Senior Leaving Examination. Supplementary reading, and a study of such an outline history, should go hand-in-hand.

The following points are important:

1. Such work should be done only in the Upper Schools.
2. Students who are going to attend an Arts College do not need such work.
3. The work should be elementary, and on no account should literature itself be sacrificed to its history.
4. The work should be founded as far as possible on reading done by the pupil.

INFORMATION IN EDUCATION.

BY W. WILKINSON, M.A., BRANTFORD.

Information in education hardly designates what I intend, yet if I can make the subject clear the title will matter little.

In these days of transition when we are putting off the old and adopting the new, when the cry from one end of the country to the other is for development or for the "new education," I wish to enter a plea for development through information. I am not in any way opposed to the new ideas. As far as they are not mere FADS I endorse them, and to the extent of my ability practise them; but as physical strength can be produced as well by productive labor as by mere gymnastics, so I am persuaded mental development can, in a very large degree, be obtained by a practical, everyday education. If I am asked if I think the imparting of information is the chief object of education, I unhesitatingly answer, No. I do not regard information as an end, but a means; and yet a means that has in it largely the character of an end. Every step in the imparting of information is the attainment of a useful end, and yet may be made a part of the means by which the great end of education, the development of the mind, is attained.

But is not the term information often wrongly construed? I do not mean by information the possession of any number of facts, however important in themselves, which have no logical connection with each other and no definite aim, but I do mean knowledge suitable to the circumstances of what is likely to be the boy's everyday life, thoroughly understood and practically applied so as to enlarge his conceptions of the subjects he is at present mastering, and which will make further knowledge a thing to be more desired.

Educators have understood what is termed "the perfection of the individual" theoretically all right, but practically in a very narrow sense. The tendency has been to confine the work of education to the development of the boy, as the sculptor strives to make a perfect statue, or the trainer tries to turn out a perfect athlete, very often as much for the glory of the trainer as for the fame of the trained. But the boy does not exist for the school. He does not even exist for himself. Education is of comparatively little value when confined to the individual, and yet that has been too much its object. The chief good is in giving him a wider, nobler conception of life and his relations to it.

"The larger heart, the kindlier hand."

Dr. Harris says the great object of education is to train children to behave well, and this statement understood in its broadest, fullest

sense every educator will endorse. Then, no mere training of mind, no attempts at perfecting the individual will accomplish the end desired, unless by the term you comprehend, as you should, the relation of the individual to the whole body politic. If this be the meaning, I agree with it; but in practice I find it too often means the imparting of certain facts by certain methods, and the great majority of these facts purely technical, having very little, if any, relation to the surroundings of the boy, and very unlikely to affect his actions to others in any way that may be beneficial.

In what way then, and on what topics do I consider information should be imparted? In the first place, on current events. If a knowledge of the transactions of past centuries is considered necessary, how much more necessary is it for a boy to know what is going on in the "living present?" Ages of use have given history a prominent place in the curriculum of the school. All educators recognize its importance. I am not advocating any change in the subject. I merely desire to bring history down to date. This instruction in current events gives exercise to all the faculties of children. They are led to observe closely, to see differences and resemblances, and to draw conclusions. Of course the skilful hand of the teacher is necessary to guide in the matter to be discussed and the manner of discussing it, but when once pupils are trained they know pretty well what topics the teacher will avoid, what subjects he will be likely to introduce, and noting the latter in their daily reading will come prepared to discuss such matters as will be brought before them. Such a lesson is a valuable adjunct to almost every school study, but is especially helpful in history. When present events are brought before the notice of the pupil, the laws of association will suggest similar occurrences in the past. For instance, the discussion of some of the features of the Home Rule Bill brings before him former Irish history. Quite naturally his mind reverts to the times of James and Charles, and later to the Irish Parliament. The results of former events help him in determining the probable issue of those under consideration. How present ideas and laws differ from former ones will afford a field for comparison and discrimination, and show him the progress of the nation in civilization. The introduction of such matters enlarges a pupil's conception of things. Africa and Asia, Scotland and Ireland become parts of his country. His natural narrowness disappears. He is a citizen of the world. His interests are excited in affairs in general. School life becomes a reality because it is connected with the realities of life, and the ordinary lesson receives a practical turn it lacked before. The wise teacher has certainly to lead cautiously, to explain carefully, and to state impartially, but the summing up must be left to the pupil. This is best done in the form of a condensed report. I place particular value upon the latter part of the plan. The knowledge that a report will be required produces alertness, and puts the pupil's mind in the best condition to receive and retain knowledge.

Let me apply the teaching of current events to another subject. If I am teaching the geography of Alaska, I can certainly omit all reference to the Behring Sea dispute. I can teach the ordinary lesson in the usual way, or I can introduce this subject. Which plan will be productive of the most good to my pupils? I am sure the broader one will be. It is not necessary that full details of the matter be given, but certainly enough to afford the pupils an intelligent understanding of a subject they see noticed in every paper. But will not this interfere with the ordinary school work? No! Experience shows that the regular lesson will be more easily remembered with this additional matter than without it. Every teacher has observed that the boys in whose hearing current topics are discussed at home, are, as a rule, the most satisfactory pupils. There is an aptness about them, a mental quickness, that very much aids the teacher in his work. I merely propose, by the introduction of current events into as many subjects as possible, to do for the whole class what some fortunate circumstances have done for a few of them, and to produce in the whole what intelligent discussion has done for a part. The great majority of our pupils leave school at an early age. The most we can do is to excite in them a love for learning. How can we do this? Partly by this means, which acts as a sharpener of the mental appetite and creates a thirst for knowledge which, if once created, becomes the cause of the future success of many of them. Again, I base my statements on experience. The boys who, having left school early, have, nevertheless, made themselves fair scholars and kept pace with the times in general intelligence, may not have been great arithmeticians at school, nor very clever in any particular branch, but they were fond of reading, and had a fund of general information, which came to their help in every study. This general information has been in many cases the foundation of a species of mental development that you find among successful business men, great railway managers and manufacturers; not of the same kind as that produced by the training of the schools, but still of a very high order—a kind of mental development that I think is too often overlooked by writers on education. I wish to give this general outfit to the whole class, with the hope it will create that divine longing for more education in all that it has done in the few.

The State of New York requires that all persons seeking license to teach shall pass an examination in current events. I have long wished we had a paper on general information, to test the intelligence of those desirous of becoming teachers.

I bear cheerful evidence to the many excellencies of the young people who come to our Model Schools to receive such help as we can give them, but I am sure all Model School masters must deplore the great want of general information they manifest. For instance, I have never found a teacher in training who could give a complete lesson to a class upon the municipal system of Ontario. There is

little or no material at their disposal, and one has to give them such information as will enable them to teach such a lesson. This remark will apply to many other matters.

More information should be given on the subject of Civil Government. It is very poorly understood even by our highest classes. The reason is, I think, clear. The text-book on any subject is always a fair reflection of the teaching done in that subject in our schools, and you know how very meagre the knowledge is that you can glean from them regarding this matter. There can be very little intelligent respect, very little reverence for the constitution and laws of a country, unless that constitution, in its broad outlines, is understood and its comparative merits made clear. If there be great excellencies in our form of government, and there are, every boy capable of understanding them should be made acquainted with them and led to appreciate them. If there be defects, pupils should grow up with the determination to remedy these when the power to remedy them comes into their hands. The spirit of patriotism is not strong enough among our pupils. Their love for their country and its institutions is not as enthusiastic as it ought to be, largely because these have not been made subjects of sufficient importance in the schoolroom. President Harrison spoke truly when he said, "The public schools are maintained at the public expense to perpetuate the Constitution and to make citizenship safe and secure." This can only be done by making better provision for the understanding of the Constitution, and I know of no better time for imparting sound information on this subject, and cultivating a national sentiment, than when our children are passing through our Public and High Schools.

In this same connection I make an urgent appeal to all engaged in the education of our youth to give them more information concerning the leading men of our country. Carlyle says, "The history of a mankind is the history of its great men. To find out these, clear the dirt from them and set them on their proper pedestal is the function of an historian." If we did this for the great men of our country, Canadian History would be, what it ought to be, the most interesting of all histories to Canadian youth. But we must give them a large conception of Canadian History. The leading men must not be chosen from Ontario, as is too much the case, but from the whole Dominion, and around these men should be grouped, in anecdote, story and dramatic narrative, the incidents that make up history which children love so well to hear and which they so thoroughly remember. There is plenty of material for such lessons, and the result of using it would be the creation of a national sentiment. I advocate the imparting of information in this way because I believe it will help to bring about a better style of teaching. There is a need for the freshness that this plan of instruction produces. After it has once been adopted entire reliance upon the text-book will not satisfy either teacher or pupils. It creates in the teacher a spirit of independence and a thirst for knowledge

in its latest form that have a most excellent effect upon her class. But the information must be correct, not fiction, not report or supposition, but facts which the boy can use again without the mortification of discovering that what he thought was history was merely romance.

Information through Reading is a topic I might discuss with profit, but I forbear, as a paper on Supplementary Reading will likely take up that matter. My experience is that children's minds are injured by the constant reading and re-reading of what they have read or heard others read for years, till the reading has become largely automatic, good enough as an elocutionary effort, but not accompanied by any effort to get the thought. I very strongly advise the introduction into every class of supplementary reading of some description, not only for the additional information that will thus be obtained, but that children may be trained to get the idea of the writer from the first reading.

How would I have this general information brought before the pupils? I shall mention a few of the many plans than can be used. There is first the daily bulletin, prepared and read by some pupil appointed for the purpose, and this reading followed by a short talk led by the teacher. Then there is the school newspaper, compiled by several scholars and read on Friday afternoon. Short essays on current topics, read by four or five pupils and briefly discussed, will be found beneficial. Or the teacher can assign some subject in history instead of the ordinary history lesson, and receive from each pupil his contribution to the general fund of information.

These are a few samples of the manner in which "current topics" may be treated as a separate lesson, but there is also the addition of knowledge to any subject, which is perhaps more important. For example, connecting the demands of the Chartists, that members of parliament should be paid, with the Bill brought before the British House of Commons a few weeks ago affirming this principle. In Geography this plan of adding late knowledge is especially necessary if we would keep our pupils abreast of the times. This is particularly the case in Political Geography in which the knowledge of a year or two ago is worse than useless because of the changes which are continually occurring.

Let us remember that if we desire the imparting of information to be a means of mental development, it is necessary that our aim be, not so much to give facts, but rather the means of obtaining them—not the reasons in many cases, but only the data on which to found them. Be careful the data do not become the end of your teaching. I find they often serve no other purpose. No conclusions are drawn from them, and the mind becomes a mere receptacle of undigested, ill-understood facts. The educator must never be lost in the mere instructor. In the hands of the wise teacher these dangers are avoided. By no dictum of his does he declare that the Rebellion of

1837 was justifiable; that the execution of Charles I., or of Riel, was wrong. He gives the facts, the whole facts in regard to the matter, and lets his pupils draw their own conclusions. But you say, their conclusions will differ. Exactly so. That is, in part, the object of the method, its chief aim being to develop individuality and promote mental vigor, by giving opportunity for the exercise of independent thought. This is still further secured by requiring from each pupil his reasons for the opinions he has advanced, which has the additional merit of developing manliness, and helps very much to destroy that awful bane of too many schools—a stereotyped answer to a stereotyped question.

How shall we find time to give this general information? I am not sure it will take any additional time, but if it does, I contend it is worth all it may require. If some time is needed I think it might be spared from that now allotted to Arithmetic, which, in most schools, has from one-seventh to one-fifth of the whole school day given to it. A small deduction could be made from this without impairing the efficiency of the subject.

What helps are useful in aiding the teacher to do this work? The daily press, *The Review of Reviews*, *Public Opinion*, *The Popular Science Monthly*, *Goldwaite's Geographical Magazine*, are all good, and if well used will keep the teacher pretty well abreast of the times in general matters. For Junior classes much help can be obtained from *The Youth's Companion*, *Harper's Young People* and similar works. Add to these a fair school library to which children can have access, and a museum as large and as varied as you can obtain.

I might refer to information on health, economy and many other things, but I refrain. I believe there are indications on every hand that the schools of the future will be brighter and happier than the schools of the past. There will be more culture and not less learning; more of a general appreciation of the true, the beautiful, the good, without in any way diminishing the amount of knowledge now imparted. I believe Arithmetic and every other subject separated, at least in part, from their merely mercenary aspects, will aid in producing this effect.

We want more enthusiasm and a greater delight in our work. We want so to teach our pupils that they may be the means of giving to the world a better civilization, a broader humanity, from having a better knowledge of their duty to each other, to themselves and to their God. I believe the diffusion of information, as I have outlined it, will help the good work.

THE INFLUENCE OF THE SCHOOL ON NATIONAL LIFE.

BY ALEX. McQUEEN,

Public School Principal, London.

As one travels for the first time through the rural districts of the country, if he is at all of an observing habit of mind, he takes notice of the main features of the scenes on either hand; his eye takes in the lay of the land, the woods and the clearings, the orchards, meadows, and fields of grain, the log buildings of the first settlers and the fine houses and barns that have been built in later years. All these he sees one after another as he proceeds on his journey. But presently he comes out on the brow of some eminence, where he pauses and looks back over the whole region he has traversed, which is spread out like a map at his feet; and he is thus enabled to determine the connection and relative position of the different parts which had come under his observation.

So, in the journey of life, there come times when one's thoughts go back over the years that have passed, when one recalls the successes and failures he has met with, when he ponders on the reasons of the one or the other, and gathers that store of knowledge for his guidance in the years to come, which is usually designated experience.

The same is true in the history of a race or a people. There are events and occurrences which strongly incline the minds of all thoughtful persons, to review the past national life, to inquire as to the causes of the various events that have transpired, and attempt to gain from the consideration of them the lesson of social and political experience. Such an epoch in the history of the English-speaking people, of the English-speaking people of this continent, at least, is the celebration of the four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America by Columbus. As one looks back over the four centuries that have elapsed since that event, and contrasts the position held by the English-speaking people at the beginning of the Tudor period, as regards numbers, political influence and advancement in civilization, with the proud place they now hold in both hemispheres, he must be dead to every noble emotion whose heart does not swell to think that he is one of so great a people, and who does not feel animated by a desire to contribute in some way, however humble, to the maintenance of that position and the extension of that influence.

By English-speaking people I do not mean only those of Anglo-Saxon origin, but all those of whatever race or nationality originally, who now use the language of Shakespeare and Milton and read the English Bible. It is not blood and kindred that make a people, but community of ideas, sentiments, beliefs, likes and dislikes. These

form the character of the nation. They are embodied in its literature, in its poems, its history and its legends, and are reproduced in the hearts and minds and lives of the readers of that literature; so that those whose reading is the works of the great writers of the English language will all have, to a greater or less extent, that love of freedom and justice, that steadiness and earnestness of purpose, that capacity for self-government, that love of truth and righteousness which so eminently characterize the English race.

No other race seems to have this solvent power to the same extent as the English, and nowhere has it been put to a severer test than in the United States of America. Australia, New Zealand and Canada have been peopled chiefly by immigrants from the British Isles, but the United States have year after year received hundreds of thousands of immigrants, many of them of the least desirable classes, from every nation of Europe, nay, of the whole world. How strong then must be the influences that so mould the characters of these immigrants, that the children of Scandinavians, Germans, Poles and Italians are scarcely distinguishable from those of native-born Americans!

What is the secret of this solvent power which has made English, and not Spanish or French, the ruling language of this Western Continent?

The early English settlers in America had no advantage over their competitors in the race for possessions in the New World. The Spaniards had a start of over a hundred years in point of time and the choice of the whole continent for a location; the French settlements were carefully fostered and guarded by the sovereigns of France, ambitious to found a vast French dominion beyond the Atlantic; but the English settlers had to make their way to the New World in the face of an unfriendly government, which threw many hindrances in the way of the intending emigrant. The Spaniards were allured to America by the treasures of Mexico and Peru; the French had the inducement of the highly profitable fur trade; but the English had neither the one nor the other to draw them to the rock-bound shores of New England. In spite of all hindrances and disadvantages the English colonies grew and prospered, till now the Spaniards have been crowded below the Rio Grande, and have become but little better than the Indians whom they conquered; while it taxes to the utmost the efforts of priests and politicians to prevent the Anglicizing of the French population of Quebec and its absorption by the dominant race.

Differences in national character have, no doubt, had considerable to do with these results. The Spaniards, cruel and avaricious, subordinated everything to their greed for gold; the French, gay, reckless and fond of change, delighted in a life of roving adventure; but the English colonists were earnest, God-fearing men, who left their homes and friends for the sake of civil and religious freedom. While

the Spaniard was searching for some new country to conquer and plunder; while the Frenchman was holding a great feast with the Indians, and making arrangements for an exploring expedition to the remote regions of the West, the Englishman was organizing the government of his new settlement, and taking steps to build a church and open a school. Six years after the first settlement at Boston, the General Court of the Colony of Massachusetts "agreed to give four hundred pounds toward a school or college," a rate of taxation which in the present day would produce in the State of Massachusetts a sum of over one million dollars.

"Massachusetts," says Dr. Blackmar, of Kansas University, "was the pioneer State in the establishment and maintenance of a system of public instruction by legislative enactment. Here the first action was taken by the representatives of the people for the support of general education; here the first tax was levied for the support of Common Schools; and it is to Massachusetts that the origin of the system of land grants is to be referred—a system adopted by so many States as to be considered well-nigh continental. The influence of this State upon the school laws and educational systems and methods of other States has been very pronounced. The other New England States especially have, as far as possible, imitated her example and followed closely in the wake of her progress; while the influence of the New England system on the Middle, Southern and Western States, has ever been recognized."

The General Court of Massachusetts, in 1642, passed an Act relating to family education, which imposed fines upon parents who neglected the proper instruction of their children. After stating the importance of education to the moral and political well-being of the commonwealth, the Act said: "It is therefore ordered by this Court that every township within this jurisdiction, after the Lord hath increased them to the number of fifty householders, shall then forthwith appoint one within their town to teach all such children as shall resort to him, to write and read, whose wages shall be paid either by the parents or masters of such children, or by the inhabitants in general by way of supply, as the major part of those who order the prudentials of the town shall appoint."

"The most striking feature of the colonial school system," says the writer in Kiddle & Schem's Educational Encyclopædia, "was the connection of the school with the church, the clergyman in many cases being the schoolmaster. The Puritans brought this principle with them to their new homes, and the strength of their religious convictions tended to perpetuate it."

In the system of schools thus established is to be found the chief cause of the triumph of the English over the Spanish and French, and the present commanding position of the English-speaking people in America. These churches and schools, acting upon what was perhaps the best specimens of the English race, produced a people of

strong and marked characteristics, strong enough to dominate their fellow-colonists, and mould the characters of the thousands of immigrants which each succeeding year has brought to the shores of the New World. The very hardness and sternness of the discipline of these schools had their beneficial effects. The strongest and most enduring timber is not found in the luxuriant growths of rich bottom lands, but in the trees of slower growth, on mountain sides, exposed to the storms whose blasts only make them cling more firmly to the rocks on which they stand. The gentler methods of discipline advocated by educational theorists tend to produce an effeminate race, too weak or too indolent to make sacrifices or endure hardships for the sake of truth and right.

Aristotle says that in progressive democratic communities, moral excellence gradually ceases to be an object of the first importance. Many thoughtful Americans have begun to fear that the old Puritan leaven has become so weakened by the influx of foreign elements as to have almost lost its solvent power, and view with alarm the ever-increasing tide of immigration. Perhaps the time *has* come to restrict this influx ; but, be that as it may, all who wish to see maintained in their full vigor, those mental and moral traits which characterize English-speaking people, will unite in the support of those institutions which have hitherto proved so successful in Anglicizing these successive hordes of immigrants, those institutions which have made the English-speaking people the arbiters of the destinies of this continent, and perhaps of the whole world. The Public Schools have been the great solvent influence at work in all these years, and to the teachers of these schools is due in no slight degree the honor of maintaining and promoting English ideas and institutions on this continent.

Two very opposite dangers seem to threaten the schools of America at the present time : Separation and secularization. Both must be strenuously opposed by every patriotic citizen. Cahenslyism is as objectionable in the schools as it is claimed to be in the church. There must be but one language in the schools. If the lofty thoughts and noble ideals which have proved so potent in the past, are to continue to influence succeeding generations, the splendid heritage of English Literature in which they are embodied must be open to all. Separate Schools tend to dwarf the intellect, and hamper its freedom, to perpetuate theological differences, and to keep those trained therein, strangers and aliens in the land of their birth, out of harmony with the great current of national life, its feelings and its aspirations.

Secularization on the other hand is foreign to the genius of the race, and contrary to the principles which have hitherto guided its development. It is psychologically false. A child cannot be developed in some parts of its nature and other parts left undeveloped. The intellectual faculties cannot be cultivated and the spiritual left waste. Secularization of the schools would turn education into a mere grind of facts. It leaves out imagination and ignores the reality of the

unseen. It would produce a race of monstrosities of the Gradgrind type. The great truths of religion are the foundations on which the moral character must be based. Religion has been defined to be simply the art of right living, walking soberly, righteously and godly in this life, looking for a life to come; soberly, with appetites and passions under full control; righteously, having full respect and regard for the rights and privileges of others; godly, in loving submission to the rule of the Supreme Power.

Separation and secularization must both be avoided. Let the church and the school work together as they have heretofore done, each independent of the other, but each helping the other in the work of moulding the character and directing the development of the race. Thus will be maintained in their pristine vigor, those principles which hitherto guided its destinies, and the generations yet to come be equally distinguished for their love of freedom and truth, and equally free from scepticism and bigotry. As someone has said:—

> "Heed not the sceptics' puny hands,
> While near the school the church spire stands;
> Nor fear the blinded bigots' rule,
> While near the church spire stands the school."

Having thus briefly considered the important part the Public Schools have performed in the development of the nation across the lines, let us in this "Canada of ours" endeavor to profit by the experience of our neighbors. We, too, have a noble parentage. The thirty thousand United Empire Loyalists who left their homes and sacrificed their all for the sake of their opinions, were of the genuine Puritan stock. They brought with them that same earnestness and steadiness of purpose, that same spirit of faithfulness to what they considered to be their duty, that loyalty to God and man which characterized the race from which they sprang. There has lately been manifested in some quarters a tendency to speak lightly of these men and the sacrifices they made. Away with such talk! It is the sneer of a mean-souled mortal at sacrifices he could not possibly make, at motives he is not capable of comprehending. The example of those who suffer for conscience' sake, mistaken though they may be, has an ennobling and elevating effect upon every properly constituted mind. Let us as Canadians cherish the memory of these noble men, and endeavor to emulate them in their loyalty to constituted authority, and faithfulness to the calls of duty. The principles which actuated them have influenced the character of succeeding generations of Canadians. This very loyalty and faithfulness thus inherited, transferred to realm of business, is one of the reasons that our young men find ready employment and rapid promotion to places of trust and responsibility wherever they go.

The records of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and the Eastern Townships of Quebec bear ample testimony to the zeal of the

Loyalists in the cause of education, while we in Ontario owe a debt of gratitude we can never repay to the memory of one of the great men of the Loyalist stock—a man eminently endowed with all the noblest characteristics of the race—who founded our present school system and guided its development till he had stamped upon it the impress of his strongly marked character—the late Dr. Egerton Ryerson. The public school systems thus established in the Maritime Provinces and in Ontario are acknowledged by all competent authorities to be among the best in the world, and it is to them we look for the development of the Canadian national character. From them are going out, year after year, the men who are filling up our great North-West, and adding province after province to our fair Dominion. May they be successful in their efforts to uphold their principles that tend to make a happy, united and prosperous people, strong in the support of all that is true and right. Let us of the older provinces extend to them our hearty sympathy, and assistance if need be, in their determination to prevent the introduction among them of that institution which the exigencies of political strife have imposed on us here in Ontario.

If the Union on our southern border may be likened to a man in the full vigor of his lusty manhood, the Dominion is a youth who has not yet left the parental roof, but who begins to feel the promptings of a manly ambition to be "doing for himself." Our national character is yet in the formative stage. Perhaps it is too soon to say we have a national character, but enough can be seen to give every reason for hopeful anticipation. The principles which actuated our Loyalist forefathers are still strong in the hearts of their descendants. The very "feeling of unrest" which is said to be abroad in the land is a hopeful sign. It shows that the people are becoming disgusted at the corruption and scandalous laxity of morals in public life. It is the politicians who are uneasy. They hear the rumblings of the coming storm that will sweep them all to oblivion and purify the political atmosphere.

One great aim of education is the production of good citizens, and in this age of democratic institutions, he cannot be called a good citizen of Canada, no matter how excellent his private life, who does not have proper ideas of the importance of citizenship, its rights and its duties, and who does not exercise those rights and discharge those duties conscientiously for the good of his country. We must train our pupils to an intelligent understanding of the working of our system of government. From instances of local taxation, lead up to the conception of revenue and tariff, and discuss the principles on which they are founded. From some trial before the local magistrate develop the idea of law and legislation, government and representation, and the responsibility of each elector for the right exercise of his franchise. A good citizen should have, too, a proper knowledge of the importance of temperance and sanitation to the well-being of

every community. Let us train our pupils to habits of careful, correct and independent thought on the great questions of politics in the highest sense of the term, and then our governments will depend for tenure of office, not upon the wholesale bribery of electors, or the careful rearrangement of constituencies, but upon the moral character of their acts, and the purity and wisdom of their administration of affairs.

This, then, is the work before us in the public schools of the Dominion, and upon the faithful performance of it depend, to a very great extent, the future prosperity and standing of our land. The English-speaking people of the world now number about 110,000,000. An excellent authority estimates that in fifty years from now, at the present rate of increase, the English-speaking people of the British Isles, America, Australasia and Africa will number 221,000,000, of whom 9,000,000 will be Canadians. The number of Canadians may seem comparatively insignificant, but the influence of a nation, like that of an individual, depends chiefly upon force of character and high moral purpose. If we, teachers of the public schools of Canada, discharge the duties devolving upon us with fervency and zeal, so that our national character is developed on these lines, then, by the blessing of Almighty God, when the great alliance of all the English-speaking nations of the world is formed, and the All-English Parliament holds its sessions, whether in London or in Chicago, the representatives of the 9,000,000 of hardy, intelligent, God-fearing Canadians will be found among the most powerful and influential advocates of everything that tends to the good of humanity and the promotion of truth and righteousness.

SUPPLEMENTARY READING.

MISS N. RUSSELL, HAMILTON.

Reading is usually considered the most important subject on the primary school curriculum, and rightly so, for it not only includes writing, spelling and voice culture, but is the means of investigating knowledge, and is a valuable accomplishment in life. Reading follows naturally as a department of language study. The time actually devoted to *Reading* during the first year's work is really not so great as one would suppose from its importance.

Primary work is so related that every lesson should be more or less a language lesson, always preparing the child for the after work of reading.

But the teacher will do well not to be in too great a hurry to introduce *oral* reading. If a pupil can read *silently* rapidly, and can converse readily, the time and labor required to teach him to read *orally* will not be great. I think there would be much less of the mechanical, undecided reading so often heard among children if we had more silent reading, thus making the child familiar with the rapid recognition of words in different relations, which is the foundation of fluency in reading.

But to have good reading, whether silent or oral, we must have something interesting and suitable for the child to read. During his school years the taste for all his future reading is implanted, and more especially is this true in primary grades where the child gets his first and most lasting impressions. The famous remark, "Give me the training of a child until he is seven, and I am sure of him forever," can be almost literally applied. Implant a love of knowledge and good literature during school years which will last through life.

Why, then, is it that so little attention is paid to our primary readers? Teachers are awakening more every day to the unfitness of them, and to the knowledge that they are distinctly below the average child's intelligence. The object in making them seems to have been to introduce as many words of three letters as possible, irrespective of meaning or suitability. I need only mention such words as "cull," "whit," "lull," "doff," "pell-mell." The phonic sequence of our books is fairly good, but why confine children to words of three sounds? It is just as easy for a child to make by phonics "basket," "rabbit," "squirrel," "flower," as to make "whit," "gad," "lath;" and such words are more easily remembered as belonging to his own vocabulary.

Another fault in our books is the length of the sentences or

"stories," many of which are much too long for young children to get the thought readily. Such books are certainly *not* calculated to rouse a spirit of interest or to cultivate a love of reading. What we need is something more childlike—books containing the vocabulary of children.

We have found Munroe's Readers, published by Butler & Co., of Philadelphia, to be excellent as supplementary readers. They are well bound, and not very expensive. They follow each other in a regular graded order, beginning with a primer which is simplicity itself, being constructed on an almost purely phonic basis. The words used are familiar to the child, and the sentences are not too long.

The next of the series is the First Reader, which is really a "child-like" book. It contains the story of some little playmates—girls and boys—tells of their work and play in a very interesting way, and when one of the number is away from home it introduces the correct form of letter writing by the little boy writing to his playmates. No difficulty will be found in gaining expression from such books, for they are *natural*.

I have a set of one dozen and a half of these readers, both primers and First Readers. I do not allow the children to take these books home, nor to turn over the pages when in the class. Thus I have a perfectly fresh reading lesson for every day, which the child, after a few minutes of silent reading, will render with expression, interest, and animation. By having only enough books for a large section, I can manage to have two or three sets of different readers, instead of only one kind for the whole class.

If such books are properly used, and children taught how to handle and take care of books, there is no reason why your supplementary readers should not last for four or five years. Another excellent series of readers is the "Holmes," which are something the same as Munroe's.

Besides these books, I have a set of "Wood's Natural History," Part I. These I find, are more difficult than the others on account of no effort having been made to construct them on a phonic basis. I keep this set chiefly for extra busy work *e.g.*, when children have finished their number work before the rest, they come to the desk and get a book for silent reading. It is astonishing how much some of the little ones will do. But when they are reading in this way, I always walk up and down the aisles a few times to help them with any difficult words they may not be able to discover by phonics. But these Natural History Readers are decidedly English, especially in Part II. which treats of birds. It would be much more profitable if we had readers telling of the birds and smaller animals to be found in our own Canada.

The "World at Home" is also another good supplementary reader, but it is more difficult, and better suited to the last half of the second year's work, or even the third.

But even with such excellent supplementary readers, the teacher still feels the need of something in the way of reading that will embody the daily observations of the child. In this I think the progressive teacher will see that Natural Science will form the basis.

In my own class I have found the following plan to work well. Suppose the children have been studying plant life. They have themselves soaked the beans, and observed the swelling, have found the first tiny sprout, and have carefully planted them. Then comes the waiting and the watching for the first green shoot to appear, the observation on the shape of the first leaves, on the rapid growth, and many other things. When the little plants have grown somewhat, the children pull up one or two, and study the development that has been going on *under* the ground as well as above it.

As the children examine these various stages, the teacher jots down the stories told, and by judicious questioning elicits further information than has been volunteered. The "stories" the teacher transfers to paper by the aid of a typewriter, each story on its own slip of paper, carefully numbered in the order of development. For the reading lesson next day, each child receives a slip. It may be his own story or it may be someone's else, but he is eager to read. The hard words that the children may not be able to make out by phonics, are developed and written on the board. Then the stories are read in regular order. What could prove more interesting or profitable reading? The child's own thoughts and language reproduced in print, and serving as his reading lesson!

Some teachers may think that this would involve a great deal of extra work, but such is not the case. The stories are usually short, and can be written in a few minutes by the teacher herself, if she has access to a typewriter, and if she has not—"Where there's a will, there's a way." And then with care these slips will last some time. When pupils can read well, two or three stories may be printed on one slip.

A good way to preserve these sequence stories is to print the whole sequence on a page, numbering the stories like the slips. Then the whole page may be given for a lesson when the children are more advanced.

This illustration of the beans is merely suggestive. The intelligent teacher will see around her many things in everyday life that would prove most interesting to children, if they only knew how to investigate for themselves.

My pupils have lately been watching the "Catkins," or "Pussy Willows," as they call them, and you would not believe how much interest they take in such a seemingly simple thing.

Of course, we have a song about them, a vase of them in the sunny window, and a drawing of them on the board. The children can tell me almost every time a "brown cradle" has dropped off, and look eagerly for the time when

> "They'll change their robes of silver gray,
> For robes of green and gold."

Then there are the seeds we have planted to watch for, the slips of cherry, peach, lilac and currant bush that we have in water in the window, and which are to have leaves or blossoms on after a while, the returning birds and the nest-building—all of which would form excellent subjects for lessons. We have also a cocoon in a box with a glass cover, both brought by the children.

Last spring we had a frog which we kept in the schoolroom. We had a pail of water for him to swim in, and a pan of earth containing worms, and he spent his time quite contentedly for three months in Ryerson School. The children studied that frog and his appearance and habits thoroughly. They handled him, they drew him on slate and paper, they modelled him in clay, and they *talked* about him. We had several splendid reading lessons on the subject, ending with the fable of the cruel boy and the frogs in the pond. The fable, as well as the children's stories, were typewritten on slips.

Other suggestive fables might be put within reach of the children by the same means, also simple fairy tales and sentences drilling on difficult words.

In fact, there is no limit to the material ready for the intelligent teacher; and with no lack of interesting material, there will be no lack of expression, for if the child *wants* to read he will read naturally. You do not often have to criticise him for expression when he tells you of the bird's nest he has seen, or of the number and peculiarity of the frog's toes.

In connection with science work, I wish to recommend Julia McNair Wright's "Seaside and Wayside," a series of science readers profitable to both teacher and pupil. If we had more of such books as these, there would be no need to recall the wandering thoughts and glances during the reading lesson.

The teacher can readily see how this science work will help in her composition exercises. Every lesson given is the best kind of language lesson, and as for composition, what could form a more absorbing subject for composition than something that the child has examined and investigated for himself?

For the first year, the composition will be confined to copying sentences written on the board by the teacher. But in the latter part of the second year, pupils may begin to write their own thoughts, keeping in mind a few simple points on the board.

Of course, in the third and fourth years, the compositions will begin to show the advancement of the pupil.

It must be remembered that science work can be found suitable for all seasons, and the wise teachers will see that the subject taken up is one that is both suitable and attractive. Of course, during the spring and summer the various plants and their flowers and fruits will attract much attention, also birds and insects.

But there is plenty of time during the fall and winter to examine the small animals, such as the squirrel or rat, and to take

up a little mineralogy, and speak of such phenomena as rain, snow and hail.

Those who have never tried this work may think that I am not practical in my remarks. But everything mentioned here has been tried and found to be successful. The teacher will find this department of her work as profitable and enjoyable, both to herself and to her pupils, as any other in which she may be engaged.

VERTICAL VERSUS OBLIQUE PENMANSHIP.

A. F. NEWLANDS, KINGSTON.

Although nearly everyone in this country is able to write, there are comparatively few who write well. Excepting those who fill situations for which a good style of writing is positively necessary, it may be said that bad writing is the rule. Merchants, lawyers, tradesmen, and I may add a large number of the teachers, in fact all who may write badly if they choose, with few exceptions, do so.

Journalists, more than others, are frequently made to notice how extremely prevalent the blind style is. I heard a journalist remark recently that not one letter or manuscript in twenty was well or legibly written.

Now, there must be some reason for this universal depravity in handwriting. Legible writing must be a difficult art; we must be indifferent to its importance; the teaching of writing in primary classes must be very defective; or our system is wrong. I fully believe the fault to be in the system, and will endeavor to prove it.

At the beginning of the present century we had the round sloping style which is a slight modification of the Italic print; this continued to be the prevailing style of writing for the first quarter of a century. In America there was then a gradual reaching out for a shorter method of getting at a normal hand. After passing through several stages the semi-angular hand, generally known as the Spencerian, was the result. This style has been improved and perfected, and is to-day the standard all over this continent.

All the down strokes are shaded in the old round hand; in the semi-angular hand the shading is largely omitted. While the latter style is superior in ease and rapidity to the former, it has lost very much legibility.

Many present have no doubt observed and noted the important reform in school penmanship that is sweeping over Europe, and has already awakened considerable interest in this country; that is, the change from the oblique to the vertical style, a system originated by John Jackson, F.E.I.S. According to authentic report the new system has become established in England, Austria and Germany; and France is taking steps towards its general introduction. In a recent number of the *New York School Journal*, I noticed a paragraph copied from a foreign exchange to the effect that the teachers in Switzerland were agitating for its adoption.

For several years I taught the Spencerian style and, though not satisfied with the results in some respects, I sincerely believed it much better than any other system. From time to time I heard of

educators abroad advocating vertical writing, and last year, in an interview with a gentleman who had spent some time in Europe investigating educational matters, I received a brief description of the movement there which led me to experiment. My conversion was gradual but sound. For six months we have been using the new system in the Kingston Public Schools, and our experience is most gratifying.

In the new system we base our script on the Roman letters, the forms universally used not only in primary and secondary education, but in our newspapers, magazines and books, the forms recognized as the standard by all artists, lithographers, engravers and typefounders as the most sensible letter for printers' use, and one that lends itself most readily to artistic design. The vertical script has the advantage over the sloping at every point. It is more legible, speedy, economic, easy to teach, easy to learn and hygienic, than any oblique system.

The prime requisite of good writing is legibility. We all dislike reading an author who does not express himself so as to be easily understood; how much more a writer who wastes our valuable time, and our still more valuable energy, of eye and nerve and brain, to discover even the words he has used. As a medium of thought expression, therefore, that is the best writing which requires the least effort on the part of the reader.

To be legible the lines of the letters must be separate and distinct. Geometric principles demonstrate the fact that, as the writing slopes the down lines approach each other, consequently the more the writing slopes the more illegible it becomes. This may be illustrated by a very simple experiment. Here we have four sets of right lines all drawn from equidistant points.

You will observe that they become less distinct with every degree of slope from the vertical, and while a single glance will enable the eye to determine the number of lines in the top row, those in the lower row can be counted only by being regarded separately. You can get the full effect of this experiment by half closing the eyes.

Oblique writers have recognized this principle to the extent that they have striven to secure legibility by spreading out their writing. By reference to the foregoing simple illustration it will be seen that, for an equal degree of legibility a number of oblique lines must be given much more space than the same number of vertical lines, hence the eye has much farther to travel to take in the same number of symbols. Thus it will be seen, what they gain in legibility, by their extreme spacing, is fully counteracted by the increased length of words. To realize this truth try to read aloud a page of unfamiliar writing, so spread out that two or three words fill a line.

No one, I am sure, would venture the assertion that Italic letters are as easily read as the Roman. Had we been doomed to read our newspapers, magazines and books printed in Italics, as we would have been had printers not emancipated themselves from the mediæval

style and adopted the clear, bold and plain Roman type, it is probable that, as a result, every pedagogue here would be trying in vain to decipher these characters with the assistance of those optical instruments commonly called spectacles. Fancy a typewriter manufacturer turning out machines fitted with Italic type instead of the standard Roman. A market for such a style would be rather hard to find. Why then, may I ask, have the standard written characters not been made to conform and keep pace with the standard print?

Advocates of Spencerian or oblique penmanship have always claimed speed to be its principal advantage over every other style of writing, and the term, "a rapid running hand," has always been associated with it. With others, I fully believed, with a well-developed movement and the Spencerian forms of letters the most legible writing at the highest rate of speed could be produced. Contact with very rapid writers in the business world, however, forced upon me the fact that about ninety per cent. of them were writing anything but a Spencerian form or even a modification of it; and that editors, reporters, telegraph operators and bank clerks, with hardly an exception, write a sort of vertical hand. One of the most rapid writers in our city is the proprietor of one of the daily papers. His writing is as clear and legible as one would wish to read, even when written under great pressure. Having often watched him when at work, I wondered why, with all my training in this branch, I could not get up such speed. I understand it now. In the first place, he had a freer and better position (although I did not think so at the time), about the same that we advocate for vertical writing; then, he pulled the pen while I had to push it. The testimony of nearly all good business penmen is, that it is much easier to pull the pen in writing rapidly than to push it. One reason for this is, the upward and forward stroke of the oblique writer encounters more opposition from the paper, and is consequently much harder to make than the side stroke peculiar to vertical writing. The tendency of the pen in oblique writing to pierce the paper and spatter the ink is well known. Take any pointed instrument and push it for a time along even the smoothest surface, and afterwards pull it; you will at once realize the great difference between the two movements.

Telegraph operators, taken as a class, can probably write faster than penmen in any other calling. Many of them, it is said, can make a legible copy at the rate of forty, and some at from forty-five to forty-eight words per minute. Great similarity in the appearance of their writing is noticeable. It is very smooth and open, owing to their great freedom of movement and the pull of the pen. After careful calculations, it is found that vertical writing necessitates the pen travelling over twenty per cent. less length of line than oblique writing of the same size, and therefore occupies twenty per cent. less time. Unless the advocates of oblique writing can prove that it takes as long to make a four-inch line as it does a five, it is evident that

vertical writing must be more rapid than oblique. To this gain of twenty per cent., we may safely add fifteen per cent. for ease of movement and position.

The position of the writer has much to do with the freedom of movement, and therefore with the question of speed. The stiff, constrained and twisted position of the body, arms and hand of the oblique writer, in a word, a cramped position, is incompatible with the freest movement, while the natural position of the body, arms and paper of the vertical writer is assuredly an easy position, and therefore must be more favorable to the highest rate of speed. Having been trained by some of the best teachers of Spencerian penmanship in America, and having afterwards studied, practised and taught the same for seven years, I should know something of the possibilities of speed in that system. I have been six months using the vertical system, and already I can write at least thirty per cent. faster than I ever could the oblique.

Economy has also something to say in this argument. The evidence already submitted ought to convince anyone of the great saving of time to both the writer and reader. To this I may add my own testimony: If I were still writing the oblique style, I should count almost one-third of my time utterly wasted. The saving of eyesight, and of nerve and brain power has already been referred to, but we have yet to speak of the economy of space. As previously stated, in order to make it legible, oblique writers find it necessary to spread their writing very much. I have in my possession a number of letters from dashing writers of the oblique style, in which they get very few words on a whole page. The more freedom of movement they possess, the more they spread their letters. Several times I have heard employers complain of the space taken up by office assistants in making entries in the books. This applies in almost every position where pens and paper are used. After being carefully tested, the difference between the standard vertical and the standard oblique regarding the space occupied, was found to be in the ratio of seven to ten; that is, the vertical style occupies seven-tenths the space required by oblique writing of the same size. This may, at first thought, appear a very trifling matter, but when we consider that it means a saving of thirty per cent. on all stationery bills, it becomes a matter of considerable importance, especially to large commercial firms, and to the poor man's populous family at school. To teachers, also, this is important; nearly one-third more matter can be placed upon the always limited blackboard space. The weary hours spent in reading the pupils' written work, will be reduced by fully one-third.

To sum up, if it were possible to measure all of these savings, of time, of space, of energy and of health, it would place the economic importance of the change proposed almost beyond estimate.

The question that will probably interest teachers most is: How

does it affect the teacher and the pupil? Is vertical writing as teachable as sloping writing? This is the point that I was most doubtful about when considering the merits of the two styles. In order to determine as to which had the advantage in this respect, I first made a test on a boy about sixteen years of age, who had passed through my hands in his public school course, and who made little or no progress in writing. He was what we call a naturally bad writer. He had apparently little power of conceiving form; nevertheless, he had very little difficulty in learning to write a fairly good vertical hand. Since adopting the new system in our public schools, it has been forced on my attention that these so-called naturally bad writers have made more progress in the last six months than they did in almost as many years before.

At the time of its introduction, all the pupils strongly objected to the change. About three months later, in order to find out how many would like to change back to the old style, I took a standing vote in a class of boys where at first they had been rather free with their expressions of contempt for the reform; but one boy in a class of fifty voted for a relapse. When asked the reason for favoring the new style, the answer from all was, "It is easier."

In two classes, the Commercial Class and Sixth Class for girls, we made vertical writing optional, for the reason that most of the pupils already wrote well and on account of their probable short stay in school. In the former, but three out of a class of forty-eight still cling to the slope. In the latter all are taking up vertical writing. Pupils as a rule will not favor a difficult way of doing things when they are equally familiar with an easier way, therefore, I consider the decision of these pupils rather significant.

In order to ascertain the attitude of the teachers towards vertical writing, at the time of its introduction, and after six months' experience, a voting list was circulated. Last September eight favored it, ten were neutral, and twenty-one were opposed to it. Now two are opposed to it, two neutral, and thirty-five in favor of it. One significant fact revealed by the voting is that all the Primary teachers are enthusiastically in favor of the change. In these classes the experiment was made under the most favorable conditions, having less opposition from previously formed ideas and habits.

Aside from this evidence, that it is easier to teach than to learn must be patent to anyone who has had experience in teaching children to write, and who gives the matter a thought, as he must know how difficult it is to train children to write all their letters on the same slope. Each child gets his own degree of slope, and makes infinite variations of it on the same page if not on the same line, while in vertical writing there is but one definite and easily determined direction for all the main lines.

All must acknowledge that hygienic considerations are of supreme importance, and should receive most careful attention from every

teacher, and connected with this thought are some of the strongest arguments in favor of the vertical system.

The best position that a pupil can assume for sloping writing causes the lower part of the spine to bend to the left. The curve or backward slope of the surface of the seat would seem in a measure responsible for this, but even on a level seat, if such still exists in any schoolroom, the same conditions must prevail. The left arm is deprived of its support, the left shoulder is therefore allowed to fall lower than the right, thus curving the middle of the spine to the right. The position of the paper on the desk, together with the main lines of the writing, leads to inclining the head to the left in order to view the work properly, thus causing a constant strain on the muscles of the neck and continuing the curve of the spine.

Think of the thousands of public school children in Ontario who are supposed to be trained in such a way as to make the most of their mental and physical powers allowed to assume, day after day, through all the years of school life, a posture which naturally leads to deformity and disease.

In writing for any length of time continuously, there are certain parts of the body that exhibit signs of fatigue and even of pain, viz., the eye, hand, chest and spine. Almost anyone who writes the sloping hand and finds it necessary to cover large quantities of work in the least possible time, can testify to the weary eye, pained wrist, distressed chest and aching back, as well as great nervous exhaustion. These conditions prevailing from day to day have been found to be the most fruitful source of short-sightedness, spinal curvature and diseases.

It may be questioned by some that such apparently slight causes should produce these terrible physical evils, but the testimony of many of the most distinguished medical men in Europe who have instituted formal investigations for the purpose of discovering a cause, stamp it as an indisputable fact.

The well-known Drs. Berlin and Remboldt, who made for the Wurtemburg Government an exhaustive inquiry into the effects of handwriting upon the eyesight and spinal malformations, show conclusively that the sloping style causes the head to hang over, one shoulder to droop, and the spine to curve, so that the writer soon grows weary. A natural result of this position is spinal curvature. In numerous instances the eyes also are injured, especially where a large amount of writing has to be done.

The Supreme Council of Hygiene of Austria has recently been engaged in discussing the advantages of erect as compared with slanting writing, and the official report of Drs. Von Reuss and Lorenz points strongly in favor of the former. They point out that the direction of the written characters has a marked influence on the position of the body. In "straight" writing the scholar faces his work, and is spared the twist of the body and the neck which is always observable in those who write "slantwise," and one common cause of spinal

curvature is thus obviated. The erect style is, therefore, recommended for use in schools in preference to the ordinary sloping lines.

At the late International Congress of Hygiene and Demography in Section 4, which was concerned with the hygiene of infancy and school life, a resolution was passed in favor of the teaching of upright penmanship or vertical writing, on the ground that spinal curvature and short sight are caused by the faulty position of the youthful student necessitated by the slope of the letters.

Medical men in France also recognize the necessity of teaching upright writing, and there the reform has many warm advocates, among others M. Javal, who has made an interesting report to the same effect to the French Academy of Medicine.

A lady, recognized as an eminent authority on physical culture, recently gave it as her opinion that in America fifty per cent. of the women have some degree of spinal curvature, and seventy-five per cent. have some inequality of hips or shoulders. The chief cause she thought was the position occupied at school desks.

Mr. Noble Smith, F.R.C.S., who is considered one of the first authorities on spinal curvature, speaks most emphatically of the detrimental effects of oblique writing. His extensive hospital and other practice, and his intimate acquaintance with school life, especially with reference to posture, give his utterances the weight of the highest authority. After making an official and formal inquiry into the question of posture in writing, he publicly declares in many works that "the postures of young people assumed in the sloping writing are one of the chief factors in the production of spinal curvature; and although good seats and desks are a great help in securing a better position, it is impossible for writers to avoid twisting the spine unless they adopt an upright style of caligraphy. Vertical writing is consistent with all hygienic principles."

In the position for vertical writing, the upper part of the body remains upright and is supported by the spinal column, which is prevented from becoming tired by resting its lower portion against a support, and thus levels the hips. The forearms, not the elbows, are laid on the desk in a symmetrical position; being the shoulder props, they bring the transverse axis, the connecting line between the shoulders, and the transverse axis of the head parallel to the edge of the desk. The latter is lowered but slightly, not more than is necessary to obtain a clear view of the paper, which is placed slightly to the right of the median line of the body. As you may see, there is absolutely no twist in any part of the body, it leaves the spine perfectly straight.

Finally, to summarize, judgment is claimed for vertical writing upon the consensus of opinion of all who have examined the matter with care, upon our own observation and careful experiments, and upon the strong, unanimous testimony of the most eminent medical and educational experts. All these agree that:-

1. It greatly facilitates legibility and rapidity, the prime requisites in writing.

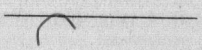
2. In it all hygienic conditions are most favorable.

3. It is more easily learned than any other style, and hence will earlier become an aid in the teaching of all other school studies.

4. It materially economizes time, material, as well as physical, mental, and even moral energy.

It is the writing of the future. When it generally prevails, talking with a pen will be accomplished with as much freedom and grace and almost as much pleasure as talking with the tongue.

Should anyone then try to create a craze for sloping writing, it would meet with as much public indignation and ridicule as the recent threatened revival of the crinoline.



COMMERCIAL WORK IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

BY W. H. DAVIS,

Principal, Ryerson School, Hamilton.

In addressing you on this subject, I shall first give a few reasons for believing this work should be done, then shall tell why I believe it should be done in Public Schools, and, finally, shall detail what I believe should be taught to a commercial class.

It matters not what occupation a boy or girl may decide upon, a knowledge of business usages and of methods of book-keeping are certain to be advantageous. In these days of commercial activity, all sorts of schemes for acquiring riches are offered to the public. The young person with a knowledge of business affairs is enabled to avoid the pitfalls cunningly opened out to entrap the unwary, by schemers who overrun the country, offering much for little. Clever rascals abound who promise enormous returns for a small outlay, shrewdly putting off the day of repayment, so that the poor dupe may pay away his money, to find at the end the scheme enriched only the projector. For example, a short time ago a society was started in many places, which promised each member, for a small investment each month, a profit of nearly 100 per cent. at the end of the year. Anyone who had ever heard a lesson on money values would see the absurdity of such a claim. Again and again do we find hay-fork schemes, fancy-grain schemes, and so on, successfully defrauding people in many parts of our Province. Again and again, do we find people signing documents they have not read, trusting to the promises of oily-tongued adventurers. I contend that a knowledge of business customs, of business paper and of business methods will hinder the coming generation from being duped in this way.

Again, even a rudimentary knowledge of Commercial Law will often save a man a lawyer's bill.

The systematic keeping of accounts will always enable one to know one's standing with the world, and whether certain projected expenditures can be afforded.

As a writer on the subject says: "Business has its laws, its usages, its vocabulary, its methods, established by common consent of business men. These are now reduced to a science. This science can and should be taught." Some ridicule commercial teaching and say, "Experience will teach these things." Experience is a good school, but the knowledge gained through it often costs much trouble and money, which may be saved by profiting by the experience of others, and learning in school those things which take so long and cost so much to acquire by experience.

Horace Mann, the prince of New England educators, says: "One single application of such knowledge is often sufficient to reimburse its possessor for all it may cost him to obtain it, and then he enjoys it gratuitously all the rest of his life. I cannot but regard the young man of our day, who embarks in a mercantile business without such a preparation as a mercantile school can afford him, as guilty of the same folly as a mariner who would take charge of a vessel and put to sea, alike ignorant of shallows and reefs and of the channels between them and the sea he proposes to navigate. An accurate account-book is as necessary to a merchant as an accurate log-book is to a sailor."

Harriet Beecher Stowe says: "No young lady could have a better safeguard against the adversities of fortune, or a better resource in time of need than a knowledge of book-keeping and business affairs."

Business training teaches honesty, accuracy and neatness, and seeks to guard the innocent against the unscrupulous schemer and speculator in mythical values.

What evidence have we for believing that the people generally understand this? By examining the statistics of the Education Department, we find nearly 17,000 pupils doing commercial work in the Public Schools, and about seventy per cent. of the pupils in the High Schools and Collegiate Institutes are taking the commercial course. In addition, notice the numbers who attend the Business Colleges.

In this connection it might also be noted that the percentage of pupils taking a commercial course is constantly increasing.

The next question naturally is, Where should commercial work be taught? Some claim it should be left to Business Colleges, some would assign it to High Schools and Collegiate Institutes, but I claim that a training which I believe to be essential for every person naturally belongs to the school of the people, the school which comes to the door of everyone, namely, the Public School.

For those who can afford it and who intend to embark in business, the Business College is most valuable, furnishing as it does a post-graduate course to the pupil from the Public School.

The High Schools and Collegiate Institutes are not the proper places, as they are attended by so small a percentage of the children of our Province. These schools do not reach the great mass of pupils, and if the commercial work were left to them, a very large proportion of the children of this Province would be entirely without this valuable training. At the present time there are 14,950 pupils in the first forms of our High Schools and Collegiate Institutes of whom a large number are taking this work. The great majority of these pupils should be in the Public Schools, where they could be trained at less expense to the taxpayers and to the advantage of the Public Schools. If these pupils were in the Public Schools a better class of teachers would be required, and we would soon find an increase in the number of first and second class teachers employed and a decrease

in the number of third class teachers, and hence better all round teaching in these schools.

To illustrate this: A rural school near Hamilton employed a third class teacher. Eleven students were compelled to leave the school and attend High Schools at a considerable expense to their parents. A second class teacher who had studied first class certificate work was engaged to succeed him. When the people found his merits, these eleven students left the High Schools and formed a fifth class in the school. Their parents were saved a large expense, the section received a larger share of the Government grant, the pupils were at home subject to parental control and home influences, and the school as a whole received better teaching. Similar instances will occur to many of you.

I notice from an Inspector's report to the Department that there is a noticeable decrease in the number of older pupils in the Public Schools under his care. The reason is easily seen. There being no encouragement for fifth class work, a lower grade of teachers will be employed. The senior pupils finding nothing designed for them leave school. Many cannot afford a High School course, so their school education is finished.

Where a rural section or a city or a town school forms a fifth class, if the Government would aid it by increasing the grant and thus allowing the trustees some encouragement for doing what is now a portion of High School work, many more classes would be formed with consequent gains to the taxpayers, the Public Schools and to Public School teachers.

I might instance the popularity of higher class work in the Public Schools. In 1890, 11,691 pupils were doing fifth class work, an increase over 1889 of 998, or more than 8 per cent. In 1890 the number of pupils attending the High Schools and Collegiate Institutes was 19,395, an increase over 1889 of 753, or about 4 per cent. In 1890, 31 towns and cities were doing fifth class work, as against 25 in 1889; and this progress has been made, notwithstanding a regulation, constantly repeated, recommending trustees to not form a fifth class where a High School was situated.

In Hamilton, commercial classes were established in the Public Schools in 1886, with 66 pupils. In 1890, this number had increased to 374, or an increase of more than 450 per cent. The Entrance Examination for High Schools is the test for entrance to these classes, and at the present time when an examination is held the commercial classes get 50 per cent. of the students who pass, thus evincing the popularity of such a course where given a trial.

We now come to a consideration of the course of study. The first point to be noted here is the design of the course: to furnish a finishing course for those unable or unwilling to take a High School course. Thus, in the different subjects, the aim must be the practical side of education. The present curriculum for Leaving Examination

for Public Schools might be used, or a course of study outlined as follows, differing in some details from that course of study:

In *Literature* the aim should be to help the student to a love for good literature. Very little attention should be paid to technicalities, the chief points demanding attention being the meaning of passages and the beauties of language.

Grammar should be practical. Correct use of common synonyms, correction of ordinary mistakes, etc.

Reading as set down for fifth class work.

Spelling of words in common use, words used on the farm, in the home, on the street, in business.

History of Canada.—I would direct most attention to our form of Government, of the Dominion, of the Province, of the county or city, and of the township.

Geography.—Commercial Geography will attract most attention. Students should study exports, imports and commercial facilities of countries. Chief attention will be given to Canada, British Isles and United States.

Composition.—The pupil should be able to write business and friendly letters. He should write all letters needed in the business of the various sets of book-keeping. He should also be able to write circulars, advertisements, notices of meetings, reports of meetings, minutes of meetings, telegrams, etc. There should also be some training in Descriptive Composition.

Arithmetic.—I would lay much stress on training in rapid and accurate use of the Simple Rules. Commercial Arithmetic and Simple Mensuration would complete the course.

Drawing.—When the pupil has entered this course he has some knowledge of Freehand Drawing. He should now be trained in use of the ruler and compasses. I would have him take the Practical Geometry and Perspective of the Elementary Art school course.

Writing.—The aim is to produce good business writing. In my opinion good writing is that which is legible and which is produced with ease and speed. Movement is the important thing. The laborious drawing of letters with hand cramped and fingers doing all the work, if it has ever been allowed, must now be discontinued. I would advise forearm movement or combination of forearm and finger movements for general work, with wholearm movement for ledger headings and other large writing. Plain business capitals should be used. I desire to commend the present series of copy books as a decided advance on the old series in the direction of business writing. I think it would be wise to have, for those who do especially neat work, some work in fancy lettering and ornamental pen work.

In connection with the mechanical part of the training it might be suggested that some little manual training might profitably be introduced.

The pupil should be familiarized with the customs of trade. He

should understand what is meant by endorsing a note, drawing on a man, cashing a cheque, protesting a note, etc. He should know the various forms of business paper: notes, drafts, orders, due bills, cheques, invoices, etc. It is well to have examples of business documents to place in his hands. He should write out those he issues as the proprietor of the business in the sets of book-keeping he works.

He should have an elementary idea of the laws connected with these documents. I might suggest the points of law in the High School Book-keeping, or better, the chapters on this subject in the "Canadian Accountant." He should also understand the commercial columns of a newspaper. In other words he should know the language of the market.

Book-keeping.—The pupil should be given a course suitable to his probable occupation. In rural sections he should be taught farmers' accounts, tradesmen's accounts, retail merchants' accounts, township accounts, school section accounts. Single entry is more important here than double entry, though I would at first teach double entry, as the science of book-keeping is found there, and when the pupil has a fair knowledge of double entry, single entry is very easy.

For town or city school, the pupil should know how to keep mechanics' accounts, retail merchants' accounts, professional men's accounts, wholesale merchants' accounts and manufacturers' accounts.

Double entry is more important here, though I would attach considerable importance to single entry.

For city or town class, and for rural class where practicable, I would add Phonography, not only for its value as a labor-saving device, but also as a training in pronunciation.

Typewriting should be added when the class becomes large enough to justify the expenditure.

Indexing of Business Papers should also be taught, and for advanced students Indexing of Correspondence, Precis Writing and Transcription.

For rural sections I would add Agriculture.

The pupils to receive this instruction should be those belonging to fifth and senior fourth classes, and large pupils who will soon leave school, or who came in to supplement a deficient training by a short course in the winter months.

In every town or village employing more than one teacher, this work can be easily done.

In rural sections, some claim that this work would hinder the teaching of lower classes, but I think this argument will not be found very important.

For Literature, Geography, Writing, Spelling, History and Reading, the class could be combined with fourth class. The talks on Commercial Usages, Business Forms, Commercial Law and Business Columns of a Newspaper will be of value to all advanced students, and surely the training of these pupils is of sufficient value to justify the giving of the necessary time to the other subjects.

If the standard of the Entrance Examination were raised to include part or all of this course, or if the scope of the Public School Leaving Examination were extended so that aid would be given to one-master schools doing this work, the extra time would not be grudged by the ratepayers.

I might recapitulate the resulting gains consequent upon the adoption of this course. The larger pupils would be held longer in the Public Schools, a gain to the educational advancement of the Province, as so many cannot afford to take the High School course. There will be a gain to the parents in rural sections, in that they need not incur the large expense caused by sending their children away from home influences to the city or town, where they frequently hear farmers and farming spoken of disrespectfully, and often, in consequence, acquire a distaste for country life. A step toward the solution of the question of "How to keep the boy on the farm," will be made. A better educated class of farmers will arise. A better grade of teachers will be required, hence better training for the pupil and advantage to the profession of public school teacher.

THE PRESENT CONDITION OF THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE SUPERANNUATION FUND.

BY S. M'ALLISTER,

Supervising Principal, Toronto Public Schools.

The late Dr. Ryerson, Chief Superintendent of Education, proved himself to be considerably in advance of his time in all matters connected with education, and in none more than in the establishment of a Superannuation Fund for worn-out teachers. What he succeeded in doing forty years ago, the British public, by their representatives in Parliament, are preparing to do to-day.

Before dealing with the present administration of the Fund, it may be well to give an outline of its history.

When the Fund was first established in 1853, it was provided that no teacher should become a participator in its benefits except one suffering from some physical disability, or whom age had rendered unfit for further effective service, and who was in needy circumstances.

The annual contribution to the Fund by each teacher was, from the first, four dollars a year. Up to 1871 this was voluntary, but the amount of the teachers' contributions was so small, and the Government allowance so meagre, that for several years the annual payment to each beneficiary was not more than two dollars per year for each year of service. Even as late as 1871 it was only $2.33. In that year the contribution was made compulsory on all male Public School teachers. This change created some discontent on the part of a number of Public School masters, who, however, became reconciled to it when the payments from the Fund were put on a more satisfactory basis, as they were in 1873, when the allowance for each year of service was raised to six dollars.

In the following year two classes of beneficiaries were put upon the Fund: first, those under sixty years of age, who, on account of some physical infirmity, were unfit to continue to discharge efficiently the duties of their profession, and, second, those who, as having reached the age of sixty years, were entitled to the allowance on retirement.

In the same year, female Public School teachers, High School teachers, and Public and High School inspectors were allowed to become voluntary contributors to the Fund, and to share in its benefits. The allowance for each year of service was increased to seven dollars in favor of those teachers holding First Class Provincial certificates.

No further change was made in the administration of the Fund

until Mr. Ross became Minister of Education. I may say, however, that the late Mr. Crooks, when in charge of the Education Department, seriously contemplated, at one time, making important changes by which teachers could get a more liberal allowance on retirement by making larger annual contributions to the Fund.

In 1885, through the instrumentality of the Minister of Education, several radical changes were made. The contributions to the Fund ceased to be compulsory, and, with the view of eventually abolishing it, no fresh contributors were to be allowed after the first of July, 1886. Those who continued their payments were given to the same date to pay up, at the rate of five dollars a year, all arrears due from the time they became teachers until they became regular contributors to the Fund. Any who wished to withdraw from it might do so, and receive one-half of the amount which they had paid in. All teachers holding valid First Class County Board certificates were put upon the same footing as those holding Provincial certificates of the same class, by being allowed, on retirement, seven dollars per year for each year of service, instead of six. Another change which the Minister proposed, was to double the contribution without any compensating advantage in the way of increased allowance. I am glad to say that, owing to the efforts of teachers throughout the country in drawing the attention of their representatives in the House to the unfairness of this proposal, and to the energetic steps taken by a committee in Toronto, which interviewed prominent members on both sides of the House, including Sir Oliver Mowat and Mr. Meredith, both of whom looked favorably on the representations made to them, it fell to the ground. Since 1885 there has been no change made in the administration of the Fund. During the years 1889, '90 and '91, the expenditure in allowances remained in the neighborhood of $60,000, so that it may now be considered to have reached a maximum, and will henceforth gradually decrease. Mr. Paull, the clerk in the Department who has charge of the Fund, reckons that it will cease to exist in about twenty-five years.

In the present administration of the Fund, there are two classes of beneficiaries to deal with, in accordance with the change introduced in 1874, those under sixty years of age, and those of sixty and over. The form of procedure for the First Class is to make application to the Department for the allowance on a form provided for the purpose. In this the applicant makes, among other things, the following declaration: "I gave up teaching by reason solely of ill-health, and such ill-health was, and is, of such a nature and extent as prevents my continuing to earn my livelihood by teaching, or in any other employment or occupation." Now, this declaration is faulty in more respects than one. A man may be in excellent, general health, and yet be compelled to give up teaching through some local infirmity, such as failing eyesight or defective hearing, and he may therefore scruple to subscribe to the declaration. Again, while unfitted for

teaching, he may feel able to engage in some other employment by which he can eke out a livelihood, but the last statement in the declaration which I have quoted, excludes such an one from the benefits of the Fund. I am assured by Mr. Paull that this declaration is not insisted on. If so, why is it inserted? A declaration something like the following would, I think, best suit all cases, and would sufficiently protect the Department: "I gave up teaching by reason solely of such infirmity or ill-health as prevents me from performing my duties efficiently as a teacher."

The teacher's application must be accompanied by a medical certificate, averring, and giving a description of, the disability under which he labors, and declaring that it does not arise from intemperate habits.

Every beneficiary in this class has to make before a Justice of the Peace an annual declaration of the continuance of his disability. He must present a medical certificate to the same effect, which must state any reasonable prospects of recovery. The Inspector of the District in which he lives has also to certify that he has appeared before him, that he has inquired into his case and circumstances, that he is not engaged, and has not been engaged during the past year, in teaching, and that his present employment is so and so, also that his habits are strictly temperate.

It will thus be seen that the Department spares no pains, nor does it spare the feelings of this class, in protecting itself from fraud, and the teacher who has the misfortune to become disabled before he is sixty will have his self-respect sorely tried if he wishes to become a participant of the Fund.

The administration of the Fund, with regard to those of sixty years of age and over, is much simpler and less vexatious, and it accords more with the dignity of the profession. The applicant has to give satisfactory evidence of his age, of the length of time, and the places where, he has taught, the certificates of qualification he has held, and of his good, moral character, and sober, steady habits. After being put upon the Fund, he has simply to make a declaration yearly that he has not been engaged in teaching during the previous year, and does not expect to teach during the following one.

Attention to the following points is important in the interests of both classes:—

All applications accompanied by all necessary certificates, and also by a report from the Inspector, must be received by the Department before the end of the year preceding that in which it is desired that the allowance shall commence.

In case of physical disability to teach, the desired testimony may be sent in to the Department immediately after the physician has declared the necessity for retirement on the part of the person who wishes to apply, even though he may continue to teach to the end of the year. When a teacher who is sixty years old or over intends to give

up teaching, he may furnish all the testimony that his case requires to put him on the Fund, six months before the beginning of the year in which he wishes to be made a beneficiary.

If these points are not strictly attended to, and the necessary documents do not reach the Department in time to be acted upon at the beginning of the year, applicants will lose the benefit of one year's allowance.

All those who are in receipt of allowances from the Fund have still to contribute to it, their four dollars being deducted from what they are entitled to yearly.

In the event of the death of a contributor who has not been superannuated, his legal representative can obtain a refund of all he has contributed, together with accrued interest at the rate of seven per cent. per annum.

Contributors retiring from the profession, or who wish to cease paying into the Fund, can obtain a refund of half the amount which they have contributed.

All contributions in arrear are charged for at the rate of five dollars per year, and if a contributor to the Fund delays the payment of his fee for one day beyond the end of the year, he has to pay five dollars instead of four.

Those who formerly paid into the Fund but ceased subscribing, may at any time have one-half of what they subscribed allowed to them, or if they are still teaching they may pay up back subscriptions from 1885 onwards, and continue their subscription to the Fund. They are not allowed to pay up any arrears for any year previous to 1885, however.

There are at present 465 persons drawing allowances from the Fund; of these, 396 are males, and 69 are females. Their average age is sixty-five and a half years. One hundred and thirty-four are under sixty, four are over ninety, and one has reached the ripe age of ninety-six. There are now 338 males and 27 females subscribing to the Fund.

I have thus made a pretty complete statement of the present condition of the administration of the Superannuation Fund. That I have been able to do so, has been owing largely to the courtesy and kindness of Mr. Paull, the Clerk of the Department, who has charge of the Fund. He not only supplied me with all the information which I asked for, but volunteered a good deal that I did not ask for, and which I have been able to embody in this paper. I am glad to have this opportunity of acknowledging my obligations to him.

PHONIC READING.

BY MRS. J. S. ARTHURS, TORONTO.

It will be quite impossible to do justice to this important subject in one paper. I do not intend to read an essay, but to give you some practical hints on the new method of teaching Reading, and I trust that they may be presented so plainly that those teachers who are convinced of its value may begin, on the opening day of school, to teach and work out the system for themselves. It is useful, yes, invaluable, in every grade.

No subject of school study has presented more difficulties to the minds of little children than Reading, and this has been owing to the manner in which it has been presented. The English language is full of difficulties, and if we introduce the child to them all at once, we shall most certainly make the study distasteful to him.

There are three distinct steps in the process of learning to read: 1. The automatic recognition of words. 2. The extraction of thought. 3. The expression of thought. The last taught by proper gymnastics in emphasis, tone, pitch, inflection, rate of utterance, gesture, etc.

There have been three systems of teaching Reading, viz., the Alphabetic, or Naming Plan, the Word System, and the Phonic System, and, although the first and second had their advantages, the last is incomparably their superior.

Let us turn for a moment to the two that may now be considered almost obsolete:

The Alphabetic—The disadvantages of this plan are, the *names* of letters do not assist the pupils in pronouncing a word as it is spelled—examples, cat, dot, etc.; and they are obliged to spell and pronounce each new word after the teacher before they know what it is,—pronounced according to the names of the letters, iv (ivy), kt (Katie), sa (essay), dk (decay), xl (excel), sx (Essex). The only advantage is that they learn to *spell* the words.

The Word system—This is a step in advance, but still the pupils are dependent on some one else, not for the elements, but for every new word. The advantages are apparent, pupils are taught to converse naturally, to speak expressively, and to read (?) expressively, as they know what they are going to say without the aid of visible language, but they are not getting thought from *visible* language, and that is what reading is.

Example: I have tested children who had *gone through* the First Book, perhaps several times, by asking them to pronounce isolated words in the simplest lessons, and they could not do so, as the lessons had been learned by rote. Some children were able to *spell* from memory, but not one was able to write from dictation.

What is an alphabet? An alphabet is a code of signals. Two necessary conditions of every good code are, (1) every signal must correspond to and ask for one thing, and one only; (2) each thing must be asked for by only one signal.

A child naturally and reasonably expects that the form of a word shall change when the sound changes, and that the sound shall remain the same with the same form. But, alas for expectations! the *eye* is trifled with, and the *ear* is not kept faith with, therefore the teacher must train the child's *mind*.

This irregularity is chiefly in the use of the vowels. For instance, the work done by the letter "e," in the spelling of words, is so varied, and frequently so purposeless, that, after the child has met with it in all its positions, he can scarcely be expected to know what its use is and what it is not. Examples: wet, mate, meet, meat, spread, tie, cider, piece, conceive, few, due, foe, yeoman, they, honey, heifer, stumped.

No wonder the junior classes find it difficult to learn to read, and that even the intermediate classes find it hard to learn to spell.

The question arises, what are the natural motives and desires to which we can appeal for help in this work that will induce our little ones to take kindly to it, and make it welcome and a pleasure, not painful and a labor?

We must use a *consistent notation*, in which sound and symbol always agree, and this we are able to do by means of the Phonic system during the first few months of the child's school life. This consistent notation represents the twenty-six letters of the alphabet in only one of their functions; and if intelligently taught it can be learned with pleasure in a very short time. The child becomes complete master of one function of each letter, his experience never contradicts itself, his expectations are always realized.

He may then proceed to words less common and irregular; many words will refuse to fall into a class, these must be dealt with as exceptions and learned as individuals, although nothing must be said to the child about such peculiar words until he meets with them; by that time good habits will have been formed and mental power created, and the task of learning such words will be an easy one.

The principles of Pestalozzi, that but one difficulty should be presented at a time—that the business of the *teacher* is *analysis*—that all difficulties should be divided and subdivided until reduced to their simple elements—and that the work of the baby *learner* is *synthetical*, are peculiarly applicable in the prosecution of Phonic Reading.

Begin with one sound of the consonants and the short sound of the vowels, as in *mat, met, mit, dog, dug*. The work is divided into Eye Problems and Ear Problems—word-building and word-breaking; the former illustrating synthetic, the latter analytic teaching; the former teaching the first step in reading, which is word recognition, and the latter spelling.

Marks only interest children as far as they represent life, as  soldiers,  child sitting down,  man making a bow,  box,  chair, etc.; and children are more interested in what things do and say than in their names, therefore the sound and the shape of the letter are introduced to the little ones by means of a story, which all children dearly love. No two teachers will use the same illustration or tell the same story. Some teachers may ask, "How long would you continue the story-telling when teaching new letters?" When the children no longer need the stories, the time will depend on the age of the little ones and their mental activity. A man lays aside his crutches when he is able to walk.

The consonants are divided into voice and breath consonants, and are also either stopped or continuous. The children more readily learn the sounds of the continuous voice consonants, l, m, n, v, etc.; the most difficult are the stopped voice consonants, b, c, d, g, etc.

The teacher should be very particular in giving and getting the *correct* sounds of the letters. Examples difficult sounds: c, g, p, etc. There is no special order to be observed in teaching the letters, although, after ten years' experience with the Phonic, I have found the following a good one: m, a, p, t, s plurals (s); numerals, ee, I, n, c, d, ı, 's, g, ŏ, l, b, ĕ, h, f, v, oo (moon), ŭ, r, w, x, j, y (initial), qu, ā, ē, ī, ō, ū by "e" at the end of the word: oi } eu } ou } au } ; p and b, t oy } ew } ow } aw } and d, c and g, s and z are called *cognate* sounds—the *organic formation* of the pair is the same, but one is a breath sound, the other a voice sound.

The word "ma" is chosen for the first lesson because it is the name that represents home to the child, and through the story about mother, little boys and girls, and home, is formed a bond between teacher and pupil, *home* and school. Consonants may be called little boys; vowels, little girls. The letters must be made on the blackboard as simply as possible, leaving out the connecting parts until two letters are to be joined, when the little ones will see the necessity for the new part. "M" and "a" are taught carefully in regard to sound and form; the little ones sound them at first separately; they are then placed in closer proximity, and the children sound them more and more quickly, until it dawns upon them that they have said "ma." Then follows a chat about the mothers of the children, after which each child writes the name on his slate, the teacher helping when necessary. What has been accomplished on that first day at school? The little one has taken his first step in Reading, Writing and Spelling, and his little heart swells with delight as he writes and sounds the word for the loved ones at home.

"Pa" is taught in the same manner. The children are trained to think; the baby says "mama," and so they write "ma" twice, also "papa."

"T"—ta, used by the baby for "Thank you," mat, pat, tap, at, am

The children are not told these new words, they pick them out for themselves. They are independent of their teacher, if they know that s-t-a-m-p says stamp, they are able to read and write every word made by those letters as: am, sam, at, mat, map, mast, mats, maps, pat, past, tap, taps, papa and mama; say, fourteen words.

"Children learn by doing;" children cannot learn without giving active and intelligent attention, and unless they work with their fingers, we cannot be sure that they are attending to the lesson. The overcoming of difficulties and the solving of problems, adapted to their advancement, are the most certain methods of enabling pupils to make progress, and in making pupils independent of their teachers, in Reading, or in any other subject. In Eye problems or Word Recognition the teacher writes the word on the board; the pupils sound it inaudibly until they think they know it, when each whispers the word to the teacher. In Ear problems, or Spelling, the teacher pronounces the word correctly; the little ones give each sound, and write the letter representing each sound on the slate. In giving words to the pupils, or asking for them, let them be words associated with life and which they know orally.

Pupils and teachers should use script from the beginning, on slates and board; it is easier to write script than to print. The writing of script can be done more rapidly; the pupils have to use it all through life, and the transition from reading script to reading print is easy, and presents no practical difficulty. No books should be used during the first two or three months of their experience in learning to read, so that no confusion need arise from the two forms, script and print. After the new part of a lesson has been taught, review problems, suited to the advancement of the brightest members of the class, should be asked, and the first two or three who solve them on their slates, or by whispering the answers, should be allowed to go to their seats, and proceed with work assigned by the teacher; then less difficult problems should be given, and the successful workers allowed to retire. This plan will enable teachers to find out pupils who require most teaching, and will secure for the dull or slow pupils a larger share of direct, personal attention than they would otherwise receive. The dull pupils require most teaching, but in reality their individual development is very slight so long as the bright pupils remain with them, as they merely follow the leaders.

In all oral exercises carefully avoid sounding the consonants too long—organic contact should be instantaneous.

Plans in Teaching Phonic.

One of the greatest advantages of the Phonic system over every other is the great number and pleasing variety of plans and devices that may be used by a live teacher; they all teach Reading, and some of them have the additional merit of teaching Writing, Spelling, Grammar and Composition incidentally.

I. Call a pupil to the front of the class and write with chalk a large letter on his slate, let all the pupils tell what it says, then bring up three others in a similar manner; the pupils brought to the front should be the most advanced in the class, as the development connected with the exercise is confined chiefly to those not brought forward. Suppose the little ones know m, a, p, t, s. The five pupils who have these letters on their slates, stand on the platform with their slates in front of their breasts—the letters turned to the class.

Each pupil represents a letter, the teacher names the word ma, or pa, mat, mast, tap, taps, etc., and calls on a pupil in the class to arrange the pupils so as to make the word asked for. A child may form a whole word or place one letter. The exercise may be varied by the teacher placing the pupils to form a word and asking a child to name the word made. This exercise has much to recommend its use in classes beginning to read; it is regarded as a game, it associates life and doing with letters, it admits of great variety in practice, and holds the attention of the class.

II. Let each pupil write any word he chooses, containing the letters learned; give the command, "change slates," and ask each child to read the word on the slate in his possession.

III. The teacher may write all the words thus written on the board, and ask the pupils to read.

IV. Sentence reading may begin as soon as "I" and "see" have been taught. Many sentences may be made from a few by ringing the changes. Example: Sentences 4, 5, 6, 7, etc., are made by the teacher pointing to the words in 1, 2 and 3, that will form the new sentences. (1) I see mama; (2) Sam sees a cat; (3) A cat is on a mat; (4) I see a cat; (5) Mama sees a cat; (6) Sam sees mama; (7) Sam is on a mat, etc.

V. Each child make a word using m, or s, t, r, or using a combination ch, sh, th, etc.; perhaps no two children will make the same word.

VI. Teacher sound the letters in a word, and pupils name the word.

VII. Teacher write on board letters, or words, or sentences, then rub off and pupils tell what was written.

VIII. Spelling match by *sound* of phonetic words (*a*) oral, (*b*) on slates.

IX. Spelling and recognition of *big* words (strictly phonetic) of more than one syllable, such as Canada, banana, splendid, bamboo, hen-coop, parasol, asparagus, etc.

X. Word-building by *prefixing* a letter or letters to words or combinations to form new words, as *it*, bit, hit, fit; *old*, bold, fold, gold, hold, told; *ring*, bring, string; bag, lag, wag, rag.

XI. By *affixing* a letter or letters to words or combinations to form new words, as an, and, ant; mad, man, mat; pa, pat, pan, pad, pap, etc.

XII. By both prefixing and affixing to the same word or combination, as in s-*in*-k, c-*old*-s, p-*an*-t, etc.

XIII. By making *internal* additions to form new words, as fat, flat; pant, plant; gain, grain; sop, stop, slop.

XIV. By erasing part of a word, thus forming a new word, as ship, hip, sip; spout, pout, out; shrink, rink, ink.

XV. By making as many words as possible from given letters, as from a, n, p, t, s, pa, ta, sat, sap, tan, snap, etc.

XVI. (*a*) Initial substitution: Teacher write the word "bad" on the board; ask a child to change it to had, lad, mad, pad, sad, etc. (*b*) Final substitution: Teacher write cat, pupils change it to cab, cap, can; pig, change to pit, pin. (*c*) Internal substitution: pat, pet, pit, pot; step, stop, stoop, steep.

XVII. Write a number of words on the board without naming them—let the pupils form sentences from them. This is an excellent exercise for a class at seats, while the teacher is engaged with another class.

XVIII. Write a sentence on the board, *drawing* the object spoken of instead of writing its name—pupils read. This will be of great service in teaching the pupils to join "a" and "the" to that which follows, instead of reading them independently. This exercise may be varied by allowing the *pupils* to make the drawings on their slates, instead of the name written by the teacher.

As many plans will be devised by the earnest teacher in dealing with reading lessons in the *Readers*. Supplemental reading matter, both written and printed, is of incalculable benefit, and a source of delight to the children. The stories are fresh and interesting, told in simple language, and no two children have the same story. The *written* stories are composed and written by the teacher on cards; each child receives one and silently reads it. At a command from the teacher the cards are turned over, and dealt with in one of four ways: (*a*) Children write the substance of the stories on their slates; (*b*) several pupils, in turn, tell the stories in their own words—a test of their extraction of thought; (*c*) several pupils, in turn, read the stories aloud; (*d*) pupils read to the teacher only.

The *printed* stories are collected from magazines, newspapers, Sunday-school papers, old Readers, etc. They should be pasted on cardboard or strong wrapping paper, classified, and kept in envelopes or shoe-boxes ready for use. Scraps about animals in one box, about birds in another, etc. These clippings are invaluable in Language Lessons also.

Phonic teaching should not cease when the children leave the First Book. They have not learned all the powers of the letters, and irregularities and peculiarities in our language will be met with more frequently as they are promoted from one class to another. It should be continued through all the grades.

The Phonic system does not *teach* Spelling, but it is an invaluable

aid. If our language were strictly phonetic, it would not be necessary to learn spelling at all. In learning to spell irregular words, the *eye* must be trained, and it decides what is the correct form.

The Phonic system of teaching Word Recognition, claims the following advantages:

1. It puts the child in possession of a key by which he is able to *help himself*; a very important principle in education.

2. The pupil is made independent from the beginning, and "self-activity is the source of growth."

3. Pupils do original work.

4. Observation and reason are cultivated, and there is work done by the child, not parrot-like imitation.

5. Pupils use the knowledge gained at once, apply what is learned, and fix it by application.

6. They *will* spell (by ear) all regular words, and as the Phonic system teaches them to look closely at *every* letter, the form of irregular and peculiar words is more readily and forcibly impressed on the mind through the *eye*.

7. It cultivates distinct articulation.

8. It removes provincialisms.

9. It corrects the improper use of letters learned in babyhood.

10. By its use we have variety and pleasure, not monotonous work. "Educational effort should be in the direction of least resistance, *i.e.*, greatest pleasure."

11. It quickens the senses.

12. It forms a link between home life and school life by means of the stories and illustrations.

13. Teaching by the Phonic system is *synthetic*—the best teaching for little children.

14. It presents but one difficulty at a time, and thus prevents confusion and consequent discouragement.

15. Self-activity has two phases, from without inward—receptive and acquisitive; and from within outward—productive and expressive; these two, the receptive and productive powers, should go hand in hand. The pupil is not dependent on some one for every new word—when he has learned "mast" he can spell all words made from those four letters.

16. It teaches the *sounds* and *powers* of letters. Adults recognize and pronounce all new words by the Phonic system, and the sooner the child learns to do so the better.

17. Children are interested in what things do and say rather than in their names.

18. Marks interest children only when they represent life. In the Phonic system the *teacher* uses the alphabetic names of the letters, but does not ask the children to say them; they learn the names incidentally.

19. Beside Reading—Writing, Spelling, Grammar and Composition are taught incidentally.

The Ennobling Results of the Phonic.

It gives the teacher infinite scope for the development of skill and ingenuity, and numberless opportunities for exercising his powers of classification, of induction, of comparison and contrast; it furnishes the children with tools with which to work, gives them chances of asking questions, of searching and finding, continually excites their curiosity, and makes them bright and independent, therefore helpful.

Yea, it does more—the faithful teacher will *learn*, learn more than he teaches or can teach—*he will learn the art of teaching*, and that that art has an atmosphere of buoyancy and joy which always accompanies skill, ingenuity and thoroughness in our work; and he will daily drink from that well of inspiration that springs from sympathy with young children.

Sounds of "A" "O" "U."

"A" in ran.	"O" in cot.	"U" in bun.
" hale.	" son.	" put.
" father.	" note.	" lute.
" all.	" moon.	" rude.
" fare.	" foot, good.	

Common Combinations.

"sh," as in ship, shop, rash, hush, bush.
"ch," as in chip, cheek, beech.
"ch," after l or n, is sounded as "sh," as in inch, munch, gulch.
"ch," hard, as in monarch, architect.
"th," soft, as in path, mouth, thin.
"th," hard, as in that, rather, bathe.
"ng," as in sing, song, wrong.
"gn," as in sign, deign (g silent).
"nk," as in ink, link, think.
"kn," as in knife, knit (k silent).
"ph," as in Phœbe, Philip (ph sounded f).
"gh" silent, as in light, flight, though, etc.; in cough, enough, the sound of f is heard.
"y" has three sounds: y initial, in yet, yell, yeast; y terminal, the short sound of i, as in empty, duty, charity; y terminal, the long sound of i, as in reply, supply, sky.
"alk," the l silent; "olk," the l silent; "alm," the l silent.
"stle," the t silent, as in epistle, apostle, whistle, thistle.
na*tion*, mis*sion*, coer*cion*, sounded "shun."
adventi*tious*, con*scious*, pre*cious*, sounded "shus."
pa*tient*, tran*sient*, omni*scient*, sounded "shent."
pa*tience*, con*science*, sounded "shens."
"wr," the w silent, as in write, wrong.
"oi" in the *body* of the word, as in toil, boil, coil.
"oy," at the *end* of the word, as in boy, toy, coy.
etc. etc.

Supplementary Reading.

The following are examples of stories composed by the pupils in the primary classes. I heard many such stories read by a class of

fifty little ones in the First Book, not only *expressively* but *intelligently*, as I questioned them on the thought contained or the incident narrated :—

DESCRIPTION OF A PICTURE.

Danny Danielson, Aged Six, York Street School.

I see a little boy in the picture. He has an old hat on and is very poor. He has carols in his hand and is putting them into the houses. There is a scraper outside this house, and the snow is falling on it. The little boy is poor and has not a nice home.

SAM'S VISIT.

John Wood, Aged Seven Years.

Sam went to see his auntie. He was tired and went upstairs. The cat followed him and he got into bed and the cat got in his boot and slept all night and when he woke up in the morning his auntie found the cat in his boot.

NAUGHTY NED.

Ned was in the library one morning when his father was out. He had been told not to go there, but Ned did not always mind. He was looking at something on the desk, when he upset the ink bottle. Of course he did not mean to do it, but the ink ran all over his father's sermon, and on the carpet. Ned was not a truthful boy, so he would not tell of the mischief he had done. He did a mean thing instead. He shut the cat in the room, so his father would blame her. But naughty Ned was found out, after all. It was in this way. He left his hat in the room, and of course his father knew that he had been there. Was not Ned a naughty boy?

THE EDUCATIONAL VALUE OF THE STUDY OF FORM AND DRAWING.

J. A. HILL, PH.B.,

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Many opinions have been advanced regarding the limits and value of education. Some believe that it can do everything, while others claim that it can do nothing, and that upon the endowments conferred by nature rests the difference in the mental capacity of men. I think Lessing, in his "Education of Mankind," expresses the true mean between these two extremes. "Education," he says, "gives a man nothing which he could not have developed from within himself. It gives him that which he might have developed from within himself more quickly and easily."

Education cannot create anything; all it can do is develop and unfold the already existing faculties of the mind. It can only help to bring forth, to light the hidden life. True it is that now and then a person possessed of remarkable endowments, unswerving motive and continuous energy succeeds in overcoming the difficulties of the student and eventually attains an altitude to which others have rendered no assistance; but then vastly greater struggles were made and much longer time spent than if a careful education had aided his aspirations from youth. For it is this that awakens the dormant energies and slumbering powers, incites them to speedy development, and eventually brings them to that perfection which otherwise might never be attained.

Now, education of every kind has two values—value as knowledge and value as discipline. The acquisition of each order of facts has its use as mental exercise, as well as its use in guidance of conduct; and its effects as a preparative for complete living should always be considered under both these heads. There are then in the acquirement of all knowledge the two great aims to be earnestly sought: Fitness of the individual for the service of others, and fitness for personal benefit and happiness. In order to the attainment of this condition of manhood, certain necessary elements are always found as the underlying principles, viz., knowledge, power and habit. And the great value of the study of "Form and Drawing" is due chiefly to the fact that it results in valuable knowledge, available power and correct habits. In the acquisition of these elements, it is very important that the objects of knowledge be present to stimulate the mind to acts of knowing; and since action develops power, and the repetition of processes forms habit—the object being present—it necessarily follows that these principles are practically carried out in the correct study of form and

drawing. The pupil traces the series of causes and effects from the object, until its representation exists clear and vivid in the mind. The mind acts, and there is a mental product. This mental image or impression of an external object, derived through the senses, is more readily attained when the perception is quickened. And the cause of the wide difference in the mental capacity of individuals, in most instances, lies in the fact that the one class has the perceptive powers well trained, and the other has not. The former gains knowledge rapidly and accurately, while the latter is incapable of either. All the workings of the higher powers of the mind in the one are trustworthy, because the keen perceptive faculties have furnished to these powers good material. The possession of the other is inaccurate knowledge, because the mental impressions lack vividness, and the outcome of the reasoning is not to be relied upon, having often inaccurable data for its foundation.

The pupil who gets the training of his judgment, observation, perception, etc., which this study undoubtedly gives, will go to his other studies with such a quickening of that class of mental powers as will make him a clearer, stronger and more accurate student in every department of work. When he leaves school and enters upon the practical duties pertaining to the securing of a livelihood, he has at his command a power that assists most materially in every transaction. The dry goods merchant finds his well-trained senses of sight and touch worth thousands of dollars to him. So, too, the flour merchant, as he tests the different grades of flour, finds it a great advantage being the happy possessor of that delicacy of these senses as secures him success in his calling. Also, the farmer, the mechanic and every worker in life's broad field of toil realizes in a utilitarian view the value of this study.

You present to the child an object, a working drawing, a geometric type, solid, historic ornament, or any other object; he has his attention brought to bear upon it, he views it from various points, certain truths are observed and there necessarily results reflection; the attention becomes concentrated; and then comes a test of the knowledge gained. If this attempt results in a failure to represent the object as perfectly as he should, you set him to study again; he judges, discriminates compares and gains what knowledge he can from the object, and again endeavors to represent more perfectly that which he has been studying. This time he makes a decided improvement on the first attempt. Whence comes his success? No doubt through a greater concentration of his perceptive faculties, closer observation, keener discrimination, more accurate reasoning, more definite control of the hand and more assuring will-power. Every time he is thus led to concentrate his mental powers on an object or a moral truth, and to attempt an expression of the same, he becomes stronger mentally and morally, and more capable of better work at each successive attempt.

Shakespeare says:

"A right judgment,
Draws profit from all things we see."

In this study the powers of the mind are trained through the development of the judgment by observation, comparison, etc. It trains the memory by the necessity of continually referring to what has been already observed. It cultivates the reasoning faculties for the pupil can compare things and draw conclusions. It cultivates the imagination by exercising it in seeking explanation for various forms and phenomena generally. It presents the highest motive that can be made effective in training the will, viz., a desire *to know* the object studied, completely, correctly, or to know the truth therein contained, and to express that truth clearly. The powers of the child's mind only become active when he wills or determines an act. Willing involves a choice and a determination, and the child can best will to act, when he has the desire to act; and of all the departments of study on our curriculum, none can be made more effective in implanting in the child's very being this desire to act. In proportion as he learns to draw he becomes interested; as he approaches perfectiun he draws near the realm of the artistic, and delight is created accordingly.

Again, we are told "Knowledge is the treasure, but judgment the treasurer of a good man." This faculty of the mind is operated upon so effectively that the pupil is better able to compare the ideas received through the senses, and more capable of gaining right conceptions of things and events, hence by degrees there is formed in his mind a standard of duty and propriety. He accumulates rules and maxims for conduct, and materials for reflection and meditation. His judgment restrains his other faculties from undue excursiveness and prevents them from wandering into unprofitable and vicious efforts. As a result his whole being is enlarged and exalted; his scope of view widened; objects of interest increased; life is more replete with emotion and the pupil stands on a higher plane in creation.

"That which strikes the eye
Lives long upon the mind; the faithful sight
Engraves the knowledge with a beam of light."

Michael Angelo saw in that block of marble, rough and rugged as it was, the beautiful he was to produce. And as the pupil from time to time engages in this study, he breathes into his soul in a measure the very atmosphere in which Angelo lived; he absorbs the æsthetic influences of nature which tend to a higher and grander morality. There cannot be a picture without its bright spots; and the steady contemplation of what is beautiful has a reflex influence on the beholder. It produces what it reflects. And it is quite possible in the teaching of this most interesting subject to operate so effectively

on the mind of the child that he will clearly discern that all along the wild and rugged forest have been carved figures of beauty; that every mountain, cliff and tree is a statue of beauty; that every twisting vine and hanging stem and shady leaf is a form of beauty; each landscape, dale and hill a picture of beauty; that the vapor veil, the passing cloud and mist wreath is a shadowy reflection of beauty,—

"An endless fountain of immortal drink,
Pouring unto us from the heaven's brink."

Having done this the teacher may rest assured that he has accomplished an enduring work towards the full development of the child. For there can be no question as to the constant influence of the beautiful as a factor in education. It is allied to purity, and as the former is more clearly seen in the study of form, so the latter becomes permanently impressed in the nature. And since the leading characteristics of manhood come from the atmosphere of the early days, many of the finer traits of his nature, and the more ennobling ideas of a great Creator are woven into the soul through the medium of the study of form as revealed in nature and art. Its moral effects are obvious from the influence it exercises in developing the love of the beautiful, which, as has been remarked, plays a large part in moral processes.

Since drawing is the representation of objects, and as all objects have form, the study of form should precede the expression of form. The study of form originates ideas; these ideas are expressed through drawing. Herein is one of the values of drawing—it necessitates the study of form; it requires close observation, and this in turn coupled with repeated attempts at expression causes accuracy which, in all the business transactions of life, cannot be overestimated. Fix this habit definitely and its possessor goes into the world with "capital stock" that will be recognized in any calling. Teach him accuracy, cause him to practise the habit, set a premium upon it yourself, and the probability is you will influence him more or less in accuracy of speech, and save him from becoming the slavish victim of the scathing denunciation of J. G. Holland, when he said, "There is nothing half so easy as lying." For depend upon it there is a silent influence for good, there is a moral elevation in the study of art, and a right pursuance of one of its branches, drawing, is sure to strengthen the moral tone of our actions.

This study not only prepares the mind to think, the heart to enjoy, the will to purpose, but the hand to perform. It combines the Utilitarianism of Froude and the Hellenism of Matthew Arnold. Its watchword is utility and culture, its motto, "not the mind only, but the man." It gives him, as intimated, a source of power which is converted to practical utility in the toil and business of life, and influences for complete and successful living. Of its practical utility little need be said. Everyone with any experience has, over and

over again, realized the usefulness of being able to draw, and if he has not possessed this power has felt himself decidedly at a loss. Scarcely an occupation in life can be mentioned that cannot be pursued more profitably, more intelligently and more pleasantly through a practical knowledge of drawing. It is invaluable to the mechanic, being almost indispensable to the proper carrying on of his business. Many of our mechanics have had no opportunity of studying art, and are therefore placed at a great disadvantage. Look where you will, and the best workmen are always found amongst those who, by compasses, square, rule and pencil, can represent any portion of a machine, building or other construction which comes within their sphere. And generally these are the men who receive the highest wages. Another great advantage of drawing in almost every mechanical calling is, it provides a means of expressing form better than can be done by the use of words. And since modern civilization rests on productive industry, and it uses the product of the artist as its instrument, and emancipates human beings from drudgery by making them directors of forces, may we not safely infer that this study is of paramount importance in fortifying our young men against the inroads of poverty?

Nor do the styles of architecture and our many modern designs spring into existence like Minerva, from the brain of Jupiter, full-grown and perfect from the start. Look at the wonderful advancement this study has caused in the designs for carpets, silks, rugs, oil-cloth, curtains, embroideries, stamping, wall-paper, wood-carving, lithographing, fresco-painting, stained glass work, etc. All these are the outcome of the artist and are definite expressions of knowledge.

Finally, no study so trains the eye to accuracy or educates it to distinguish form and color, to judge angles and to comprehend principles, as does the one under consideration. The observation is quickened and the judgment perfected. The hand in the performance of anything is given despatch, and there is a marked refinement in the taste which is the natural ally of invention, the gift of nature and the principal mover and creator of art. It opens the golden channels that lead to that glorious condition when the eye beholds God in nature, and throughout His whole creation, design and form. It promotes mental activity, awakens curiosity, exercises ingenuity, arouses reflection, incites the imagination, exalts in the pupil "love of the beautiful," is exhilarating and refining in its influence, and gives elation and freshness to the prosaic routine of school life, mellowing the otherwise saddened picture of study into pensive beauty.

HOW SHALL THE NORMAL SCHOOL DEVELOP PRACTICAL SKILL IN TEACHING?

BY J. A. MACCABE, M.A., LL.D., OTTAWA.

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

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 example.

As a starting point for the discussion of the special topic of this paper, I take for granted that, in the four fields here set forth, the student is thoroughly educated, that 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; or are exemplified by one or more of the regular teachers of the Model School on 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 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 from or in the Model School, and assume full responsibility. This may be set down as *Trial Teaching*.

V. This work of the student—teaching and governing a class of

Normal School students or of Model School pupils—is criticised by Normal or Model, or Normal and Model School teachers.

VI. Students are called on to criticise their fellow-students who teach; these criticisms are, themselves, criticised by the Normal or Model School teachers, or by both.

I think these 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 qualification for admission is the same as, or equivalent to, that required by the Ontario Normal Schools—a second class non-professional certificate, with, at least, one year's experience in teaching—a year's professional training in the Normal School, is necessary. And we cannot conceal the fact that, no matter how high a student's 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 recasting, 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 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 black-board placed in

such a way as to be seen by the students, but not by the pupils under instruction, 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 those headings as the lesson proceeds; this mental scheme, or plan, they are called on 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 a 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 of easy 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 to 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 book, maps, apparatus and black-board 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, 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 criticised 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 come 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 the 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 for 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 first placed in charge of 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 charge of the next higher class, and asked to follow a similar course, and so on in succeeding classes. Or to 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 merely criticised for their faults; it is a place where whatever is excellent in their character, or 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 with respect to the points criticized.

VI. I now reach the last stage of the studend 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 criticised for this work as for any other. A very good plan is to arrange matters so that the student-critic give 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 students to criticise, 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; another, the power of illustration, etc., care being taken to have these given in proper order. Each of these plans should receive its due share of employment. In many practice 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 this 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 of 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 school 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.

ARE MODEL SCHOOLS INJURIOUS TO PUBLIC SCHOOLS WITH WHICH THEY ARE CONNECTED?

BY W. J. SUMMERBY,
Public School Inspector.

In the investigation of this question, I have pursued my inquiries along two parallel lines. In the first place I have looked at the subject along the line of the regulations and recommendations of the Education Department respecting Model Schools, and have asked how the conditions of successful teaching in these schools would likely be affected by the work of training third class teachers in their professional course; and in the second place I have made my observations along the line of practice, by endeavoring to ascertain what experience has to teach us in the matter.

The regulations of the Department lay down five conditions that must be complied with before a Public School can be set apart for Model School work:

"(*a*) The principal shall hold a first class Provincial certificate issued by the Education Department, and shall have had at least three years' experience as a Public School teacher.

"(*b*) There shall be not fewer than three assistants holding at least second class Provincial certificates."

I suppose I am safe in assuming that, other things being equal, the higher the grade of the teachers, the better the work. Now, if the two conditions just quoted have any influence at all upon the qualifications of the teachers of Model Schools, it will certainly be to cause an increase in the numbers of first and second class teachers; and, as a natural sequence of this, there will be a corresponding improvement in the teaching.

An examination of the Minister's reports shows us that, as a matter of fact, the staffs of the Model Schools have been enriched in this way. For, while the number of first class teachers in the Public Schools of the Province has actually decreased since 1877, the year in which the Model School system was established, the number in these particular schools has increased; and, while the increase in the number of second class teachers in the Province has been 128 per cent. during these years, the increase in the number of second class teachers in Model Schools has been 223 per cent. Some, at least, of this increase is no doubt due to the regulations.

The third and fourth conditions have reference to accommodation and equipment, and these I shall not dwell upon, merely observing in passing that, if they affect the school work in any degree, it cannot be injuriously.

The fifth and last condition is as follows:

"(*e*) The principal shall be relieved from all Public School duties, except management, during the Model School term."

In a very few schools (three, according to the last report at hand) the principal is so relieved for the whole year; but in the great majority of the schools this regulation causes a change of teachers in the principal's department every term. There can be no question that this change must be the cause of considerable loss to the school. A change of teachers, looked at merely as a change, is, without doubt, an evil. It is, as it were, a change of the moral and intellectual habitat of the pupil whose growth in both directions is checked until he can accommodate himself to the new environment. Here we find, then, that the school is injured, to some extent at least, by the Model School work.

From the side of experience we arrive at the same conclusion. Mr. Tilley, Inspector of Model Schools, discussing a proposed change in the organization of these schools, says: "The engaging of a substitute each alternate half year to teach the senior division would also be avoided. This at present is often a fruitful source of loss to pupils and of irritation to parents and trustees."—*Minister's Report, 1890.* The Rev. Mr. Somerville who read a paper on Model Schools here last year, said: "To put in a substitute either for Model School work or for Public School work was not to be tolerated for any length of time."

Before leaving this part of the question I may notice that a change of this kind is not nearly so injurious in its effects as a change of teachers in an ungraded school, or as a change in the entire staff of a graded school. In the case under consideration the change is in but one of a number of divisions, from one in three to one in twenty-six, and on the average to less than one in eight. Besides this the organization and general management remain unchanged, which counts for a good deal in the continuity of school work.

We now pass to a consideration of the work of the Model School during the time that the students are in training.

A course of study, hints on management and a syllabus of lectures, contained in a pamphlet sent out from the Department of Education, are, I believe, made general use of by the principals.

For the first two weeks of the session the students in training work in the separate room set apart for Model School work, where they are receiving instruction from the principal, with illustrative lessons in Methods of Teaching, and the more important subjects of the Public School course.

During the next three weeks of the term the students are sent into the various class-rooms for the half of each day, to observe the methods of teaching and discipline practised by the assistants. While here they are encouraged to use their note-books freely, and the results of their observations are discussed with the principal during the criticism hour. It is at this stage of the course that the young

teacher does his first teaching which, for the present, is done in the separate Model School room, under the immediate direction of the principal.

So far there has been no direct interference with the work of the school; but, just here, I shall pause for a moment or two to inquire what effect the work, up to this point, may be expected to have had upon the staff.

Fitch, in one of his lectures, gives us what he considers the qualifications of a perfect teacher. Let us look at one or two of these qualifications, and see whether Model School work leads the teacher towards the ideal or away from it.

The good teacher makes careful preparation for his daily work. Is a teacher that is in the habit of making this daily preparation likely to give any less attention to it by reason of his having in the room several young teachers, all fresh from their non-professional work, all armed with pencil and note-book, and all at work making, so far as they are able, a critical analysis of the lessons taught under their observation? Is he not rather likely to give more?

Extra professional knowledge is another of the signs by which the perfect teacher is known. There will be no question as to the influence in this direction of the Model School work on the principal; and I think that it will require but little consideration to convince us that the Model School assistants also are more likely to do extra work of this kind than are the assistants in other schools. For, if the principal does his duty, he cannot but see to it that the discipline and methods of the teachers under him agree with those laid down in his lectures to the students. To have theory and practice agree, it will be necessary for principal and assistants to study and discuss these subjects.

But what does experience tell us on this part of our inquiry?

At the close of the first year's Model School work, the sub-committee, who had charge of the work of organizing these schools, made a report to the Minister of Education, which may be found in the report for 1877. Among other things, they say that they pointed out to Model School teachers that, "Their school, being a Model School for those receiving instruction in the art of teaching, would necessitate model teaching on their part. As their example in modes of expression, discipline, the habit of self-control, courteousness, etc., was to be copied, they were under an additional stimulus to acquit themselves in the most exemplary manner. Thus, new motives of action were presented and other forces brought to bear, the effect of which must be beneficial to themselves and the Public School under their care." Further on, they say: "The report made to us by the principals fully justifies the position we took, viz., that the Model School, instead of proving injurious to the Public School, would act as a stimulus to secure higher efficiency and greater progress."

Let us now inquire what part of the actual teaching year is taken up by the students while teaching in the class-rooms. During the third division of the Model School term, about eight weeks in length, the students spend a part of each day at this work, and the principals are recommended to require each student to teach thirty lessons, but the number may be varied to suit the circumstances of the particular school.

The writer of the Departmental "Hints" estimates the average number of students in a room at twenty, and the average number of rooms in a school at four, with a senior and a junior division in each. On this basis, allowing seven weeks for practice, with thirty lessons for each student, he finds that it will take up about seventy-five minutes of each pupil's time each day for the seven weeks. Now, since seventy-five minutes is about a quarter of a school-day, and seven weeks about a sixth of a year, the time actually taken up is about the twenty-fourth part of the pupil's time.

We may notice here that the average number of students is now twenty-five, but the average number of rooms used is eight; so that, at present, a smaller fraction of the time is taken up by the students' practice. We may also observe that three schools have fewer than four rooms. Of course, in these a larger proportion of the teaching time is taken up by the students.

Now, although we have found that a comparatively small fraction of the teaching is done by the students, still, we must say that if all this time were lost it would be a serious state of affairs. But I suppose that no one will contend that the teaching power of the student is nil. Before taking charge of a class in a regular class-room, they have the requisite knowledge to teach, as is attested by their non-professional certificate; they have received particular instruction in methods; have had model lessons taught for them by the principal; have spent several weeks in special observation of the assistants at work. They have also taught lessons in the separate Model School room under the direct supervision of the principal. Besides this, they are given ample time for the preparation of each lesson, and teach under the watchful eyes of the principal or his trained assistants. And it must not be forgotten that the lessons are assigned to the students by the teacher of the class in which they are to be taught; there is no interference with the organization and management of the school. Considering all this, the probabilities are that the loss to the class will be but a small fraction of each lesson taught by a student; and the total loss but the fraction of a fraction in any case.

But what does experience say? The Model School principals were asked for their opinion in 1877. Five were in doubt; fourteen thought the schools were not injured; an equal number thought they were injured, while twelve thought there was a benefit to the Public School.

We must bear in mind that, although these opinions are strongly against the contention that the Public Schools are injured by the Model School work, they were given at the very inception of the system. What does later experience tell us? In 1877 the session was very short; the principal rarely had an assistant; little or no time could be spent on preliminary work before the students were sent to teach in the class-rooms. Mr. Tilley, referring to the improved work done after the lengthening of the term, says, in his report for 1884: "In consequence of this preparatory training, the ordinary routine and discipline of the schools were disturbed much less than in former years, and complaint was rarely made that the Model School either interfered with the discipline of the school, or retarded the progress of the pupils; on the contrary, many principals now express the belief that the general standing of the school is improved by the Model School work." In a subsequent year, Mr. Tilley says: "In at least eighty per cent. of the schools, the work went on smoothly from the first;" and, again, "Principals very generally say the schools are improved."

Of course, it must not be forgotten that some of the principals, but a very few, think that the ordinary school work is retarded by the Model School work; and the Rev. Mr. Somerville tells us that in the Trustees' Association, the belief is quite general that injury is done to the Public School.

There is one other respect in which the regulations affect these schools, and that is the inspection. Public School inspectors are required to visit Model Schools at least twice during each term, in addition to their ordinary visits of inspection. Besides this, the schools are inspected by the Model School Inspector, who has to give a full day to each school at least once in two years. There certainly must be some benefit from this additional inspection.

To sum up, I think we may conclude that

I. There is likely to be a loss to the school,

(*a*) From the frequent change of teachers in the principal's room, caused by putting in a substitute for the Model School term.

(*b*) From too great a proportion of the teaching being done by the students in a few of the smaller schools.

II. There is likely to be a gain to the school,

(*a*) From a better qualified staff.

(*b*) From the Model School work creating an additional stimulus to better work on the part of the staff.

(*c*) From the additional inspection.

III. Reason and experience both seem to tell us that the gains are greater than the losses.

EXAMINING AND VALUING THE WORK OF CANDIDATES AT THE MODEL SCHOOLS.

BY J. DEARNESS, I.P.S.

The Inspectors and Model School Principals held a joint session, at which Mr. Dearness discussed the methods of examining candidates at the Model Schools.

Had third class certificates been limited to the jurisdiction of the Boards granting them, the present system of Model School Examinations would be open to less objection. Examiners make no secret of the fact that they pass weak candidates because if such were rejected the schools these take would probably be filled by similar or worse teachers from outside. The causes of the few failures (85 out of 1,464 in 1891, and 58 out of 1,283 in 1892) that take place cannot be accurately learned. The most of those I have discovered are on account of not making a certain percentage on the written part of the examination or of being under age. The means of partially abating the evil may be found in making the regulations governing the admission to, and graduation from, the Model Schools more stringent. Taking French or German or Latin instead of Physics and Botany should not be allowed for admission to the Model School. Other professions, as the medical, require a candidate to choose in advance which option he shall take. At present, matriculation into any profession permits the matriculant to enter the Model School and take three years' "stepping-stone" exercise in a public school by the way.

Reading is a subject that has important professional bearings. Applicants for admission to the Model School should prove by an entrance examination their ability to read well and to write English composition well, preferably based upon some such work as is now required to be read for admission to the Normal Schools.

At the final examination the regulations should define the tests and the respective minima. The marks made on Music, School Law, etc., should not be allowed to pull a weak candidate over a failure in such subjects as Theory and Methods of Education. A minimum standard ought to be required in the practical as well as in the written parts of the final examination, the former, of course, to include the sessional report made by the principal and assistants of the Model School.

VITAL PRINCIPLES VERSUS FETTERS.

BY LEONTINE T. NEWCOMBE, HAMILTON.

Educational reformers of modern times have emphasized the truth that all principles which govern educational methods are to be found in human nature.

The Divine Creator has implanted in the child hidden faculties which are to unfold during his life and build him up in the image of his source. Fortunately, these powers which exist primarily as germs, contain great possibilities and have the natural tendency to develop, if not thwarted by neglect or cramped by injudicious control.

The necessity of education lies in the helplessness of the young child in his formative periods, at which time he needs assisting and directing: "not forcibly interfering and dictating, but passively following and guiding," as Froebel says, in "The Education of Man." Pestalozzi tells us, "Force not the faculties of your children into paths too distant before they have attained strength by exercise." Again: "Spontaneity and self-activity are the necessary conditions under which the mind educates itself and gains power and independence."

As kindergartners, with Froebel we interpret this spontaneity as the child's *play;* and this play is turned to account by the greatest of all infant educators in the interests of education.

Froebel says: "I can convert children's activities, energies, amusements, occupations, all that goes by the name of *play*, into instruments for my purpose, and therefore transform play into work. This work will be education in the true sense of the term. The conception of it as such I have gained from the children themselves. They have taught me how I am to teach."

Here he strikes the key-note of method. If we would study the child more and seek to promote his normal state by providing free scope for his own activity, and lead him thus to unity with himself through freedom, we would read a more valuable lesson than we can possibly find in all the volumes of the printed page.

In our own lives we realize the truth, that all thought awakened in consciousness is worthy of the name of *thought*, while the contrary is oppressive and defaces the individuality of man. To strengthen and increase the individuality in all harmonious relations of life is the prime condition of living.

What is this individuality when rightly understood? Dr. Wm. T. Harris explains as follows: "It is the struggle for freedom and self-determination. This struggle is the school of development of individuality. There is no individuality where there is no self-activity. Individuality rises higher in the scale as it approaches the

form of knowledge and will. Self-activity is in every new-born soul as a spontaneity, a possibility of unlimited action, good or bad. But its activity must take a certain direction or else it will cramp or fetter itself. By bad action it will curtail the limits of freedom, by good action it will extend those limits. In other words, the ideal nature of self-activity is expressed by the ideas of truth, beauty and goodness; and in these directions the individual may develop himself without wasting his energy in self-contradictions. These forms bring the individual into union with his fellowmen through all eternity, and make him a participator in the divine-human work of civilization and culture.

"Man is a being who can develop within himself; he can collect experience from the individuals of his species and redistribute this experience to the individual, thus elevating the life of the individual into the life of the species, and without destroying the latter's individuality, but, on the contrary increasing it. . . . Thus each one gains individuality while he gives it to others. Here, in secular affairs is the same principle which the doctrine of grace enunciates for the religious consciousness. The more potentialities that are real the nearer is the existence to a *true* individuality. The being in which the entire circle of possibilities is realized is an actuality or energy, and a complete individuality."

I have quoted at length from Dr. Harris to answer my question ("What is individuality"), as the best exponent of the kindergarten idea of individuality which this system seeks to preserve. The conclusion is, that education from infancy onward, must promote self-activity of the pupil physically, spiritually and intellectually; and that "every child should be studied reverently, first, to see what he is, second, to see what conditions he requires for the fullest and most beautiful growth, and then he should be surrounded by those conditions and helped to grow, with as little *handling* of his individuality as possible." In our "helps" we must be sure that we do nothing for the child that he can do for himself, and that his own free choice is allowed expression along the lines of ideals held up before him in right action, in every phase of kindergarten work and example. "Helps" may be made fetters by a mechanical setting without the true spiritual interpretation.

Much has been said about "sequence" as a condition of development in the child's mind, and correspondingly in the educational appliances provided by Froebel as counterparts of the child's progressive stages of growth. Formalism in this line would dwarf and stunt the self-activity of the child, which must be preserved by leading the child to originate his own sequences.

There is a growing tendency among young kindergartners to formalism, because they do not know how to be spontaneous. We throw off the shackles as we assimilate thoroughly Froebel's ideas, till they become part of our intellectual and moral being, and through

fidelity to these, become instinctive, and not mechanical. Mistakes are often made on a half perception of the truth, and someone has said, "A half truth is worse than a whole lie." "The whole truth, and nothing but the truth," must be our endeavor, and this is what should be gradually developed in the child's mind. To accept from the child as his own what we cram into him will develop the idea of deceit and falsehood. We should see to it that, in representation, he or she is striving to put out himself or herself, not myself as the teacher or kindergartner. By way of illustrating the true method, we must ever look to the mother with her child in Froebel's greatest work, "*Die Mutter und Kose Lieder.*"

The emotional nature, which is more largely developed than any other in the young child, for which the Kindergarten is intended, demands the first appeal, and his sympathies which manifest this nature, meet us more than half way in the acceptance of the ideas presented. Clothe these ideas, replete with significance to ourselves, in the garb of simplicity for the young soul and mind that is merely seeking that harmony which to him is yet undefined in his vague consciousness, but is made clear to him only through symbolic form, play and story. It is often a difficult matter for us to free ourselves from the bondage of form and hold fast to the substance underlying it; but the true kindergartner finds her happiest and most successful work in living up to this ideal. Let us then pursue, with all honesty of purpose, a method that respects the spontaneity of the child, and if we are filled with Froebel's spiritual interpretation of this principle, violation of it is impossible. If we are ourselves mechanical, our Kindergartens have to be mechanical also, and any and all vital principles are changed into dead rules.

The fundamental principle of free, creative activity must overrule all attempts at "effect" in achievement, and in all gifts and occupations the exercises should mainly be inventive, connecting with the songs and games through sympathetic suggestion. In a word, we can only be good kindergartners in so far as we can see truth and obey it.

"Helping to grow" must follow nature's immutable laws. She is a strict accountant. If more is demanded in one direction than she is prepared to give, the account is balanced by making a deduction elsewhere; but if allowed to follow her own course, nature will eventually produce an individual more or less evenly developed—*per contra*, the protest lies in a stunted development, for size is diminished, and increase of function or structure limited.

This principle is applicable to the triune nature of the child, as well as to the historic order of development in the whole human race. Again, if there is an order in which the human race has mastered its various forms of knowledge and culture, there will arise in every child an aptitude to acquire these kinds of knowledge and culture in the same order. It facilitates education to lead the individual mind through the steps traversed by the general mind, because ideal unity

exists in all minds alike. There are as many principles as ideas, and they are as wide or narrow exactly as the ideas of which they are the application, hence we find what are often called narrow-minded people. Their application of a principle will be as narrow and as limited as the idea that formed the principle.

Let us not only deepen ideas in our pupils, but *broaden them* to that extent, that each may be inclusive of all others, and mingle in one fundamental truth, to guide, direct and impel the whole range of activities that determine the mind and soul of man.

Miss Blow says, "The problem of the *good* man must do, as related to the *freedom* with which it must be done, is ever confronting us anew. Not to conform to the ideal pattern of humanity is failure and ruin. Yet external compulsion cannot form, or mere unconscious habit fix the will; and too often, enforced obedience, recoiling, produces boundless caprice. The solution of the problem would be found in a method which should succeed in *influencing choice* by arousing in the mind a developing series of ideals. Representing to ourselves what we ought to be is the preliminary of being what we ought. We form character by progressively cancelling natural defects, and we are incited to effort that overcomes by vision of the good to be attained.

External command influences us only in so far as it finds its presupposition within us. No educator has so clearly and practically understood this truth as Froebel. His great merit is that he insinuates truth into the mind without arousing antagonism to it. The subtlety of his method is shown in the fact that he leads the child to represent to himself the ideal which should sway his acts, but in the beginning does not insist upon the compulsion of the ideal. His principle is, that its beauty must be felt before its constraint; it must allure before it commands or threatens. Therefore it must be represented in its poetic totality before it is differentiated into its prose particulars, and the little child, through an inward vision, must become a law unto himself before law is revealed as binding upon him." The songs and games of the *Mutter und Kose Lieder* open up this vision in its poetic form, and develop the beautiful harmony of the law in the child's heart and mind before the "Mosaic Code" has been sounded in his ears.

"Thou shalt not" has been preceded by the freedom of "I will" in harmony with all his sympathies and loves, intensifying a personality that Rev. Phillips Brooks speaks of, when he said: "The truth of God working through the personality of man has been the salvation of the world; increase the personality and you increase the power."

This theory seems to me the *summum bonum* of true education because it lays stress not on the passive, recipient side of our nature, but on its active side, and recognizes that the chief good of man consists in the exercise of his power according to nature. Man is endowed with certain potencies, and it is incumbent upon him to develop these by continual exercise. In the development of the organism of

the race in which we are all individual members, we have marked out for us the lines which we ourselves in our individual course and conduct are to follow. Our race has been experimenting for centuries with the best methods of realizing the potencies of our nature summed up in codes, customs and institutions, and in each self-realization of the individual in a normal and right way we know for ourselves what the race has done in countless centuries. The possibility of rising above the average of the race lies in the free scope given for the development of individuality in education in institutional life, and we see a man rising above the common plane, because more than his contemporaries he takes up into his being the intensity of the life of the race. Assimilating the ideals and aspirations of humanity, realizing the capacities of our natures in accordance with the beliefs and sentiments of the race, and entering into all the realities of life more fully than the average man, produces the hero or type, and it becomes possible for a Rousseau, a Pestalozzi, or a Froebel to tower above his immediate environment, lifting humanity in their individual efforts to hold up the mirror that reflects our ideal selves.

There is enough accumulated experience to warrant the statement that Froebel's vision was clear in the basic principle of his system: that without *freedom* all life falls little short of death. To be alive is to be *free*, and to be free is consecration to the ultimatum of working out our own intellectual, physical and spiritual salvation. This can be secured only by means of a well-considered system which shall have for its end the cultivation in our children of a firm, free, and invariably *right will*. No lack of character-building will follow such a course, and there will be a louder and longer cry for Kindergartens throughout the length and breadth of the land to lay the foundations upon which to build "not matter, but mind," "not things, but men."

This divine instinct must be inherent in the true kindergartner if she would succeed, because having it impels her to follow it, and following will lead to success. As Kindergartens have come to us and have come to stay, we must get within ourselves *Froebel's spirit* in the work that will stand revealed in all we do and say.

If we walk in this light we will have fellowship one with another, and be strong to help and strong to save the little children that come to us for guidance and direction. The glory of Columbus did not lie so much in his conceiving the idea of a western passage as in being *willing* to make the attempt *himself* with the means and equipments at hand. The Kindergarten should strengthen will-power to overcome the mists and cobwebs of thought that are woven into the vague consciousness of the little voyagers launched in a tottering lifeboat on a sea of discovery, and Froebel, like Columbus, at the helm guides, directs and comforts his crew, inspiring them, "Onward! Onward! Onward!" in time and tune with the very oars they are *themselves pulling* in the path of Life, Hope, Faith and Truth!

"Our wills are ours, we know not how;
Our wills are ours to make them Thine."

NATURE STUDIES IN THE KINDERGARTEN.

BY MISS M. C. LAWSON, TORONTO.

By Nature Studies, we mean the study of the formation of the earth on which we live; the rudimentary study of the three kingdoms, animal, vegetable and mineral; the sun, as the great lightgiver; the moon, as reflected light; the stars, as lesser lights; the seasons, winds, atmosphere, temperature, and causes and results of the same.

Through the study of Nature a spirit of investigation is aroused, and as it is through the senses that knowledge can come at first, then there results the development and training of the sense, in observation, comparison and discrimination, which will be the beginning of the reasoning power.

By gaining this knowledge a person is no longer dependent on chance. By understanding materials, and their properties in relation to himself, he knows which to use and which to put aside. His health, happiness and even life itself depend on the right use of what God has so bountifully supplied.

Through understanding Nature, superstition is certain of overthrow, and those who know most about the life and habits of the lower animals will be the most careful of doing no injury to even the smallest of God's creatures; for as the wonderful skill of the bee, the ant or the spider is seen, reverence grows, and we stand in awe at their wonder and beauty, and the greatness and goodness of our Maker.

It is natural for a child to play in the sand in the garden or field, and represent, in his crude fashion, the life round him, as he sees it; and when he cares for and tends little animals, plants or birds, he is doing what draws out the unselfish side of his nature, and in the duties that he must perform for their comfort and well-being, he has the beginning of responsibilities that will make a demand on his time and strength in later years.

So Nature appeals to the spiritual side of the child's nature, to unselfishness, goodness, kindness, love, industry, and he quickly responds. A child can see God only in His creations. "All nature studies, if followed aright, must lead the mind from the knowing and loving the things created to knowing and loving He who made them."

Froebel says a garden is for a child an enclosed portion of nature in which, by the impression of beauty and by painstaking efforts to be useful and good, he may not only learn as in a school of morality, but his soul also may open to receive its first religious impressions. Unless the child's soul has learned to recognize God the Creator in the works of His creation, it will be difficult for the idea of God, as it will afterward be taught to him, to take shape in his mind. Only that

which has shape exists for a child; only the visible world can prepare him for the invisible one, and only the visible creator can form the first step to a comprehension of the invisible Spirit.

Again, the study of Nature gives such great scope for the instinct of activity to be recognized and usefully employed, for as far as possible we must bring the child into actual contact with nature, if we want to secure the most lasting and most satisfactory results, for he will remember best that which he has used in his own hands in play. But if we cannot always take him to nature we can bring nature to him—in the leaves, twigs, stones and innumerable things interesting to the children, brought by themselves and the kindergartner to the Kindergarten, picked up by them on the way which, when brought, all can enjoy—through games lead him to imitate, to dramatically represent the activity of birds, animals, fish, etc. In stories let him live in imagination the life of Nature, personify the blades of grass, grains of sand, worms or waterdrops, that they may be in such a close bond of sympathy that concentrated attention is received. Such games, stories, etc., of course, ought to be suitable to the season of the year; certain months are adapted to the study of certain scientific points.

The return of spring is gladly welcomed by us all, for it illustrates, though it does not demonstrate, the Easter thought of the resurrection. Come forth and be glad, a thousand voices are calling, fear not the strong sunshine and the keen wind. Come forth into the searching light, invigorating air, and find your life through activity, the perfect bloom that awaits you.

NATURE STUDY.

BY E. M. RUSSELL, TORONTO, ONT.

Our first question is, "What should be taught?" I should say the things that lie all around the children in the world of nature—that come under their own observation. We wish them to become familiar with their earthly home, therefore call their attention to their surroundings. In the *country* the children will be interested in the frogs, the chickens, the sheep and lambs in the meadow, the animals in the farm-yard.

Although *city* children cannot have all these, they have the child-love for animals displayed in their affection for the kitten, and deep interest in its cousin, the lion, which they see in the menagerie.

The children at the *seaside* look with interest on the huge waves, the sand on the beach, the stones, rocks, fish, etc.

The changes in the season can be noticed *everywhere*. The winds, rain, sunshine, snow, frost will all afford themes for many interesting talks and stories, thereby arousing that investigating spirit which all children naturally possess, but which, instead of being repressed, needs to be guided into useful channels.

For introducing the subject, there is no better time than the spring, with its wealth of riches in the awakening of animal and vegetable life. Old Mother Earth, who, with her plant children, has been quietly sleeping under the soft snow blankets, has waked, and finding her old brown dress quite too shabby for spring wear, looks about for a new one. The green grass furnishes a most becoming one, which fits her perfectly. The seeds, the bulbs, the buds on bush and tree springing into new life; the moths and butterflies awaking from their long winter sleep in their cocoon cradles; the birds, to whom we said "Good bye" last autumn, returning and preparing to build new homes, are all very attractive to the children. In short, the book of nature may be made as interesting to them as a fairy tale.

These studies may be introduced in stories, songs, games, and little talks, allowing the children as much as possible to touch, see, feel and handle the things studied, thus bringing their senses into activity, and allowing them the joy of making discoveries for themselves.

NATURE STUDY IN THE KINDERGARTEN—WHAT ARE ITS ADVANTAGES?

BY MISS M. M. YOUNG, AYLMER, ONT.

The end of man, Comenius says, is to attain eternal happiness in and with God, and this can only be attained by education Therefore it is the duty and object of the school to help a man to compass this, for men are more easily moulded in their youth. We are also told that the first seven years of a child's life is the most impressionable age and this is when we have them under our direction in the Kindergarten. Now, the question is, has Nature Study in the Kindergarten any advantages that may be advanced as a means whereby we may bring about this end that Comenius says, and I am sure we all must acknowledge, is the great end of man, the attainment of eternal happiness in and with God. Although the educator may not be able to effect this—we may in some cases come far short of our aim—nevertheless we must set our level of aspiration as high as possible. Virtue is to be attained and this is the realization in each individual of the idea of inward freedom which means a relation between two things, insight and will. The duty of the teacher is to develop both of these factors in order that a permanent relation may be established between them. Psychology shows us in what order the faculties of the child are found to develop. First, we have the power of sensation followed by precepts, then the memory, which retains traces of these and can reproduce them. The constant wonderments and questionings of the young child are indications of the nascent power of judgment; he seems anxious to gain a clearer insight into the nature of things. As the child grows older he asks fewer questions and devotes himself more to action, then his individuality becomes more pronounced. Thus we naturally find children very deeply affected by their environments, their surroundings in many cases determining the character of their lives. Dr. Balliet, in his lectures on Psychology, said that "it is only necessary to manage a child's train of thought and its emotions will manage themselves."

Here is where Nature Study has an advantage. The interest of the children is kindled by dealing at first with things that are fairly within the range of their own experience, and yet before finishing it carries them into a new region distinctly beyond that range. Take, for instance, a talk about maple-sugar or the sap of a maple-tree. The children in my kindergarten have all seen the sap running from the different trees that are tapped about the town. Now, it is quite easy to get them interested on this subject; then that will lead to a talk about other trees and plants. As the sugar is made from the sap of

the maple many other things are made by other trees and plants from what they suck up from the ground, and draw in from the air. Some are medicine-factories, such as the camphor tree, the opium and castor-oil plants. The children might even be told to prick the seed-pods of the poppy-plants themselves, and they would be enabled to secure a little opium in this way. Then there are other trees called gum-factories. The india-rubber being obtained from the gum of a tree, a talk upon this subject connecting with their overshoes would certainly prove interesting as well as instructive. We should endeavor to bring as many things as possible within the range of the children's observations, thereby arresting their attention and giving them food for thought.

Herbert tells us that all teaching to be effective must set the mind of the learner in motion. Perception of the matter taught is not enough; the learner must recognize it and assimilate it to his previous experience. He must add something of his own to the ideas presented to him by his instructor. Suppose we want to lead the child to the understanding of the expression, "Mother Earth." We could easily lead up to this by getting the children to tell us about their mother; she it was who looked after them and fed them when they were wee babies. Then, by degrees, after you have got them to tell you of many different classes of food that forms their diet, you could lead them to see and comprehend how all originally comes from the earth, and since the earth is so good to us all, "Children, what do you think would be a nice name to call it?" Perhaps the child might even suggest the name; and in leading up to it what a good lesson he would get on the change that matter is always undergoing under the influence of nature's laws.

Again, should we want to lead the child to an understanding of the fact that man is not the only workman that God has created, and that there are other tools with which matter may be manipulated besides those of man's manufacture, we might refer to nature again; bring a wasp's nest to school and let the children tell you what the material that it is made of most looks like. They will tell you *paper*, for children are very apt at recognizing resemblances. In this way it may be clearly shown that the wasps are paper-makers; in a similar way, that the oriole is a weaver, the silk-worm can spin and the bee is an architect. Thus the child may be led to observe, and is enabled to generalize the qualities and possibilities of things and store them away in his memory for future use. Surely nature in many respects has the advantage of any other means of education. No other means is so well calculated to awaken curiosity and stimulate the observing and inquiring faculties, besides this study leaves with the child who is interested so much food for reflection. It should therefore be the teacher's great aim to surround her children with as many different things as are available in order to bring the subject before the child in as many different standpoints as possible. The useful knowledge

gained thereby would be illimitable, and who can tell what the after effect of a thinking child's observations may be. Is not the knowledge the world now possesses of gravitation largely due to Sir Isaac Newton, who observed the falling of an apple from a tree and began questioning the why? Dr. Benjamin Franklin, knowing that it was possible for him to fly a kite, was thus enabled to experiment with electricity and draw it from the clouds during a thunderstorm, and the power of steam, we are told, was first observed by a person watching it puffing from a tea-kettle. The great results that arose from these observations were certainly the outcome of concentrated mental activity, and the higher kinds of mental activity illustrate the full exercise of the will in the shape of an effort of concentration, therefore we should endeavor to bring under the child's observation things that we are sure cannot fail to arrest his attention so as to get him in the habit of not only exercising his sense perceptions, but his mental faculties. Thus we find by giving a child an opportunity to make use of these gatherers of concepts—the senses—we are putting him in a position to make the most of himself there by developing the inner man, the real entity. Moral lessons, too, both positive and negative, may be derived from the study of the habits of God's creatures and the laws of Nature. There is the continual round of seasons, spring, summer, autumn and winter, and a work to be done in each season, a time for rest and a time for activity given us by the daily rotation of the earth.

"Who would find a prosperous way.
The laws of order must obey.
Then teach the child to value order, time,
For these are priceless gifts in every clime."

Again, the bright and sparkling river sings its song of give away from its source all along its course, until, at last, it turns again home and is lost in the great origin of its existence. This carries with it a lesson for us, such a one that if we could live up to its teachings we would be virtuous enough at the end of our days to glide peacefully into that great ocean of God's love, the "boundless deep" that Tennyson so beautifully refers to in "The Crossing of the Bar." Bees, ants, the beaver, and many others of God's creatures set us an example of industry, and do not birds shame us every day with their bright, joyous songs? Even in early spring a robin may be overtaken by a snowstorm, but he keeps up a cheerful spirit, and his lively chirping may be heard almost as frequently then as on a brighter day. Shelley, in his ode to a skylark, acknowledges that the bird had a lesson for even him.

"Better than all measures
Of delightful sound,
Better than all treasures
That in books are found,
Thy skill to poet were, thou scorner of the ground!

"Teach me half the gladness
That thy brain must know,
Such harmonious madness
From my lips would flow
The world should listen, then, as I am listening now!"

Thus far we have said nothing about flowers, and they have an advantage over anything else, I believe, excepting music in securing a child's sympathies; each beautiful, pure upturned blossom is possessed of such soft and delicate coloring, and often fills the surrounding atmosphere with perfume so sweet that all who pass by desire to linger near where they may enjoy the fragrance so freely offered by this little flower that speaks in such unmistakable language of the goodness of its Creator. The impressions made by a flower are always of a pure and elevating character. It was a flower that quickened Froebel in his boyhood, youth, and early manhood. He was a poor lonely child, and this little flower, uncared for by human hands, seemed to speak volumes to him. After looking into its depths, day after day, it seemed to say to him, "Do not love me only, but love my Creator," and gradually love took such a possession of his soul that he cast about him for a means of taking these little ones—the children—quite fresh from God's hands, and training them up so that they might develop into everlasting flowers, fit for the Master's house. The outcome of all this was the Kindergarten, and in this child-garden the little ones now sing:

"Each little flower that opens,
Each little bird that sings,
He gave their glowing colors,
He made their tiny wings.

"He gave us eyes to see them,
And lips that we might tell,
The goodness of our Father,
Who hath done all things well."

NATURE STUDY IN THE KINDERGARTEN.

BY H. HEAKES, TORONTO.

"True kindergarten work is the development of character and the placing of the child in its right relationships to nature, man and God." In the *Mutter und Kose Luder*, Froebel shows how closely these relationships are united, and at the same time aids the mother and kindergartner in fostering and nurturing those instincts upon the development of which depends his clear understanding of these relationships.

How is the child to be led to recognize his relationship to nature? Only by coming *in contact* with it, being brought under its influence, occupying itself with the productions of nature, and by imitation. Through this contact with nature the soul of the child receives its first impressions of the Creator, who is revealed to it as the source of all life, joy and beauty.

The kindergartner must seek to understand the nature of the child as shown in his instincts; then she must be a lover of nature and one who delights in communing with her. Not only this, but she must have a well of knowledge within herself to draw from, for we cannot impart to others what we do not possess; but we must remember that our work is not so much to *show* or *tell* the child of these things but to guide him to *see for himself* and express in his own way. Just here, I think, lies *one* of *the* dangers of our work. The more we appreciate the beauties of nature the stronger is the feeling that he must share this joyous delight, and there is a danger of our crowding the minds of our little ones. The love of nature is innate in the soul of every child, so in this respect our work is not planting, but fostering and nurturing the germ, ever remembering that the Kindergarten is a place of *impressions*, and we have the privilege and responsibility of seeing that these impressions shall be correct ones, so that the expression shall be of the right kind. Let us lovingly lead the children to the *correct* observation of the world around them, for upon just perceptions depend the later conceptions and conclusions.

The imagination and the different senses are cultivated more strongly by *intelligent* contact with nature than by any other means, and a desire for knowledge awakened, observation and classification will therefore follow. Not only this, but the love for animals and plants is awakened in the child, when he cares for and works with them. Out of this unselfish attachment springs the fulfilment of duties.

How to Introduce It.

When at all possible let us take the children out to nature, as a trip to the woods. In rare cases this can be done, but in the majority

of our kindergartens, the only opportunity of outside contact for the Kindergarten, as a whole, is in the schoolyard. Let us utilize that by having boxes or beds of flowers planted and tended by the children. Let them enjoy the symbolic romp and games of nature in the bright sunshine and pure air. In this way your work need not be limited within the walls of our kindergartens. But here what wonderful opportunities we have in our work for developing the love of the beautiful, and, therefore, of the true. The decorations of the room, collections of leaves, mosses, birds' nests, illustrations of process of growth in various ways, charts, pictures, sand tables, and of course the play work of the gifts and occupations, especially modelling, drawing and coloring, afford large scope for this side of our work.

AGRICULTURE IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

The Special Committee appointed to investigate the question of teaching agriculture in Public Schools beg leave to report as follows:—

1. The present state of the law on this subject may be gathered from the prescription of work in the Departmental Regulations respecting the "Course of Studies" in Form IV. of the Public Schools, as follows: "Plant life, composition of soils, etc. The course in authorized text-book to be followed." In the "Special Directions" to teachers, the subject of agriculture is thus dealt with: "The authorized text-book on this subject should be introduced into every rural school. Special attention should be given to such points as, how plants grow, and what they feed upon; how farms are beautified and cultivated; the value of shade trees; what trees to plant and when to plant them; the relation of agriculture to other pursuits; the effects of climate on the habits of a people."

2. Except that the teaching of agriculture should not be limited to Forms IV. and V., there does not seem to be much need for any change in the phraseology of either the above regulation or the above direction, so far as rural schools are concerned. Under them agriculture may be taught to any extent, and in any way that may seem good to the authorities of each school. If the trustees of a particular school desire to have agriculture taught, they can require the teacher to give instruction in it, and the inspector will have to see that the requirement is complied with. The subject is not optional, but obligatory in rural schools, and if it is neglected school boards have themselves to blame.

3. The chief obstacle to the more general introduction of agriculture in schools seems to be the treatment it receives at the High School entrance examination, and your Committee are strongly of opinion that a practice, different from the one which at present obtains, should be adopted with respect to it. Under existing regulations, agriculture is nominally an optional subject, but instead of being encouraged to take it, pupils who go up to the examination in it are subjected to a serious disadvantage as compared with those who do not, and the consequent discouragement has practically driven the subject out of the rural schools, in a large portion of which it was taught for a time.

4. In the opinion of your Committee it is an advantage rather than otherwise that the subject is optional at the entrance examination, as the teacher is free to adopt, subject to the approval of the inspector, the most effective method of dealing with it; but so long as it is optional, the marks obtained on the agricultural paper should be

allowed as a bonus to assist the candidate in making up the percentage of the aggregate necessary to pass, and the maximum for the subject itself should be increased from seventy-five to one hundred marks.

5. It will be noticed that though the course embodied in the authorized text-book is to be followed, the use of the book itself as a text-book in the hands of the pupils is not compulsory. Without implying any disparagement of the work referred to—which is an excellent treatise on the subject, and is really indispensable alike as a source of information and as a guide to the adoption of proper methods by the teacher—it is better, in the opinion of your Committee, that the law should in this respect remain as it is. Anything more likely than cramming the contents of a manual for examination purposes to create a distaste for agriculture it would be difficult to imagine. The manner of dealing with the subject in school must be determined by reference to the purpose for which it has been introduced into the programme. This purpose is two-fold: (*a*) to arouse the scientific curiosity of the pupils about agricultural operations, and thus make them self-reliant investigators of agricultural methods; and (*b*) to make agricultural pursuits more attractive, and thus check the tendency of young men and women to abandon them for others that are intrinsically less desirable. These two objects, so far from being incompatible, can best be insured by the same means, namely, the adoption of a rational method of dealing with the subject in schools.

6. One cause for the growing dislike of farm life is the feeling of drudgery due to the want of an intellectual interest in the operations performed. The best way to arouse interest and thus counteract the feeling referred to is to make the so-called "teaching" of agriculture an inquiry into the reasons why operations familiar to all rural pupils are systematically performed. The teacher who knows how to ask the right kind of questions can easily set his pupils thinking and inquiring, and he may in this way become a centre of influence and a source of inspiration to a whole neighborhood. One such teacher quietly pursuing his investigatory and suggestive treatment of farm life and work from week to week might accomplish more for his district than a series of farmers' institutes could do in the way of an agricultural revival; and if agriculture is ever to become a subject of deep and wide-spread scientific interest to the people of this Province, it must be by fixing upon it the attention of those who are children now, and who will be the men and women of the next generation.

7. It is frequently objected that teachers who do not know the subject cannot teach it, and there is force in the objection. It must be borne in mind, however, that there are few teachers who do not know something about agriculture from practical experience, that all teachers have easy access to an admirably arranged and thoroughly modern manual on the subject, that the true attitude of

the expert teacher is not that of a dogmatist, but that of an inquirer in this or any other subject, that if he starts questions his pupils will be able to find answers to many of them in the experience of the farmers themselves, and above all that the true function of the teacher is not to fill the minds of the pupils with facts and explanations, but to make them expert at observing facts and finding out reasons for themselves—not to supply them with a mass of second-hand information, but to equip them with a method of original investigation. This he can effectively do while he himself is a learner. The objection is likely to be further obviated by the institution at the Provincial Agricultural College of summer courses specially adapted to teachers.* If school boards insist, as they have a right to stipulate, that the teachers they hire shall know something about agriculture, and if the Provincial Department of Agriculture furnishes them with an opportunity to acquire a knowledge of the subject, the objection cited loses much of its force.

8. It has been further urged as an obstacle to the introduction of agriculture into schools that there is no time for it in an already crowded programme of studies. The obvious answer is that if it is more important than other things for rural schools, the other things must give way, to some extent at least. The programme has been constructed for the schools, and for them it may be modified whenever change seems desirable. This objection usually takes the form that the great aim of school education is intellectual training, and that agriculture is not as well adapted as other subjects for use as an instrument of mental discipline. Each of these statements is incorrect. There are other objects quite as important as intellectual development to be effected by a school course, and agriculture is one of the very best means, especially in rural districts, of securing intellectual development. The kind of mental culture that is seviceable for life may be defined as including (*a*) the faculty of observing individual facts; (*b*) the ability to classify them according to resemblances and differences, and (*c*) the power of drawing correct inferences by generalization from knowledge so systematized. To pupils in rural schools the facts and phenomena of farm life and agricultural operations are, or may easily be made familiar as the result of original observation prompted by a teacher's well-directed questions. The natural tendency of the human mind to arrange facts in classes or categories, and to draw conclusions or assign causes, needs only to be encouraged by careful direction in order to open up wide and inviting fields of research in such sciences as chemistry, physics, biology, geology, and meteorology. Compared with the ordinary methods of acquiring book learning, which are for the most part simply appropriating systematized knowledge at second-hand, instead of systematizing

*The scheme referred to above has since been carried out, the first summer course for teachers having been given during July, 1893.

it for oneself, such a study of agriculture may fairly lay claim to be an exceptionally advantageous and effective means of intellectual discipline.

9. Though the law apparently contemplates that agriculture shall be taught only in rural schools, and has not made it compulsory in any others, it is in the opinion of your Committee exceedingly desirable that it should be introduced also in cities, towns and villages. If children brought up on the farm are leaving it in alarming numbers, it may be that one remedy for the evil will be found in so dealing with agriculture as to make the pursuit appear attractive to children who have never lived on a farm, and who may be found willing or eager to take up the calling which others are abandoning. To this end something might be done by giving in school text-books more prominence to matters connected with agricultural life. This is especially true of the Readers, and it should be kept in view in any future revision of the authorized series. Pending such a revision something might be accomplished by wise direction of the pupils' voluntary and supplemental reading, by the selection of themes for composition, and by taking advantage of such agricultural occurrences as are from time to time reported in the newspapers to start interesting and instructive discussions.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

WM. HOUSTON,
Chairman.

TRAINING DEPARTMENT.

CHAIRMAN'S ADDRESS.

T. KIRKLAND, M.A.

GENTLEMEN,—This, the first meeting of the Training Section of the Ontario Teachers' Association, naturally suggests many thoughts on the magnitude and importance of our work. Every profession which seeks to accomplish anything great or good for mankind, must first fully realize the importance and dignity of its mission, and the more profoundly this is realized, the more earnestly will its members set about accomplishing the work given them to do, and the solution of the problems presented to them. Associations like the one under whose auspices we have met, and more especially the sectional organization, now for the first time introduced, cannot but afford unequalled opportunities for the interchange of opinions on all difficulties involved in the subjects we shall have to consider. The conclusions arrived at by such a meeting as the present mainly derive their importance from the wide experience of those who take part in the deliberations, and the value of these conclusions will be greatly enhanced if mere speculation or theorizing is replaced by results obtained by actual experience. You know that in Chemistry or Physics, no theory, however plausible, is accepted, until verified by actual experiment. So should it be in education. Each of us has had experience peculiar to ourselves, and we are here to impart the result of that experience to each other. In a convention of doctors most of the time is taken up in reporting and discussing cases, and considering the treatment that should be adopted in each case. Might we not profit by their example? We have theory enough, but we want to know how this theory has worked when intelligently applied in the schoolroom. The profession of Teaching differs essentially from other professions, from Law or Medicine, for instance. We have no Blackstone or Eldon, no Simpson or Lister. We are asked to read Rosseau, but told at the same time that he was an irrational dreamer. We are referred to Pestalozzi, but told that he was an impracticable enthusiast. Such being the case, the conclusions arrived at by men of mature wisdom in an Association like the present cannot but be very helpful to all engaged in similar work. How to arrive at these conclusions is for us now to consider.

One method might be, to appoint a small committee to consider on what subjects, respecting the training of teachers, information is most wanted. This committee might report at our next sederunt. The subjects selected might then be referred to a committee to consider during the coming year, to collect all the informa-

tion possible, and to report at our meeting next year. We would then be in a position to intelligently discuss the subjects, and our findings would be valuable contributions towards the professional training of teachers. If we can prosecute inquiries such as those to which I have referred with zeal, wisdom and intelligence, we will do not a little to confer substantial benefits on all engaged upon one of the most vital of educational questions—the best method of training teachers.

Among the questions referred to a committee might be the following:

1. Should training schools confine themselves to strictly professional work?

Of course all are agreed that the central work of a training school is the discussion of the theory of education, educational values, methods of teaching, comparison of educational systems, and kindred topics, that tend to put the teacher in possession of the philosophy of education, and to give him technical skill in the art of teaching; in other words, to make him thoroughly conversant with professional work. But what is included in professional work? All admit that we must include Psychology. But why exclude Logic? Both are really culture studies, and both are indispensable to a science of education. Logic, especially, as the science which investigates the laws by which knowledge is acquired and communicated, has a special bearing upon the work of teaching. And where shall we place Arithmetic, Grammar and Geography? Shall we include them under professional work? Dr. Harris, the highest educational authority in the United States, says, "that it is evident no matter how well qualified students are for admission to a Normal School, the really professional work is involved in the review of the common or lower branches in the light of the higher. Even the study of Psychology, as such, is not so much of a professional study as is the applied Psychology, formed by reviewing the lower studies in the light of the higher ones. I would call this latter work educational psychology, and the former pure psychology." Another eminent authority says, "that no amount of theory about teaching the various branches can equal a thorough review and study of them in their relation to the teacher and the children to be taught." And, as you know, the German school-men consider academic instruction a necessary branch of Normal School work, and not something which, under changed circumstances, might be dispensed with. By this they do not mean that academic instruction in a training school, should not differ essentially from academic instruction in a High School. They consider that in teaching a subject in a training school attention should be given to its rise and development as a factor in education; that an historical view of the subject should be given in regard to methods, as the best safeguard against a slavish copying of educational devices; that the educational value of the subject receive attention; and that the subject should be considered in its co-ordinate relation to other subjects.

2. The educational value of the subjects of study in public schools:

(a) Their value for discipline.
(b) Their value for culture.
(c) Their value for use.

3. Should the science of education be studied in connection with practical teaching? Should it follow it? Should it precede it? What is the true arrangement of the order of pedagogical studies?

4. What is the value of "Observation" as a factor in training teachers? What portion of the allotted time should be given to it? What is the best plan for the work of observation?

5. How should method be taught, and at the same time avoid making imitators of the students?

6. Give a list of books, with a brief analysis of each, which a teacher should read (1) while attending the Model School, (2) before coming to the Normal School, (3) while attending the Normal School, and (4) while teaching.

These are only a few of the subjects I would liko to see this section take up and refer to committees at the close of our meeting. We would then have a clear and deliberate finding on each subject, and every member of the section knowing what subjects would come up at the next meeting, would have a whole year to study, and would therefore be prepared to discuss them intelligently.

Another subject I would very much like to see taken up by some section, and I do not know that any of the other sections are more competent to deal with it than the one I am addressing: What subjects ought to be taught in our Public Schools. Why are the present seven or eight subjects usually taught, taught more than others, taught in preference to all others? Why were these subjects selected in the first place? Why are they now retained, when important sciences, equally good for culture and far more useful, claim attention. For instance, does Arithmetic deserve half the time usually allotted to it? How much of it is used in after life? How much remembered four or five years after the child leaves school? How often is it made the subject of conversation in the family, except when children worry parents, brothers or sisters to solve useless problems? The same questions may be asked about many of the other subjects. Herbert Spencer says: "That which our school courses leave almost entirely out, we thus find to be that which more nearly concerns the business of life; all our industries would cease, were it not for that information which men begin to acquire, as best they may, after their education is said to be finished. . . . . The vital knowledge, that by which we have grown as a nation to what we are, and which now underlies our whole existence, is a knowledge that has got itself taught in nooks and corners, while the ordained agencies for teaching have been mumbling little else but dead formulas." Is Herbert Spencer right, or is the usual answer sufficient, that the subjects referred to are not suitable for Public Schools, that children had better be made thorough in the studies already pursued rather than to waste their time and dissipate

their energies over additional subjects? Thoroughness is a relative term. What would be thorough for a child of six or seven years old would be superficial for a child of eleven or twelve. Must a child be prohibited from studying other subjects till he is thorough in Grammar and Arithmetic. If so, this is a prohibition absolute and impossible to any advance in knowledge. The elements of any science can easily be taught to children. If so, should not children, as early as possible be made familiar with, at least, some of the phenomena of the world in which they live? This knowledge is indispensable to their well-being. The child begins such studies soon after he leaves his cradle, and continues them during his whole life, with the exception of the time he is at school. Why should knowledge, so pleasant in itself, which lies at the foundation of our civilization, and which is the basis of our arts, our institutions, and our wealth, be altogether left out during the period that children are attending school?

Leaving, then, for further consideration and discussion, the entire subject of the training of teachers until we have acquired fuller information, and assuming for the present that the methods in use in our Normal and Model Schools are the best at present known, permit me to direct your attention to a few points which I think should be impressed on the student-teacher, not in the form of didactic lectures, but "at sundry times and in divers manners" as opportunities may occur.

In the first place, we should endeavor to have him form a proper estimate of the profession in which he is soon to engage. This is by no means unimportant, for we constantly find teachers leaving their own calling to engage in other professions by no means so desirable. The ranks of Law and Medicine are yearly recruited from the teaching profession. These, no doubt, offer to a few greater prizes, but on the whole they will be found to possess more disadvantages and fewer attractions than the profession of teaching. At the present time teaching is second to no other profession in importance, in responsibility, in the opportunities it offers for usefulness, for doing good to others, and for the acquisition of knowledge. It is quite true that it will not lead to wealth, but it affords enough to support a comfortable and happy home. It is unlikely to lead to fame, but it will secure the esteem and friendship of those best acquainted with the value of the work done, and of those whose characters it has formed and whose lives it has made better and brighter. But it offers other inducements. That which is unknown and perhaps knowable has always proved attractive to minds of the highest order. No other profession offers greater possibilities in this respect. How very little is yet known of the laws which govern the mental growth of the child, on whose right development depends all good causes in the future. As you know, there are two methods of studying the mind; one through consciousness, commonly known as the method of introspection; the other through the outward manifestations of mental

activity, known as the method of observation. The first method is indispensable. But is it sufficient? Does it not require to be supplemented by external observation? In all pedagogical inquiry ought not the chief emphasis to be laid on observation, the same as is done in the study of the natural sciences. If this is so, then what a vast field of investigation is laid open to the teacher. These are only a few of the advantages of the teaching profession. We might easily increase the number. Hence, without in the least detracting from other professions, we can truly say that the profession of teaching affords ample opportunities for doing thoroughly good, unselfish work, and is therefore likely to lead to a contented and happy life.

In this age of examinations, we will have to direct the attention of the student-teacher over and over again and persistently to the true end of education; that it is not, as is commonly supposed, the acquisition of knowledge; that it can never be measured by knowledge, and more especially by the verbal expression of knowledge. It has three great ends, character, culture and learning. Its chief intellectual end is mental power—power to acquire, power to express, power to apply, and the only true test of mental power is mental action. Without a clear, intelligent grasp of these principles the teacher may become an artizan, but he will never become an artist.

We will do the young teacher an essential service by frequently directing his attention to the characteristics and tendencies of the age in which he lives, more especially its educational tendencies. If a pendulum swings too far to one side it will of necessity swing too far to the other side. The educational pendulum is now in some respects on one of its return swings. And the reason is not far to seek. Formerly little or no attention was paid to methods of teaching. Anyone who knew, or partly knew, a subject, was supposed to know how to teach it. Now all this is changed. Not a few believe that if they are in possession of certain methods of teaching, a thorough and exhaustive knowledge of the subject is of comparatively little importance. This is a profound mistake. If we cannot have both scholarship and methods, by all means let us have the former. The old parish schoolmasters of Scotland did not know much about methods of teaching; but, as a general rule, they possessed scholarship and culture. What was the result? They sent abroad a class of men who achieved success in every country of the world and in every walk of life. A young Mohammedan soldier had often listened with awe and wonder to the tales told of the mighty deeds of Omer. He longed to see the sword by which these mighty deeds had been accomplished. When introduced to the great chief he was surprised that the sword he so longed to see differed but little from the blade which hung from his own belt. Omer, seeing his surprise, quietly remarked that victory lay not so much in the sword as in the arm by which it was wielded. Behind our very best methods there must be the accomplished, earnest, enthusiastic teacher, with power and magnetism to arouse and stimu-

late the pupil to put forth effort. This was the work of Socrates. And the teacher that can do this, can do good educational work. If he cannot do this, he may be in possession of all the best known methods, and they will only make his failure the more conspicuous. Do not think that a word of warning against the abuse of methods is unnecessary. We have only to glance over the current educational literature of the day, and we will see much of the wonderful saving of time and labor which are sure to follow the adoption of certain patent methods, and in consequence young teachers may fail to appreciate the fact that pupils must work long and hard and faithfully if they wish to become scholars.

Closely connected with the foregoing, but important enough to demand separate mention, in order that the student teacher may be warned against a practice all too common, more especially in our graded schools, the practice which assigns to the teacher all the real work of the school, while the pupils simply look on. The result of all this is to enervate their minds, to unfit them for earnest work, and to make them superficial and talkative. Trustees, parents and visitors are sure to be delighted with the life and energy of such a teacher, with the masterly manner in which he unfolds his subjects, and with his wonderful display of knowledge. Such a teacher is sure to be popular, and hence the temptation which none but a conscientious teacher can withstand. Charles Kingsley describes a school in England, a school for young gentlemen, in which the teachers learned all the lessons and the pupils heard them. We need not go to England to seek for schools of this kind. The cause I have already referred to. Formerly pupils were left very much to themselves. Now they are constantly in the hands of the teacher. Formerly they were left to obtain all their knowledge from books. Now the pendulum has swung to the other extremity of the arc, and with our continuous oral teaching we are doing our best to unfit them for obtaining knowledge other than from the teacher. We must impress upon the teachers in training that teaching must never supersede study, and that study must include the study of books, and how to use them to the greatest advantage. All teaching finds its immediate end in directing the work of the learners. Giving too much help is like giving too much medicine; it may weaken the patient beyond all hope of recovery. When teaching degenerates into the simple act of communicating information it ceases to be teaching. Knowledge cannot be poured into the mind of the pupil. By trying to do this the pupil is prevented from using his own faculties. It robs him of the pleasure which would result from leading him to discover truth for himself. Not only that, but it so benumbs and deadens his faculties so that in a little while he will lose all desire for seeking for knowledge; he will cease to be an investigator, and gradually accept a portion of what is offered to him. It is one thing to remove a difficulty, and quite another to give the least assistance that will enable a pupil to overcome the difficulty.

I have spoken of the importance of calling the attention of the teacher in training to the tendencies of the age in which he lives, and it may not be unimportant to call his attention to certain tendencies which characterize his own profession. One of these is the tendency to get on some hobby, and recklessly ride it to death. Without due care, the teacher has a tendency to become a man of one idea, and a man of one idea is always to be dreaded. You are to be congratulated if you have not met with a teacher who thought that the panacea for all educational ills was to be found in some subject such as objective teaching; in drawing maps in sand; in modelling in clay; in Tonic sol fa in music; in many other things, all good enough in themselves, but in making a hobby of them the teacher has not only bored his friends, but, what is of more consequence, he has neglected a dozen other things equally important.

And now I trust that we may be able to make this section of the Association a model for the others; that it may be eminently a working section. Our system of training teachers is our own. We believe it is the best in the world, but we do not think it is perfect. We are constantly seeking and suggesting improvements in our own work, and we are ever ready to accept outside criticism, and gladly hail it as an evidence of public interest in education.

Woe to the schools in which teachers or administrators consider any part of the system perfect.

"Labor with what zeal we will,
Something still remains undone,
Something uncompleted still,
Waits the rising of the sun."

In conclusion, that this, the first meeting of the Training Section of the Ontario Teachers' Association, may prove as profitable as the indications now promise, is my earnest hope.

Dora Hood
May 61
EL

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